CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This chapter gives the historical background and review of the scholarly contemporary work in English Language Teaching (ELT). It discusses the status of English among the languages around the world, and various special terms used in the study of ELT. The Major portion of the chapter is devoted to the analysis of various approaches or methods in ELT. The analysis includes basic tenets of a particular method, reasons for its evolution as a popular method at a given time, advantages and disadvantages of using the method, and identification of the group of learners who might benefit the most from using that particular method. The chapter concludes with the implications of the study.

2.1 Languages in the world

The estimated number of languages in the world is between 4,000 to 4500. But considering the total world population of 4 billion and 19 million, this seems to be a small number. If we divide this number by 4,500 languages, we have approximately one language for every 893,111 people. There are only five languages that can claim a large number of speakers, namely Chinese, English, Hindi-Urdu, Russian, and Spanish. Of these
languages, only English can claim to be the world language in the sense that in its various forms and functions, it is used by a large portion of human population for easy communication between and among diverse cultural and language background.

English, which was a minor language in the sixteenth century, has slowly but surely gained an edge over other major languages as an international language. If we compare the present position of English with what the English poet John Dryden said about it in 1693, we can understand the diffusion and gain in prestige in the last three hundred years. Dryden complained in 1693, "We have yet no prosodia, not so much as a tolerable dictionary, or a grammar, so that our language is in a manner barbarous" (cited in Baugh and Cable, 1978:255). It is estimated that 230 million people in the world speak English as a first or native language. Of these, 145 million live in the USA, a little less than fifty-five million in the UK and Ireland, and approximately thirty million in the British dominions and colonial possessions. It is estimated that approximately fifty million to 125 million people speak English as a second language or an auxiliary language. In conclusion, it would be reasonable to say that the total number of speakers of English is between 300 million to 325 million, about one-seventh of the world's population. English is spoken as a native language on at least four continents of the world; Russian on two, Chinese and Indic on one. English, without a doubt, is the closest approach to a world language. The following table is a testimony to the fact.
Table 2.1
Enrollment in English in the top ten nations
in which English functions as a second language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Students (millions)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republic of South Africa</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Statistics based on Gage and Ohannessian 1974

It is possible to conceptualize a world hierarchy like that outlined for Europe and India. The figure below clearly indicates that English and French are at the apex with the position of French declining and English becoming lingua franca.
English is currently the most widely studied foreign language in the European Union (EU). A recent study of foreign language learning in 25 countries Dickson and Cumming, (1996) shows English to be the most popular modern language studied worldwide. The following figure is based on the data from the early 1990s and we can clearly notice that there are no rivals to English.
There are three types of English speakers. First-language (L1) speakers are those for whom English is the first and often only language. Second-language speakers use a local form of English but may be fluent in international varieties of English. English was an elite second language, required for further education and government jobs.

The third group of English speakers learn English as a foreign language (EFL). These three groups have become widely known (after Kachru 1985) as the 'inner circle', the 'outer circle', and the 'expanding circle' as explained in the following figure.
Every language acquires in course of time evidence of the history of people who speak and use it. Migrations, contact with other societies and languages, major social and political changes within the population, changing functions for which the language is used, sheer numbers of users, the simple passage of time - all these factors influence a language and tend to produce diversity within it. In the case of English, the history of English-speaking peoples is reflected, among other ways, in the geographical dispersion of English over the world, and above all in the gradual growth of two principal branches of English 'British English' branch and an 'American English' branch - each with its own off-shoots. It is not uncommon until one works closely with professionals from the opposite side of the Atlantic that the nature and extent of similarities and differences between the two become evident.
One discovers that although the USA and Britain share the same language, and although they broadly share a common outlook on education and teaching, their separate historical and intellectual strands of development, and their cultural differences, combine to produce a distinctive ELT profession in each country. First, one needs to be aware of divergent terminologies used by both the countries. The American terms TEFL, TESL, TESOL, TESOLD have no British counterparts in British usage. The principal British term is English Language Teaching (ELT), which normally excludes English as the mother tongue. In discussing historical forms of English, we know very little about past forms of English, and the discussion of varieties which follows is concerned with the present-day language - with varieties of contemporary English. The graphic form of very many different kinds of English is illustrated below in the diagram of the language family of English. The diagram also illustrates affinities by which the users can identify each other.

**Figure 5**

The Language Family of English

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AMERICAN ENGLISH BRANCH

U.S.A.

Canada

Mid-West

Southern

Philippines

Paso Rico

S.E. Coast

Am. Samoa


BRITISH ENGLISH BRANCH

Britain

India

Canada

Australia

American English

Standard English

English

Scottish

Irish

W. Africa

N. Africa

Anglophone

S. Africa,
Rhodesia

W. Africa

New Guinea

New Zealand

Asia

India

Pakistan

Africa

Malay

Chinese

Barbades

Trinidad

Jamaica

etc.

Forms of 'Indian English'


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(continued on next page)
2.2 The Teaching of English

The purposes for which students are learning a particular language are paramount, and determine the approach to teaching and materials. It is in that reference that "Language for Special Purposes" (LSP) is growing in importance. Stevens (in Kinsella 1978, 192) attributes the recent expansion of LSP to the "global trend towards 'learner-centered education,'" with its emphasis on learners' needs and interests. It may be considered a product of rapid technological and societal changes and the increased mobility of population. The teaching of English is divided into various categories, each with its own tradition, terminology, perspective, theory, practice, publications, and organizations. They are as follows:

Teaching English as an International Language (TEIL): Teaching English as a global lingua franca, making people aware in the process of the worldwide role of the language and problems arising derived related to that role. English for Specific Purposes (ESP): is in great demand in countries anxious to familiarize students with the latest developments in their fields of study in English-speaking world and in other language areas whose research reports are rapidly translated into English. Teachers of English as a second or foreign language should be familiar with the many acronyms in the use of ESP.

English for Science and Technology (EST): Mackay and Mountford (1978, 6) quote from a 1957 UNESCO report that nearly
two-thirds of engineering literature appeared in English at that date. Scientists and technologists from many countries, whose languages are not learned and used on an international level, routinely report their work in English. EST, the oldest subsection of ESP, has come of age.

Figure 6

English for Educational Purposes (EEP), for which Robinson (1980, 7) proposes English for Academic Purposes (EAP) prepares students to study other subjects in English as an Auxiliary Language (EAL) or to undertake specialized courses in English speaking universities. EAP goes beyond language study to training in study skills.
English for Occupational Purposes (EOP): applies less to the requirements of highly advanced professionals and more to the everyday needs of working people. These workers need to be able to understand spoken and written instructions and to communicate in work situations with foremen and fellow workers. Most occupationally oriented courses lay primary stress on oral communication. In this way EOP courses differ from those for EST.

Teaching English as a Native Language (ENL): It is also referred to as Teaching English as a Mother Tongue or Teaching English as a First Language. The term is often used as educational programs in general and as a shorthand term for teaching and studying of English language and literature in particular. The term refers to those countries and territories in which English is the first and only significant language, such as Australia, anglophone Canada, Britain, the Irish Republic, New Zealand, and the USA.

Teaching of English as a Second Dialect (TESD): The term refers to teaching the standard language to speakers of non standard varieties of English, such as a dialect (Ebonics in the USA or Scouse in the UK). On January, 1997, the Oakland, California school board revised its policy recognizing black English as a separate language. The word "Ebonics" - a combination of "ebony" and "phonics" a widely recognized phrase was criticized as legitimizing slang and lowering standards for black students. The board agreed to change the phrase that recognizes black English as
"primary language" of many black students. Some proponents of TESD use the term Standard English as a Second Dialect (SESD) to present standard English as one dialect among many and not as a specially prestigious entity in its own right.

Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL): The term refers to the teaching of English in countries where it is of interest and/or importance but is or has not been until recently a local medium of communication or instruction, such as Japan, Saudi Arabia, and Sweden. In the late 20th century, the term EFL countries refers in effect to the rest of the world. Secondly, the term refers to providing courses in ENL countries for visiting students from EFL countries. Another term used principally for this category, especially in Britain, is English Language Teaching (ELT).

Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL): The term refers to the teaching of English in countries where English language is not a mother tongue but has long been part of the fabric of society, usually for imperial and colonial reasons in the relatively recent past, either as a lingua franca or a medium of education, or both. The term ESL countries refers to those territories in which English has a statutory role such as (co-)official language or medium of education, but is not generally used in the home, such as India, Nigeria, and Singapore. Secondly, the term refers to the teaching of English to non-English-speaking immigrants coming to ENL countries. The comparable term Teaching English to Speakers of Other
Languages (TESOL), originally used in North America primarily for the teaching of immigrants, is now used worldwide in both senses.

The terms ESL and EFL are used interchangeably, but in reality the terms ESL and EFL are sometimes used to differentiate between the teaching of English as a subject area alone (EFL) as contrasted with its use as a medium of instruction (ESL). Another confusion over ESL arises in places where English is a "second" language. In India, speakers of Bengali, Gujarati, or Tamil must also learn Hindi as a second language as it is a national language. In Ethiopia, children study the national language, Amharic (often not the child's mother tongue), and English as well. But for all practical purposes, English is often spoken of as a vital second language in India, Ethiopia, as well as other countries.

The school programs designed to assist children who are in the process of acquiring English as their language have often been organized by focusing on the language in which instruction is delivered. Bilingual approaches involve the use of two languages for the language deficient children. Transitional bilingual programmes are ones in which children's first language is used as a medium of instruction until they become fluent enough to receive all their instruction in English. ESL is a part of such programmes. It is expected that the amount of instruction offered in the child's native language will decrease as the child's ability to use English increases. Almost all Bilingual programs in the USA would be identified as transitional programs (Fishman, 1979; Trueba, 1979).
Although bilingual education is at one end of the instructional continuum, at the other end are instruction models that offer instruction in English only: submersion, immersion, and ESL. Submersion cannot truly be considered a programme as in this model the child is placed into the monolingual classroom and allowed to sink or swim. In immersion programs, the second language learner is enrolled in a monolingual classroom, but the teacher understands the child's native language and therefore is able to shape instruction with the child's native language and therefore is able to shape instruction with the child's need in mind. In ESL programmes, the child is in the regular classroom setting for most of the day, but is pulled out of the classroom to receive special instruction in ESL.

The proliferation of approaches and methods is a prominent characteristic of contemporary second and foreign language teaching. The review of literature is written in response to this situation. It is an attempt to depict, organize, and analyze major and minor approaches as well as methods in language teaching and their underlying nature.

2.3 Basic concepts

In describing methods, the difference between a philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principals, and a set of derived procedures of teaching a language, is central. In an attempt to clarify this
difference, a scheme was proposed by American applied linguist Edward Anthony in 1963. He identified three levels of conceptualization and organization, which he termed approach, method, and technique.

The arrangement is hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach...

...An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught...

...Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural. Within one approach, there can be many methods...

...A technique is implementation - that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well (Anthony 1963: 63-7).

Thus, according to Anthony's model, approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; technique is the level at which classroom procedures are described. Thus, a method is
theoretically related to an approach, is organizationally determined by a design, and is practically realized in a set of procedures.

2.4. **Major approaches to language teaching**

Languages have been taught to students by a variety of methods. In evaluating the effectiveness of any one method, one should ask oneself the following questions:

1. What are the objectives of the method?
2. What are the types of students one will teach and what is the most economical way to teach them?
3. Will the technique maintain the interest and enthusiasm of the learners?
4. Are the techniques appropriate for all types of students and teachers?
5. Are the techniques easily adaptable to fulfill the demands made on teachers so that they can carry a full teaching load?

As we review the literature in the area of teaching English, we will try to review different methods that have been tried in recent decades which will clearly illustrate that there is no single way to teach a foreign language that will suit all students and teachers. Not all learners are alike, and individual abilities, learning styles, ages, and attitudes will require different instructional strategies. Likewise, teachers' personalities and experience will match better with some methods than others.
There were three major strands in the development of language teaching in the 19th century. The first strand was the gradual integration of foreign language teaching into a modernized secondary school curriculum. The second strand was rather more difficult to describe because it was undocumented. This was the expansion of the market for utilitarian language learning related to practical needs and interests. It took place from about the middle of the century as the European nations came into closer and more frequent contact with each other and with other countries throughout the world. The demand for utilitarian language teaching was more intense in Germany than elsewhere in Europe which accounts for dominance of textbooks and methods by authors of German origin, prominent among which were Ahn and Ollendorff. The third strand was the early history of reform, prominent among which were Jacotot, Marcel, and Gouin in France, and Prendergast from England whose ideas foreshadow many of the notions later developed in the 20th century by Palmer and West.

2.4.1 The Grammar-Translation Method

The Grammar-Translation method was devised and developed for use in secondary schools. It could even be called 'the grammar-school method' since its strengths, weaknesses, and excesses reflected the requirements, aspirations, and ambitions of the nineteenth-century grammar school in its various guises in different countries. It began in Germany, or more accurately, Prussia, at the end of the eighteenth century and established an almost impregnable position as the favored
methodology of the Prussian Gymnasien (grammar schools) after their expansions in the early years of the nineteenth century (Howatt 1984, 131).

As the names of the leading exponents suggest (Johann Seidenstucker, Karl Plotz, H. S. Ollendorf, and Johann Meidinger), Grammar-Translation was the offspring of German scholarship, the object of which according to W. H. D. Rouse (Quoted in Kelly 1969, 53) was "to know everything about something rather than the thing itself." It was known in the USA as the Prussian method. The principal characteristics of the Grammar-Translation method are as follows.

Grammar-Translation method is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of target language. "The first language is maintained as the reference system in acquisition of the second language" (Stern 1983, 455). Reading and writing are the major focus; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking and listening. In a typical Grammar-Translation text, the grammar rules are presented and illustrated, a list of vocabulary items are presented with their translation equivalents, and translation exercises are prescribed. The sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice. Much of the lesson is devoted to translating sentences into and out of the target language, and it is this focus on the sentence that is the distinctive feature of the method. Accuracy is emphasized. Grammar is taught deductively - that is, by presentations and
study of grammar rules which are then practiced through the translation exercises. The student's native language is the medium of instruction. It is used to explain new items and to enable comparisons to be made between the foreign language and the student's native language.

The earliest Grammar-Translation course was written in 1793 by Johann Christian Fick (1763-1821) and published in Erlangen in South Germany. It was modeled on an earlier work for the teaching of French by the originator of the method Johann Valentin Meidinger (1756-1822) as the full title of Fich's book shows. The title is Practical English Course For Germans Of Both Sexes, Following The Method Of Meidinger's French Grammar. To a 20th century reader, practical is a synonym for 'useful' but in the 19th century a practical course required practice which also required various kinds of exercises to achieve high standards of accuracy. Another reason for emphasis on practice eventually resulted in being a prerequisite for passing the increasing number of formal written examinations that grew up during the century.

Although Grammar-Translation method started out as a simple approach to language learning for young children, it was grossly distorted in the collision of interests between the classics and their modern language rivals. The really bad Grammar-Translation course books were not those written by famous people like Ahn and Ollenorff, but those specially designed for use in secondary schools by the schoolmasters namely Tiarks
and Weisse. David Nutt, publisher of Tiarks admits that Tiarks' books were the most extensively used series of elementary German books in the 1860's. There were fifteen editions of *Practical Grammar Of German* and eleven editions of *Introductory Grammar*. The book *Introductory Grammar* takes the student through the parts of speech with their various conjugations. The best that can be said about the book is that it has only 172 pages.

T. H. Weisse, second of Grammar-Translation schoolmasters, produced a book of over 500 pages which was called *A Complete Practical Grammar Of German Language* and which grew out of forty years of teaching in large classes in Edinburgh. It appeared in 1885 with a letter from a professor of Logic and Metaphysics at University of Edinburgh who judged it 'in all respects satisfactory' adding, just to be on the safe side, 'when accompanied with your personal instructions.' It is an organizational nightmare with exercises printed in unpredicted places namely exercise one printed on page 333 and exercise fifteen printed on page 43. It is important to realize that his book is not a reference book but a textbook which also provides 136 directions for the proper use of Ahn's First Course at the end of the book.

Born in 1796, Franz Ahn, a native of Germany in Aachen on the German-Dutch border, published a French course in 1834, the first example of his famous *A New Practical And Easy Method* with courses in German, English, Spanish, Italian, and Russian to follow. In his First Course there
are sixty-eight lessons in the space of only sixty-six pages, plus a set of twelve areas of vocabulary and twelve pages of 'easy dialogues'. Ahn's grammar notes require only a minimum knowledge of grammatical terminology, vocabulary is useful, practice sentences are short and easy to translate. They are also very dull. His situations are dull and uninteresting. His textbooks are simple and proceed one step at a time with plenty of practice. With Ollendorf, however, there is much more deliberate approach to textbook planning and organization of materials and practice. There are even glimmerings of a theory.

Born in 1803, and having launched his method in 1835, Ollendorf wrote *A New Method Of Learning To Read, Write, And Speak A Language In Six Months*, and taught German to French and English speakers. There are two features to his courses; the first is the theory of interaction which is based on exercises. The practical outcome of 'interaction theory' is that his exercises consist of questions and answers in the mother tongue to be translated into foreign language. There are no exercises in the other direction. The other feature is his system of linguistic grading. He used it seriously. New points are introduced one by one, and he does not insist on covering a whole paradigm in one lesson. His grading system is influenced by convention and logic. He uses traditional parts of speech grammar.

Ahn and Ollendorf were appreciated for their practical aims, but were critical of their lack of profundity. A review of Ollendorf's German course in the *Foreign Quarterly Review* of 1845 summed up the book by
saying, 'in one word, the grammar put into a conversational shape. ... a
method exclusively and entirely conversational will never satisfy strong
minds.' Kroeh later commented in Modern Language of America in 1887
under the heading 'The Practical Method' about Ahn and Ollendorf by
saying, "Their leading idea is practice before theory, and although they
have been subject to much well-deserved ridicule for the puerility of their
examples, they mark an important advance in the art of teaching languages
... No grammatical aid is given except what may be gathered from an
appendix and a few footnotes. The reaction against grammar was evidently
too great. Sound instruction in language cannot be divorced entirely from
grammar" (Kroeh 1887, 186). Little stress is laid on accurate
pronunciation and intonation. Communication skills are neglected. There
is much stress on knowing rules and exceptions, but little training in using
the language actively to express one's own meaning, even in writing. The
language learned is of a literary type and the vocabulary is detailed and
sometimes esoteric.

The techniques of Grammar - Translation method do achieve their
objectives where students are highly intellectual and interested in abstract
reasoning. After several years, the best students know many words in the
new language and have an intellectual grasp of structure, which can become
active if they have the opportunity to live for a period of time in an area
where the language is spoken. This method, however, is not successful
with the less motivated students who find language study very tedious and
usually drop out of the class as soon as they possibly can. Average students have to work hard at what they consider laborious and monotonous chores without much feeling of progress in the mastery of the language. Their role in the classroom is a passive one wherein they reproduce what they have learned to satisfy the teacher.

Although the Grammar - Translation method often creates frustration for students, it makes few demand on teachers. The teachers do not need to show much imagination in planning their lessons as they follow the textbook page by page and exercise by exercise.

Although Grammar - Translation method is still widely practiced, it has no advocates. It is a method for which there is no theory. There is no literature that offers a rationale or justification for it or that attempts to relate it to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory. In the mid and late nineteenth century opposition to Grammar - Translation method gradually developed in several European countries. As a result, Reform Movement, as it was referred to, laid the foundation for the development of new ways of teaching languages and raised controversies that have continued to the present day.
2.4.2 Reform Movement

The reformer Sweet (1845-1912), in his book *The Practical Study Of Languages*, set forth the principles of the new teaching method which included careful selection and imposing limits on what is to be taught, going from simple to complex, and teaching basic skills namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing. These reformers followed specific procedures for teaching a language which could be listed as follows:

1. Spoken language was primary.
2. Phonetics should be taught and teachers should be trained.
3. Spoken language should precede the written language.
4. Words should be presented through meaningful sentences.
5. Grammar should be taught inductively.
6. Translation should be avoided although mother tongue could be used to explain new words.

Sweet's aim in *The Practical Guide To Study Of Languages* was to devise 'a rationally progressive method' which was also intended as a 'comprehensive general view of the whole field'. The book is divided into three main subsections. The first section (chapters 2-7) deals in detail with the teaching of phonetics. The next seven chapters contain methodological principles covering five major areas of practical language learning: grammar, vocabulary study of texts, translation and conversation. The book closes with a series of essays on topics such as the study of foreign language, learning of classical and 'remoter' languages and investigation of
unwritten languages. His aim in the book is to find out the most efficient and economical way of learning languages, not so much as why one learns languages. It begins with a statement “All study of language must be based on phonetics.” He attached undue importance to pronunciation as the foundation for successful language learning.

Sweet came tantalizingly close to calling his subject 'practical philology'. Although he used the term, he did not pursue it. Had he done so, we might be now in the fortunate position of being able to distinguish between 'practical linguistics' as the term for activities associated with language teaching and other practical matters, and 'applied linguistics' as a more appropriate label for activities more closely dependent on theoretical studies such as, for example, devising linguistic descriptions. Nomenclature apart, Sweet's work established an applied linguistic tradition in language teaching which continues uninterruptedly to the present day (Howatt 1884, 189).

The ideas manifested by communicative language teaching approach have been known by a variety of labels namely Natural Method, Conversation Method, Direct Method. Communicative approach and the classroom techniques associated with them have also changed from time to time. In the 1920s and 1930s applied linguists systematized the principles proposed earlier by the Reform Movement and so laid the foundations for what developed into the British approach to teaching English as a foreign
language. Subsequent developments led to Audiolingualism in the USA and the Oral Approach or Situational Language Teaching in Britain.

2.4.3 Direct Method

The various "oral" and "natural" methods which developed at that time can be grouped together as forms of the direct method, in that they advocated learning a new language through direct association of words and phrases with objects and actions, without the use of the native language by teacher or student. Speech preceded reading, but even in reading students were encouraged to forge a direct bond between the printed word and their understanding of it, without passing through an intermediate stage of translation into the native language. The ultimate aim was to develop the ability to think in the language, whether one was conversing, reading, or writing (Rivers 1981, 32).

This reformation of the study of language led next to what was called the Direct Method. This method followed the belief that learning to speak a new language is not a rational but an intuitive process for which human beings have a natural capacity provided that the proper conditions exist. There are three such conditions: someone to talk to, something to talk about, and a desire to understand and make yourself understood. Interaction is the heart of natural language acquisition, or conversation as Lambert Sauveur called it when he initiated the revival that led eventually to this Method. Sauveur (1826-1907), a native speaking Frenchman, joined
other linguists like Heness and Pestalozzi in a joint venture of opening a school of Modern Languages in the city of Boston in 1869. He followed two basic principles, the first being ‘earnest questions’ and the second being ‘coherence’ in language which means to ‘connect scrupulously the questions in such a manner that one may give rise to other.’

Related to the Direct Method is the Natural Method. J. S. Blackie, 19th century Scottish professor of Latin and Greek, believed in the systematic method of teaching languages which was based on Nature. There are four elements of a natural method. They are direct appeal to the ear, this appeal is made in circumstances where there is direct relation, the same appeal to the ear is continuously repeated for a considerable length of time, the appeal is made to excite the attention and engage the sympathies of the hearers. Blackie's four points sum up everything that has been said about natural or direct methods of language teaching as is evidenced from his use of the adjective 'direct' twice in the above statement. Teach the spoken language first, relate the words of the new language directly to their referents in the outside world, practice, and work as hard as possible to gain and keep the learner's interest. It is rather a mystery as to who invented the term 'Direct Method'. The most reasonable explanation of the mystery is the obvious one that nobody invented the term, but that it 'emerged' as a useful generic label to refer to all methods of language teaching which adopted the monolingual principle as a cornerstone of their beliefs.
Another advocate of the Natural Method was Gouin, who turned his attention to observation of child language learning. In fact at various times throughout the history of language teaching, attempts have been made to make second language learning more like first language learning.

A theoretical justification for a monolingual approach to language teaching was suggested by The German scholar F. Franke who wrote about the psychological principles between forms and meanings in the target language (1884). According to him, a language could best be taught by using it actively in the classroom. Rather than using analytical procedures that focus on explanation of grammar rules, teachers must encourage direct and spontaneous use of foreign language in the classroom. Learners will then be able to induce rules of grammar. The teacher replaced the textbook in the early stages of learning. Speaking began with systematic attention to pronunciation. Known words could be used to teach new vocabulary, using mime, demonstration, and pictures.

The most famous advocate of the Natural Method, Maximilian D. Berlitz (1852-1921), an immigrant himself, saw the needs and talents of immigrants and devised a system of language teaching that answered the needs of the time. Berlitz, with his assistant Nicholas Joly, became an excellent systematizer of basic language teaching materials organized on 'Direct Method' lines, that is teaching with the belief that human beings have a natural capacity to learn languages. He never wrote a manual like Sauveur, his predecessor, but all his books contain the same directions to
the teacher. The teacher's directions are very clear and straightforward: no translation under any circumstances, a strong emphasis on oral work, avoidance of grammatical explanations until late in the course, and maximum use of question-and-answer techniques. His teachers were all native speakers, a cardinal Berlitz principle. The routinized methodology contained in the teacher's directions, and the layout and content of the textbooks, were the basic means of exerting control over standards and aims. It was a matter of professional pride in the Berlitz organization, according to Pakscher (1895), that a student leaving a course in New York could pick it up again at the same lesson in London, and then in Dresden, Paris, or Berlin. The Berlitz system was intended to be a 'teacher proof' system for relatively inexperienced, and not always very highly motivated teachers. It could, on the other hand, be a stimulating, and, for a time, a rewarding experience. Compared with Sauveur's intuitive style, the Berlitz method was simple, systematic, ordered, and replicable. A typical Berlitz learner has no formal linguistic training from school, he needs English in order to keep in touch with friends and relatives who had emigrated to the USA, or who perhaps wanted to emigrate the country themselves. In some respects Sauveur and Berlitz shared a common background. They were both immigrants, though Sauveur had arrived in the USA about ten years earlier. They were both in the teaching profession - Berlitz came from a family of teachers in south Germany - and they both ran language schools within a few miles of each other on the New England coast.
Without Sauveur, the Direct Method would not have happened when it did; but without Berlitz, very few people would have benefited from it (Howatt 1984, 204).

The Direct Method, was, even though quite successful in private language schools like the Berlitz chain, it was difficult to implement it in public secondary school education. It overemphasized and distorted the similarities between naturalistic first language learning and the realities of the classroom. It lacked the rigorous basis in applied linguistic theory, and for this reason it was often criticized by the more academically based proponents of the Reform Movement. The Direct Method represented the product of enlightened amateurism. It was perceived to have several drawbacks. It required teachers who were native speakers or had native like fluency in the foreign language. It was largely dependent on the teacher's skill, rather than on a textbook. Not all teachers were proficient enough in the foreign language to adhere to the principles of the method which was often times counterproductive since teachers were required to go to great lengths to avoid using the native tongue when a brief explanation in the native tongue might avoid frustration on the part of the teacher as complained by Roger Brown (Brown 1973, 5). Henry Sweet recognized the limitations and said that it offered innovations at the level of teaching procedures but lacked a thorough methodological basis.

Since students are required at all times to make a direct association between foreign phrase and situation, it is the
highly intelligent student with welldeveloped powers of induction who profits most from this method, which can become discouraging and bewildering for the less talented. As a result, the members of an average class soon diverge considerably from each other in degree of language acquisition. The method makes a great demand on the energy of teachers.

They have of necessity to be fluent in the language and very resourceful, in order to make meaning clear in a variety of ways without resorting at any time to the use of the native language. The great success with this method is achieved in situations where the student can hear and practice the language outside the classroom. (Its principal tenet, that only the target language must be used at all times by teacher and student, has to be observed in classes where the students come from a number of different language backgrounds.) For these reasons many teachers who enjoy the direct method approach now use it with various modifications (Rivers 1981, 34), such as the Natural Method:

The fundamental objection to the natural method was that it puts the adult in the position of an infant, which he is no longer capable of utilizing, and at the same time, does not allow him to make use of his own special advantages...the power of analysis and generalization - in short, the power of using grammar and dictionary (Sweet 1899/1964, 75).

The direct method continues to flourish in its modified form in many areas. To counteract the tendency toward inaccuracy and vagueness, teachers have reintroduced some grammatical explanations of a strictly functional kind, given in the native language, while retaining the inductive approach wherever possible. They also add more practice in grammatical structures, sometimes with the use of substitution tables, the forerunners of pattern drills. Where it is difficult to make meaning of words and phrases clear by
sketch or gesture, they give a brief explanation in the native language. They have also reintroduced occasional translation of words and phrases as a check on comprehension of precise details in reading. These modifications of the direct method reflect the tendency of practical teachers to be eclectic.

2.4.4 The Reading Method

The Reading Method began with a study in 1923 on the state of foreign language teaching which concluded that no single method could guarantee successful results. The goal of teaching conversational skills was considered impractical in view of restricted time available for foreign language teaching in schools, the limited skills of teachers, and the perceived irrelevance of conversation skills in a foreign language for an average American college student. The study - published as the Coleman Report - advocated that a more reasonable goal for a foreign language course would be a reading knowledge of a foreign language, achieved through the gradual introduction of words and grammatical structures in simple reading texts. The main result of this recommendation was that reading became the goal of most foreign language programmes in the USA (Coleman 1929). The emphasis on reading continued to characterize foreign language teaching in USA until World War II. In Coleman's own words, the objective of two year courses should be to develop 'the ability to
read the foreign language with moderate ease and with enjoyment for recreative and for vocational purposes' (Coleman 1929, 107). As a result of the Coleman recommendations, teachers began to seek the most effective ways of developing the reading skill, so that the graduate of a language course of limited duration would be capable of independent reading after formal study of the language had ended. This oral approach to reading was more in tune with the convictions and practice of direct method teachers and made the reading courses more acceptable to them. Only the minimum essentials of grammar were to be incorporated into the course. The study of the language begins with an oral phase which leads to reading aloud by the teacher or a student, followed by questions and answers on the text. The main part of the course is divided into intensive and extensive reading. In the intensive reading phase, the student is trained in reading complete sentences for comprehension. For extensive reading, students work entirely on their own, reading many pages of connected discourse graded to their personal level of achievement. In this way the students are guided by the teacher from level to level as their reading ability develops. They acquire a large passive vocabulary, or recognition vocabulary, which varies according to the material each has been reading.

In the Reading Method the students' comprehension of what they have read is tested by questions on the content of the reading material, not by translation. So that the students may read with greater appreciation of cultural differences, class projects are undertaken on the background of the
country where the language is spoken and on the ways of life and customs of the people. These projects often entail further reading in the new language as the students gather the necessary information. The reading method increases the ability of better students to read in another language. The method also arouses the students' interest in the people who speak the language and a curiosity about their way of life. If not sufficiently controlled, the system of extensive reading can lead to satisfaction with quantity rather than quality - number of pages perused rather than the degree of comprehension.

The Reading Method in the period following the Coleman Report produced students who were unable to comprehend and speak the language beyond the very simplest of exchanges. World War II and the increasing closer contacts between nations in the succeeding years made it apparent that the reading skill alone was not enough if language study was to serve purposes beyond the most restricted, personal ones. National interests and those of increasingly mobile populations demanded a reemphasis on oral communication as a basic objective of the language course. Consequently, a new approach was developed in response to new needs.

Few language teachers in the 1980's are familiar with the terms Oral Approach or Situational Language Teaching, which refer to an approach to language teaching developed by British applied linguists from the 1930s to the 1960s. Even though neither term is commonly used today, the impact of the Oral Approach has been long lasting, and it has shaped the design of
many widely used EFL/ESL textbooks and courses, including many still being used today. Most successful among those are *Streamline English* (Hartley and Viney, 1979), *Access To English* (Coles And Lord, 1975), *Kernal Lessons Plus* (O Neill, 1973), *New Concept English* (Alexander 1967). According to Hubbard a large number of textbooks are based on oral approach and situational language teaching. It was a systematic study of the principles and procedures that could be applied to the selection and organization of the content of a language course (Palmer 1917, 1921). In very broad terms, the twenties were a decade of research, the thirties of development. H. E. Palmer, Director of the Institute for Research in Language Teaching (RET) with the help of his daughter Dorothee, devised principles of the oral method in concrete form which would work in a Japanese school classroom. Some of his books advocate question-answer technique of the Direct Method. At the same time, vocabulary was seen as an essential component of reading proficiency.

Michael West, in the early 1920's in the capacity as an official in the Indian Education Service, carried out the most extensive study of English language and published a lengthy report 'Bilingualism, with Special Reference to Bengal', in 1926. His conclusion was that the most pressing need was for simple reading materials written within a controlled vocabulary, and the early New Method materials were piloted as a part of the bilingual study.
Palmer and West joined forces to produce the so-called 'Carnegie Report' on vocabulary selection in 1936, and thereafter, there was a spate of publications from both men, among which the following publications are noteworthy; Palmer's *Grammar Of English Words* published in 1938, and West's *A General Service List Of English Words* published in 1953. Palmer, West, and other specialists produced a guide to the English vocabulary needed for teaching English as a foreign language, *The Interim Report On Vocabulary Selection* (Faucett et al. 1936), based on frequency as well as other criteria. This was later revised by West and published in 1953 as *A General Service List Of English Words*, which became a standard reference in developing teaching materials. These efforts to introduce a scientific and rational basis for choosing the vocabulary content of a language course represented the first attempts to establish principles of syllabus design in language teaching. Palmer's view of grammar was different from the abstract model of grammar seen in the Grammar-Translation Method, however, which was based on the assumption that one universal logic formed the basis of all languages and that the teacher's responsibility was to show how each category of the universal grammar was to be expressed in the foreign language. Palmer viewed grammar as the underlying sentence patterns of the spoken language. Palmer, Hornby, and other British applied linguists analyzed English and classified its major grammatical structures into sentence patterns (later called "substitution tables"), which could be used to help internalize the rules of English sentence structure. A classification of English sentence patterns was
incorporated into the first dictionary for students of English as a foreign language, developed by Hornby, Gatenby, and Wakefield and published in 1953 as *The Advance Learner's Dictionary Of Current English*. With the development of systematic approaches to the lexical and grammatical content of a language course and with the efforts of such specialists as Palmer, West, and Hornby in using these resources as a part of a comprehensive methodological framework for the teaching of English as a foreign language, the foundations for the British approach in TEFL/TESL - the Oral Approach - were firmly established.

Though Palmer and West dominated the inter-war period, there were others like Eckersley, A. S. Hornby, and Ogden whose work, while less prolific, was equally important. The first was a teacher and a textbook writer called Lawrence Faucett, whose career followed a similar pattern to Palmer's. He taught English as a foreign language in a number of countries overseas including, in particular, China. He developed *The Oxford English Course* (1933) which included the course 'package' consisting of Language Books, Reading Books, and Supplementary Readers, each divided into four levels corresponding to vocabulary counts (500 words, 1,000 words etc.) plus a set of Reading Cards and a Direct Method Picture Dictionary of 200 words.

C. E. Eckersley (1893-1967), originally a school teacher in London, represented a branch of the profession, which is more numerous today than in the twenties, engaged in the teaching of English to foreigners resident in
Britain or visiting the country temporarily. His classes were in the main multilingual groups of European adults who needed English for a variety of utilitarian purposes. His students provided him with the central situation around which Essential English was constructed. He combined samples of everyday dialogue with the language needed to talk about English, and it offered a more relaxed and livelier atmosphere than the severely pedagogical texts of some of the rival courses. Essential English in various editions stood the test of time and remained one of the leading EFL courses for around thirty years.

The final example of a writer whose research in the twenties was developed and extended in the following decade was C. K. Ogden whose principal publication in the field, Basic English appeared in 1930. It provoked a storm of controversy which did little to enhance the reputation of those involved. It is of interest if only because it was, in a sense, a litmus-test of existence of an English language teaching profession. Basic English failed because the profession and its institutions rejected it.

Palmer, Hornby, and other British applied linguists from the 1920's onward developed an approach to methodology that involved systematic principles of selection (the procedures by which lexical and grammatical content was chosen), gradation (principles by which the organization and sequencing of content were determined), and presentation (techniques used for presentation and practice of items in a course). Although Palmer, Hornby, and other English teaching specialists had differing views on the
specific procedures to be used in teaching English, their general principles were referred to as the Oral Approach to language teaching. This was not to be confused with the Direct Method, which, although it used oral procedures, lacked a systematic basis in applied linguistic theory and practice.

An oral approach should not be confused with the obsolete Direct Method which meant only that the learner was bewildered by a flow of ungraded speech, suffering all the difficulties he would have encountered in picking up the language in its normal environment and losing most of the compensating benefits of better cotextualization in those circumstances (Patterson 1964, 64).

2.4.5 Situational Language Teaching

The next step was Situational English advocated by Alexander, a British textbook writer along with Gloria Tate and George Pitman published for worldwide use in 1965, the series Of Situational English. Hornby himself used the term the Situational Approach in the title of an influential series of articles published in English Language Teaching came into common usage. The following are the main characteristics of the approach:
Language teaching begins with the spoken language which is the target language of the classroom. New language points are introduced and practiced situationally. General service vocabulary is introduced. Simple grammatical forms are introduced before the complex ones. Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient grammatical basis is established.

The theory that knowledge of structures must be linked to situations in which they could be used gave Situational Language Teaching one of its distinctive features. This may have reflected the functional trend in British linguistics since the thirties. Many British linguists had emphasized the close relationship between the structure of language and the context and situations in which language is used. British linguists like J. R. Firth and M. A. Halliday, developed powerful views of language in which meaning, context, and situation were given a prominent place: "The emphasis now is on the description of language activity as a part of the whole complex of events which, together with the participants and relevant objects, make up actual situations" (Halliday, Mcintosh, and Stevens 1964, 38). Thus, in contrast to American structuralist views on language, language was viewed as purposeful activity related to goals and situations in the real world. "The language which a person originates ... is always expressed for a purpose" (Frisby 1957, 16).
The theory of learning underlying Situational Language Teaching is a type of behaviorist habit-learning theory. It addresses the process rather than the conditions of learning. Frisby cites Palmer's views as authoritative:

As Palmer pointed out, there are three processes in learning a language - receiving the knowledge or materials, fixing it in the memory by repetition, and using it in actual practice until it becomes a personal skill. (1957, 136).

French likewise saw language learning as habit formation.

The fundamental is correct speech habits... The pupils should be able to put the words, without hesitation and almost without thought, into sentence patterns which are correct. Such speech habits can be cultivated by blind imitative drill. (1950, vol. 3, 9).

Like the Direct Method, Situational Language Teaching adopts an inductive approach to the teaching of grammar. The meaning of words or structures is not to be given through explanation in either the native tongue or the target language but it is to be induced from the way the form is used in a situation. Explanation is therefore discouraged, and the learner is expected to deduce the meaning of a particular structure or vocabulary item from the situation in which it is presented. Extending structures and vocabulary to new situation takes place by generalization. The learner is expected to apply the language learned in a classroom to situations outside the classroom. This is how child language learning is believed to take place, and the same processes are thought to occur in second and foreign
language learning, according to practitioners of Situational Language Teaching.

The objectives of the Situational Language Teaching method are to teach a practical command of the four basic skills of language, goals it shared with most methods of language teaching. But the skills are approached through structure. "Before our pupils read new structures and new vocabulary, we shall teach orally both the new structures and the new vocabulary" (Pittman 1963, 186). Writing likewise derives from speech.

Situational Language Teaching employs a situational approach to presenting new sentence patterns and a drill-based manner of practicing them.

our method will ... be situational. The situation will be controlled carefully to teach the new language material ... in such a way that there can be no doubt in the learner's mind of the meaning of what he hears ... almost all the vocabulary and structures taught in the first four or five years and even later can be placed in situations in which the meaning is quite clear (Pittman 1963, 155-6).

By Situation, Pittman means the use of concrete objects, pictures, and realia, which together with actions and gestures can be used to demonstrate the meanings of new language items.

The form of new words and sentence patterns is demonstrated with examples and not through grammatical explanation or description. The meaning of new words and sentence patterns
is not conveyed through translation. It is made clear visually (with objects, pictures, action and mime). Wherever possible model sentences are related and taken from a single situation (Davis, Roberts, and Rossner 1975, 3).

The practice techniques employed generally consist of guided repetition and substitution activities, including chorus repetition, dictation, drills, and controlled oral-based reading and writing tasks. Other oral-practice techniques are sometimes used, including pair practice and group work.

The teacher's function is threefold. In the presentation stage of the lesson, the teacher serves as a model, setting up situations in which the need for the target structure is created and then modeling the new structure for students to repeat. Then the teacher "becomes more like the skillful conductor, of an orchestra, drawing the music out of the performers" (Byrne 1976, 2). The teacher is required to be a skilled manipulator, using questions, commands, and other cues to elicit correct sentences from the learners. Lessons are hence teacher directed and the teacher sets the pace. The teacher is essential to the success of the method, since the textbook is able only to describe activities for the teacher to carry out in class.

Procedures associated with Situational Language Teaching in the fifties and sixties are an extension and further development of well-established techniques advocated by proponents of the earlier Oral Approach in the British school of language teaching. In the mid-sixties,
however, the view of language, language learning, and language teaching underlying Situational Language Teaching was called into question. The principles of Situational Language Teaching, with its strong emphasis on oral practice, grammar, and sentence patterns, conform to the intuitions of many practically oriented classroom teachers, it continues to be widely used in the 1980's.

2.4.6 Oral-Aural or Audiolingual Method

The Coleman Report in 1929 recommended a reading-based approach to foreign language teaching, but the entry of the USA into World War II required US government to supply personnel who were fluent in various foreign languages who could work as interpreters, code-room associates, and translators. As a result, American universities were commissioned to develop foreign language programmes for military personnel. As a result, the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) was established in 1942 which involved 45 US universities.

The objective of the army programme was for students to acquire conversation proficiency in foreign languages. Bloomfield and his colleagues used "informant method" which used a native speaker - the informant - who provided sentences and vocabulary to be imitated and the linguist who supervised the learning process. Students in such courses studied ten hours a day, six days a week. There were generally fifteen
hours of drill with native speakers and twenty to thirty hours of private study spread over two to three six-week sessions. This was the system adopted by the army, and in small classes of mature and highly motivated students, excellent results were often achieved. This approach convinced a number of prominent linguists of the value of intensive, oral based approach to learning a language. The so-called army method of the Second World War became audio-lingual approach or the oral-aural method of the peace time America in 1950s and 1960s.

The approach developed by linguists at Michigan and other universities became known variously as the Oral Approach, the Aural-Oral Approach and the Structural Approach. It advocated aural training first, then pronunciation training, followed by speaking, reading, and writing. Language was identified with speech, and speech was approached through structure. This approach influenced the way languages were taught in the USA in the fifties. If there was any learning theory advocated by Aural-Oral materials, it was the idea that practice makes perfect. It was the incorporation of the linguistic principles of the Aural-Oral approach with state-of-the-art psychological learning theory in the mid-fifties that led to the method that came to be known as Audiolingualism. To compete with the Russians in the technological and scientific field, the US government under the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) in 1958 provided for funds to encourage teachers to attend summer institutes to learn new linguistically based teaching methods. The advocates of the method drew
on the experience of the army programmes and the Aural-Oral or Structural Approach developed by Fries and his colleagues, adding insights taken from behaviorist psychology. This combination of structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures, and behaviorist psychology led to the Audiolingual Method. Audiolingualism (the term was coined by Professor Nelson Brooks in 1964) claimed to have transformed language teaching from an art to science, which would enable learners to achieve mastery of a foreign language effectively and efficiently. Its principles formed the basis of widely used series as the *Lado English Series* (Lado, 1977) and *English 900* (*English Language Services 1964*). An often quoted summary of the basic tenets of audio-lingual approach were formulated by William Moulton in 1961 in a report prepared for the Ninth International Congress of Linguists.

1. Language is speech, not writing.
2. A language is a set of habits.
3. Teach the language, not about the language.
4. A language is what native speakers say, not someone thinks they ought to say.
5. Languages are different.
A number of learning principles became the psychological foundation of Audiolinguaism and came to shape its methodological practices which are listed as follows:

1. Foreign language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit formation.
2. Aural-Oral training is needed to provide the foundation for development of other language skills.
3. Teaching of grammar is essentially inductive rather than deductive.
4. The meanings that the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context and not in isolation. Teaching a language thus involves teaching aspects of the cultural system of the people who speak the language (Rivers 1964, 19-22).

Audiolinguists demanded a complete reorientation of the foreign language curriculum. They advocated a return to speech based instruction with the primary objective of oral proficiency, and dismissed the study of grammar or literature as the goal of foreign language teaching. "A radical transformation is called for, a new orientation of procedures is demanded, and a thorough house cleaning of methods, materials, texts, and tests is unavoidable" (Brooks 1964, 50).

Brooks distinguishes between short-range and long-range objectives of an audiolingual program. Short-range objectives include training in listening comprehension, accurate pronunciation, recognition of speech symbols as graphic signs on the printed page, and ability to reproduce these
symbols in writing (Brooks 1964, 111). "These immediate objectives imply three others: first, control of the structures of sound, form, and order in the new language; second, acquaintance with vocabulary items that bring content into these structures; and third, meaning, in terms of the significance these verbal symbols have for those who speak the language natively" (Brooks 1964, 113). Long-range objectives "must be language as the native speaker uses it...There must be some knowledge of a second language as it is possessed by a true bilingualist" (Brooks 1964, 107).

Learners are viewed as organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses. In audiolingualism, as in Situational Language Teaching, the teacher's role is central and active; it is a teacher dominated method. Spoken language is taught in dialogue form and the teacher gives cues needed for drills and exercises. Tape recorders, audiovisual equipment, and a language lab are considered essential as they provide opportunity for further drill work and controlled error free practice of basic structures.

Audiolingualism reached its peak in the 1960s. But thereafter came criticism on two fronts. Theoretical foundations were attacked as being unsound both in terms of language theory and learning theory. Practitioners found that the practical results fell short of expectations. Students were found to be unable to transfer skills acquired through Audiolingualism to real communication outside the classroom, and many found the experience
of studying through audiolingual procedures to be boring and unsatisfying. Teachers objected and resented downgrading of reading and writing skills. Excessive care given to prevent errors was objected by those who insisted that no one can learn to communicate in a new language if he/she is not allowed to make mistakes in it.

The theoretical attack on audiolingual beliefs resulted from changes in linguistic theory of the sixties. The MIT linguist Noam Chomsky criticised structuralist approach to language description as well as the behaviorist theory in language learning. "Language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy" (Chomsky 1966, 153). Chomsky's theory of transformational grammar proposed that the fundamental properties of language derive from innate aspects of the mind and from how humans process experience through language. He proposed an alternative theory of language learning to that of the behaviorists. Behaviorism regarded language learning as similar in principle to any other kind of learning. It was subject to the same laws of stimulus and response, reinforcement and association. He argued that such a learning theory could not possibly serve as a model of how humans learn language, since much of human language use is not imitated behavior but created anew from underlying knowledge of abstract rules. Sentences are not learned by imitation and repetition but generated from the learner's underlying competence. While the
audiolingual theory was questioned, a crisis was created in American language teaching circles. Temporary relief was offered in the form of a theory derived in part from Chomsky - cognitive code learning. In 1966 John B. Carroll, a psychologist who had taken a close interest in foreign language teaching, wrote:

The audio-lingual habit theory which is so prevalent in American foreign language teaching was, perhaps fifteen years ago in step with the state of psychological thinking of that time, but it is no longer abreast of recent developments. It is ripe for major revision, particularly in the direction of joining it with some of the better elements of the cognitive-code learning theory (Carroll 1966, 105).

For a time in the early seventies there was a considerable interest in implication of the cognitive-code theory for language teaching. In 1971 Robert Laughton and in 1976 Kenneth Chastian pointed out the shortcomings of the audiolingual method but neither could delineate a complete new method distinct from Audiolingualism. The term cognitive code is still sometimes invoked to refer to any conscious effort to organize materials around a grammatical syllabus while allowing for meaningful practice and use of language.

There are many similarities between Situational Language Teaching and Audiolingualism. The order in which the language skills are introduced, and the focus on accuracy through practice and drill in the basic structures and sentence patterns of the target language might suggest that these methods drew from each other. However, Situational Language Teaching
was a development of the earlier Direct Method and
does not have the strong ties to linguistics and
behavioral psychology that characterize
Audiolingualism. The similarities of the two methods
reflect similar views about the nature of language and
of language learning, though these views were in fact
developed from quite different traditions (Richards
and Rogers 1988, 61).

Though we have raised serious questions regarding the audiolingual
approach, we have not rushed to replace it by other methods which we may
think are perfect for all students all the time. It is quite humbling to note
that probably the most innovative book ever written on methods of
language teaching was Harold Palmer's *The Principles Of Language Study*,
which was first published back in 1921. The lack of an alternative to
Audiolingual language teaching in the USA has led to a period of
adaptation, innovation, experimentation, and some confusion. On the one
hand are new methods that have been developed independently of current
linguistic and second language acquisition theory like Total Physical
Response, Silent Way, Counseling-Learning. On the other are competing
approaches that are derived from contemporary theories of language and
second language acquisition like The Natural Approach and Communicative
Language Teaching.
2.4.7 Eclectic Method

Many of the teachers and scholars are deeply troubled by many questions about foreign language teaching. The most significant among which is, could we perhaps succeed without basing our work on any one consistent theory of language analysis and language acquisition? If our answer is "yes", instead of accepting one particular linguistic or psychological doctrine as dogma, we prefer to try to understand all potentially relevant theories and make the best possible use of such insights as each of them may have to offer. Such a point of view is called pragmatism and eclecticism. It does not refer to any formal method and/or approach. It may very well be called an attitude toward language teaching. Clifford Prator discusses these implications within the framework of ten slogans similar to those Moulton used to characterize the audiolingual approach. The ten are as follows:

1. Teaching is more of an art than a science.
2. No methodologist has the whole answer.
3. Try to avoid the pendulum syndrome.
4. Place a high value on practical experimentation without doctrinaire allegiance.
5. Look to various relevant disciplines for insights.
6. View objectives as an overriding consideration.
7. Regard all tested techniques as resources.
8. Attach as much importance to what your students say as how they say it.
9. Let your greatest concern be the needs and motivation of your students.
10. Remember that what is new is not necessarily better.
(Prator 1980, 17).
In the zeal with which they champion a particular method, methodologists overlook a significant fact that good students working under good teachers have been quite successful in learning English and other languages regardless of the method of instruction that was used. We must not forget students are more important than methods. Instructional methods were devised to serve the needs of the students; students were not devised as subjects to try out methods on. Much of the time that has been spent in considering theoretical questions of methodology might have been better spent in trying to discover precisely what language skills students will find most useful after they finish their classes. It does appear to be true that different methods tend to favor the development of some skills at the expense of others. Hence, it would be wiser to regard all the proven techniques associated with all methods as part of a vast store of methodological resources upon which we can draw in accordance with our specific purposes at a given time.

Wilga Rivers (1985) voices the same sentiment when he says that teachers faced with the task of teaching a new language do not have the luxury of complete dedication to one method, but they need techniques that work in their particular situation with specific objectives that are meaningful for the kinds of students they have in their classes. The eclectic approach goes back to Henry Sweet and Harold Palmer. Sweet believed that "a good method must, before all, be comprehensive and eclectic. It must be based on a through knowledge of the science of language...In
utilizing this knowledge it must be constantly guided by "psychological laws" (Sweet 1899, 3). Sweet sought "a mean between unyielding conservatism on the one hand and reckless radicalism on the other" (ibid., VII). His search was for general principles rather than the "one absolutely invariable method".

In *The Principles Of Language Study*, Palmer speaks of "accepting any two or more rival expedients and ... embodying them boldly as separate items in the programme, in order that each may fulfill its function in a well-proportioned and a well-organized whole" (Palmer 1921, 141). He calls this the "multiple line of approach". He elaborates on his approach as follows:

We use each and every method, process, exercise, drill, or device which may further us in our immediate purpose and bring us nearer to our ultimate goal; we adopt every good idea and leave the door open for all future developments; we reject nothing except useless and harmful forms of work. The multiple line of approach embodies the eclectic principle...,for it enjoins us to select judiciously and without prejudice all that is likely to help us in our work" (ibid).

Eclecticists try to absorb the best techniques of all the well-known language-teaching methods into their classroom procedures, using them for the purposes for which they are most appropriate. True eclecticists, as distinguished from drifters who adopt new techniques cumulatively and purposely, seek the
balanced development of all four skills at all stages, while retaining an emphasis on the early development of aural-oral skills, where this is appropriate to the objectives of their courses. They adapt their methods to the changing objectives of the day and to the types of students who pass through their classes. They gradually evolve a method which suits their personality. To be successful, an eclectic teacher needs to be imaginative, energetic, and willing to experiment. With so much to draw from, no eclecticist need lack for ideas for keeping lessons varied and interesting (Rivers 1985, 55).

Eclecticism was criticized by Stern (1982) when he said that the "weakness of the eclectic position is that it offers no criteria according to which we can determine which is the best theory, nor does it provide any principles by which to include or exclude features which form part of existing theories or principles" (p. 11).

2.4.8 Postmethod Condition

As an alternative to the eclectic method, B. Kumaravadivelu advocated a new method called Postmethod Condition which is "a state of affairs that compels us to refigure the relationship between the theorizers and practitioners of method." It signifies a search for an alternative to method rather than an alternative method. It promotes teacher autonomy enabling him to theorize from their practice and practice what they have theorized. Unlike eclecticism, which is constrained by the conventional concept of method, principled pragmatism is based on the pragmatics of
pedagogy in which "the relationship between theory and practice, ideas and their actualization, can only be realized within the domain of application, that is, through the immediate activity of teaching" (Widdowson 1990, 30). Principled pragmatism focuses on how classroom learning can be shaped and managed by teachers as a result of informed teaching and critical appraisal.

The proposed strategic framework for L2 teaching through Postmethod Condition consists of macrostrategies and microstrategies. A macrostrategy is a broad guideline, based on which teachers can generate their own situation-specific, need-based microstrategies or classroom techniques. In other words, macrostrategies are made operational in the classroom through microstrategies.

The strategic framework comprises the following ten macrostrategies:

1. Maximize learning opportunities
2. Facilitate negotiated interaction
3. Minimize perceptual mismatches
4. Activate intuitive heuristics
5. Foster language awareness
6. Contextualize linguistic input
7. Integrate language skills
8. Promote learner autonomy
9. Raise cultural consciousness
10. Ensure social relevance
These macrostrategies are couched in imperative terms only to connote their operational character and not to convey any prescriptive quality.

The strategic framework outlined above is not a closed set of formulae but rather an open-ended set of options. It represents a descriptive, not a prescriptive scheme. It opposes methodological absolutes and supports strategic relativism. It is meant to be treated not as a fixed package of ready-made solutions but rather as an interim plan to be continually modified, expanded, and enriched by classroom teachers based on ongoing feedback (Kumaravadivelu 1994, 43).

2.4.9 Communicative Language Teaching

The immediate concern facing the classroom teacher is whether to pursue a realistic goal of producing competent speakers with adequate communicative ability or an unrealistic goal of producing imitation native speakers. If we believe that L2 programs "must be solidly anchored in sociopragmatics" (Valdman 1992, 88) reflecting the functional use of language embedded in local communicative situations, then the goal L2 learners and teachers need to pursue in most cases "should be intelligibility and acceptability rather than native-like perfection" (Stern 1992, 116).

Attention to communicative theory enables learners to realize that since every speech act takes place in a specific situation, they must be aware of people (number, age, sex, roles, status, personality, etc.), the place, the time, and the topic in order to determine whether they will need
to use a colloquial, informal, or formal variety of English in communicating with their interlocutors. Moreover, propriateness and acceptability of speech in particular social situation are as important as accuracy of pronunciation or grammar. The objective of second language teaching has become the development of communicative competence, including the central role of appropriateness and acceptability of the speech act in particular sociocultural situation in which it is said.

While many teachers were using eclectic approach, others decided to adopt a functional-notional approach which integrates communication theory; attention to grammar, to semantics, and to situation; and humanistic theory. This approach was the work of representatives of all the countries in the Council of Europe.

The work of the Council of Europe included the writings of scholars such as Henry Widdowson and Christopher Candlin, drew on the work of British functional linguists like John Firth, and M. A. K. Halliday, American work in sociolinguistics by Dell Hymes, John Gumperz, and William Lubov, as well as work in philosophy by John Austin and John Searle. These writings by the members of the Council of Europe on the theoretical basis for communicative or functional approach to language teaching; the rapid application of the ideas by textbook writers; and the equally rapid acceptance of the new principles by the British language teaching specialists, curriculum development centers, and even governments gave prominence nationally and internationally to what came
to be referred to as the Communicative Approach or simply Communicative Language Teaching. The terms notional-functional approach and functional approach are also used sometimes. Although the movement began as a largely British innovation, focusing on alternative conceptions of a syllabus, since the mid 1970s the scope of Communicative Language Teaching has expanded. Both American and British proponents see it as an approach and not as a method that aims to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. Its comprehensiveness makes it different in scope and status from any other method. There is no single text or authority on it, nor any single model that is universally accepted as authoritative. To some it means little more than an integration of grammatical and functional teaching. Littlewood (1981, 1) states, "One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language." It may also mean using procedures where learners work in groups employing available language resources in problem solving tasks. Syllabuses For Primary Schools (1981, 5) defines the focus of syllabus as the "communicative functions which the forms of the language serve". The introduction to the same document comments that "communicative purposes may be of many different kinds. What is essential in all of them is that at least two parties are involved in an interaction or transaction of some kind where one party has an intention and the other party expands or reacts
to the intention" (5). Yalden (1983) discusses Communicative Language Teaching design alternatives, ranging from a model in which communicative exercises are grafted onto an existing structural syllabus.

British linguist, D. A. Wilkins (1972), proposed a functional or communicative definition of language that could serve as a basis for developing communicative syllabus for language teaching. His contribution was an analysis of the communicative meanings that language learner needs to understand and express. He demonstrated the systems of meanings that lay behind the communicative uses of language. He described two types of meanings: notional categories (concepts such as time, sequence, quantity, location, frequency) and categories of communicative function (requests, denials, offers, complaints). He later revised and expanded his 1972 document into a book called *Notional Syllabuses* (Wilkins 1976), which had a significant influence on the development of Communicative Language Teaching.

According to Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) major distinctive features of Communicative Language Teaching are as follows:

1. Reading and writing can start from the first day.
2. The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.
3. Communicative competence is the desired goal.
4. Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology.
5. Language is created by the individual often through trial and error.

6. Students are expected to interact with other people through group work or writing.

7. Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

The wide acceptance of communicative approach and the relatively varied way in which it is interpreted and applied can be attributed to the fact that practitioners from different educational traditions can identify with it, and consequently interpret it in different ways. One of the North American proponents Savington (1983, 47) offers as a precedent to Communicative Language Teaching a commentary by Montaigne on his learning of Latin through conversation rather than through translation. Montaigne says, "Without methods, without a book, without grammar or rules, without a whip and without tears, I had learned a Latin as proper as that of my schoolmaster." This anti instructional view can be referred to as "learning by doing" or "the experience approach" (Hilgard and Bower, 1966). This notion of direct rather than delayed practice of communicative acts is central to most Communicative Language Teaching.

The focus on communicative factor has an antecedent in the work of anthropologist Malinowski and his colleague, the linguist John Firth. Firth stressed the broader sociocultural context of language which included
participants, their behavior and beliefs, the objects of linguistic discussion, and word choice. Linguists Michael Halliday and Dell Hymes cited by advocates to Communicative Language Teaching, acknowledge primary debts to Malinowski and Firth.

Another dimension of Communicative Language Teaching is learner-centered and experience-based view of second language teaching. The report of Experience Curriculum in English of 1930 began with a premise that "experience is the best of all schools...The ideal curriculum consists of well-selected experiences" (Applebee 1974, 119). The committee also tried to suggest "the means for selection and weaving appropriate experiences into a coherent curriculum stretching across the years of school English study" (Applebee 1974, 119). Teachers were encouraged to develop learning materials "on the basis of particular needs manifested by the class" (Applebee 1974, 150).

Common to all versions of Communicative Language Teaching is a theory of language teaching that starts from a communicative model of language and language use, and that seeks to translate this into a design for an instructional system, for materials, for teacher and learner roles and behaviors, and for classroom activities and techniques.

The communicative approach in language teaching starts from a theory of language as communication. The goal of language teaching is to develop what Hymes (1972) referred to as "communicative competence."
He coined this term in order to contrast a communicative view of language and Chomsky's theory of competence. For Chomsky, the focus of linguistic theory was to characterize the abstract abilities of speakers that enable them to produce grammatically correct sentences in a language. Hymes held that such a view of linguistic theory was sterile and which needed to be seen as a part of a more general theory incorporating communication and culture. Hymes's theory defined what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community. According to him, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability to language use (Hymes 1972).

Another linguistic theory of communication favored Halliday's functional account of language use. "Linguistics...is concerned...with the description of speech acts of texts, since only through the study of language in use are all functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus" (Halliday 1970, 145). Halliday elaborated theory of the functions of the language, which complements Hymes's view of communicative competence. Halliday described (1975, 11-17) seven basic functions that language performs for children learning their first language:

1. The instrumental function: using language to get things;
2. The regulatory function: using language to control the Behavior of others;
3. The interactional function: using language to create interaction with others;
4. The personal function: using language to express personal feelings and meanings;
5. The heuristic function: using language to learn and to discover;
6. The imaginative function: using language to create a world of imagination;
7. The representational function: using language to communicate information.

Learning a second language was similarly viewed by proponents of Communicative Language Teaching as acquiring a linguistic means to perform different kinds of functions.

Another theorist cited for his views on the communicative nature of language is Henry Widdowson. In his book *Teaching Language As Communication* (1978) he presented a view of relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values in text and discourse. He focused on the communicative acts underlying the ability to use language for different purposes. A related analysis of communicative competence is found in Canale and Swain (1980) in which four dimensions of communicative competence are identified namely grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence refers to what Chomsky calls linguistic competence and what Hymes intends by what is "formally possible." Sociolinguistic competence refers to an understanding of the social context in which communication takes place. Discourse competence refers to the interpretation of individual message elements in terms of their
interconnectedness. Strategic competence refers to the coping strategies that communicators employ to initiate, terminate, maintain, repair, and redirect communication.

Communicative Language Teaching has a rich, if somewhat eclectic, theoretical base. Some of the characteristics of this communicative view of language are as follows:

1. Language is a system for the expression of meaning.
2. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.
3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.
4. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

Elements of an underlying learning theory can be discerned in some Communicative Language Teaching practices. Activities that involve real communication promote learning. Activities in which language is used for carrying meaningful tasks promote learning (Johnson 1982). Language that is meaningful to the learner supports learning process. Learning activities are selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use. These practices promote second language
learning, rather than the process of language acquisition. Savington (1983) and Krashen stress that language learning comes from using language communicatively, rather than through practicing language skills.

Johnson (1984) and Littlewood (1984) consider an alternative learning theory compatible with communicative Language Teaching. According to this theory, the acquisition of communicative competence in a language is an example of skill development. This involves a cognitive and a behavioral aspect:

The cognitive aspect involves the internalisation of plans for creating appropriate behavior. For language use, these plans derive mainly from the language system - they include grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary, and social conventions governing speech. The behavioral aspect involves the automation of these plans so that they can be converted into fluent performance in real time. This occurs mainly through practice in converting plans into performance (Littlewood 1984, 74).

This theory encourages an emphasis on practice as a way of developing communicative skills.

Piepho (1981,8) lists the following levels of objectives in a communicative approach:

1. language as a means of expression
2. language as a semiotic system and an object of learning
3. language as a means of expressing values and judgments about oneself and others
4. remedial learning based on error analysis
5. language learning within the school curriculum

The language teaching will reflect the particular needs of the target learners namely reading, writing, listening, or speaking each of which can be approached from a communicative perspective.

The nature of the syllabus has been central in Communicative Language Teaching. Yalden (1983) gives a modified version classification of communicative syllabus types, with reference sources to each model:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. structures plus functions</td>
<td>Wilkins (1976)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. functional spiral around a structural core</td>
<td>Brumfit (1980)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. functional</td>
<td>Jupp &amp; Hodlin (1975)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. notional</td>
<td>Wilkins (1976)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. interactional</td>
<td>Widdowson (1979)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. task-based</td>
<td>Prabhu (1983)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. learner generated</td>
<td>Candlin (1976), Henner-Stanchina and Riley (1978)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The range of exercise types and activities compatible with communicative approach is unlimited and it takes many different forms.

Wright (1976) achieves it by showing out-of-focus slides which the students attempt to identify. Byrne (1978) provides incomplete plans and diagrams which students have to complete by asking for information. Allwright (1977) places a screen between students and gets one to place objects in a certain pattern: this pattern is then communicated to students behind the screen. Geddes and Sturridge (1979) develop "jigsaw" listening in which students listen to different taped materials and then communicate their content to others in the class. Most of these techniques operate by providing information to some and withholding it from others (Johnson 1982, 151).

Littlewood (1981) distinguishes between "functional communication activities" and "social interaction activities" as major activity types in Communication Language Teaching. Functional communication include shared activities for the purpose of acquiring to achieve a particular function. Social interaction activities include conversation and discussion sessions, dialogues and role plays, simulations, skits, improvisations, and debates.

The focus of Communicative Language Teaching is on the processes of communication, rather than mastery of language forms. Breen and
Candlin describe the learner's role within Communication Language Teaching in the following terms:

The role of learner as negotiator - between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning - emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom activities and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an independent way (1980, 110).

In Communicative Language Teaching, teacher roles are determined by the view of teaching adopted. Breen and Candlin describe teacher roles in the following terms:

The teacher has two main roles: the first role is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher: first as an organizer of resources and as a resource himself, second as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities...A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner (1980, 99).

Other roles assumed for teachers are needs analyst, counselor, and group process manager. The teacher assumes a responsibility for determining and responding to learner language needs. Another role assumed is that of a counselor which is similar to the way this role is defined in Community Language Learning. The teacher is required to acquire less teacher-centered classroom management skills. It is the teacher's responsibility to
organize the classroom as a setting for communication and communicative activities.

A wide variety of materials have been used to support communicative approaches to language teaching. Unlike Community Language Learning, practitioners of Communicative Language Teaching, view materials as a way of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use. The three kinds of materials used are labeled as text-based, task-based, and realia. Text-based activities include role play, pair work, and a lesson based on the thematic development. Task-based activities include a variety of games, role plays, and simulations. Many proponents of Communicative Language Teaching have advocated the use of "authentic," "from-life" materials in the classroom. These might include language-based realia, such as signs, magazines, advertisements, and newspapers, or graphic and visual sources around which communicative activities can be built, such as maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, and charts. Communicative Language Teaching is considered an approach rather than a method with much greater room for individual interpretation and variation than most methods permit.

After the initial enthusiasm, some of the claims made by Communicative Language Teaching are being looked at more critically (Swan, 1985). This approach raises important issues for teacher training, materials development, and testing and evaluation. Could this approach be applied at all levels in a language program, whether it is equally suited to
ESL and EFL situations, whether it requires grammar-based syllabus to be modified, how such an approach can be evaluated, how suitable it is for non-native teachers and how it can be adopted in situations where students must continue to take grammar-based tests. Often there is no text, grammar rules are not presented, classroom arrangement is nonstandard, students are expected to interact primarily with each other rather than with the teacher, and correction of errors may be absent or infrequent. The cooperative approach to learning may be unfamiliar to learners. This approach recommends that learners learn to see that failed communication is a joint responsibility and not the fault of the speaker or listener. Similarly, successful communication is an accomplishment jointly achieved and acknowledged.

Communicative Language Teaching "came to be a symbol for everything that audiolingualism could not be" (Savington 1983, 1). Audiolingualism failed to train the trainees to speak English beyond the controlled environment of the language lab. To remedy this audiolingual failure, Communicative Language Teaching advocates set one basic goal variously expressed: the "creative" use of language in "a wide range of communicative situations" (Savington 1983, 23-24), "free, spontaneous interaction" (Rivers 1983, 55), "communicative confidence" (Canale & Swain 1980, 378). Manifestations of concern for an intuitive grasp of a language are brainstorming, fast-writing, and talking-off-the-top-of-your-head activities, which in some Communicative Language Teaching classrooms have become measurements of a student's ability to interact and
participate. Such manifestations exemplify the use of what the German phenomenologist Husserl termed "unreflective" or "non-reflective thinking" (1962, 201). We believe that Communicative Language Teaching presupposition that "communicative competence can be said to be an interpersonal rather than an intra personal trait" (Savington 1983, 8) has resulted in a plethora of activities which stress the former to the neglect of the latter. Travin and Al-Arishi gives three types of reflection-centered classroom activities which are task-oriented, process-oriented, and synthesis-oriented. Task-oriented activities lead students to discover answers for themselves. Process-oriented activities contrast with task-oriented activities by stressing that the value of the activity lies in the processing, not in the end. Suggested by Francine Schumann and described by Paulston and Bruder (1976) the following is a process-oriented activity.

Give the students a suitable Ann Landers problem with her answer removed, then send them out in the community to ask Americans what their suggested solution for the problem would be. The next time the class meets, they all compare notes and finally Landers' answer is read (69).

A synthesis-oriented activity will encourage each student to realize a "meaning potential" which is hers/his alone. In this activity meaning is created by each student through latensification which is a term from photography where a latent image is intensified by chemical treatment or exposure to low light. Synthesis means the combining of diverse
conceptions into a coherent whole. Of all the three types of reflective activities, synthesis-oriented activities best allow a student to stamp his/her validating mark on the learning process.

Rivers (1983) writes that some teachers "take their students by routes that are circuitous, lead to deadends, backtrack, and make the going rough and difficult, so that attention is on the going instead of the destination, and students begin to feel the journey itself is the most important thing, completely losing sight of the goal." She prefers a class where "students never allow themselves to become absorbed in any activity on the way as an end in itself" (55).

Communicative Language Teaching practice is diverse, yet underlying all of its variations are these similarities: Communicative competence is the goal at each level of instruction. Interaction between language users and their environment is primary objective of all exercises. The process involved in using language, that is, the strategies for making sense of something and for negotiating meaning, are the center of attention. Strategy, interaction, and process are the keys to Communicative Language Teaching. According to James R. Nattinger, "The intention of Communicative Language Teaching is to emulate those occasions which often occur in real life wherein people are called upon to redirect their communication in response to newly introduced facts and events" (1982, 16).
According to Herron (1982), Grammar-Translation Method was accompanied by a gymnastic metaphor, one which equates training and exercise of the body with that of the mind. The main thrust of the equation is that as muscles become stronger and more flexible through vigorous exercise, the mind becomes more dexterous through classroom training. He equates audiolingualism to yet another metaphor which he calls the production metaphor which links language teaching to the development of marketable and usable skills. The implications are that schools are factories in which teachers, who are supervisors, oversee the products being molded (the students), who are essentially passive receptacles for the learning that is poured into them by teachers. Post-audiolinguial methods are based on yet another metaphor in which second language learners are equated with children learning their first language. The language they learn is a communicative rather than a grammatical construct in which meaning is something that emerges as it is negotiated. Yet another metaphor, computational metaphor, provides a special way of looking at language, a view which is somewhat different from the ones offered by other language theories. The computational metaphor directs attention to the organization of "performance," to the processes of comprehension and production that put the underlying competence to work. Thus, these processes assume a central rather than a peripheral role. This metaphor has two immediately apparent limitations which may make it inappropriate for Communicative Language Teaching. The first is its basic assumption that knowledge can be completely modeled as a set of formal structures. This may simply be
too narrow a view of language use to be intuitively satisfactory for language teachers. Winograd notes, "Many critics do not believe that the individual's ability to use language can be explained by any formal characterization analogous to the data structures of computers or the rules of formal logic" (1983, 29). Another limitation of the metaphor is its relegation of the social aspects of language use to a decidedly secondary role. It is unclear if there is a place for descriptions of social interaction in this metaphor. If Communicative Language Teaching is defined in terms of affective variables, then this computational metaphor will not offer a useful way of conceptualizing it or of describing it further.

In spite of the uncertain metaphor, the unanswered questions, and diverging methods, there is enough agreement about basic matters in Communicative Language Teaching to permit empirical research to discover what sorts of classrooms provide better environments for second language learning and what sorts of syllabus designs work best. As the specific details of Communicative Language Teaching practice become clearer, so will the general outlines of a compatible metaphor to guide it.

William L. Tarvin and Ali Yahya Al-Arishi suggest that even though intuitive, interactional activities are valuable, a consideration of reflection can complement them. Comprehensibility must be realized immediately or almost immediately or the student is lost. In certain communicative situations, a reflection-preceding-preceding-response could possibly result in an output more indicative of the output desired by the student. Some
scholars have proposed that for some activities interaction/interaction alternating sequence be used and that for others students have more opportunities to stand back and reflect silently. It is also believed that more process-oriented and synthesis-oriented activities will promote the developing of critical thinking and metacognitive learning strategies, encourage an individualizing of language acquisition, and instill motivation and self-esteem.

2.4.10 Commuunicational Project

N. S. Prabhu (1983), was concerned with the acceptable level of situational appropriacy in student's language use outside the classroom inspite of their grammatical accuracy, and developed a project using the term 'communicational' teaching, instead of the more current 'communicative' teaching. A major innovation in teaching English was introduced into the state education system of India between 1955 and 1965 and intensive teacher retraining was implemented in ten state-level institutions to undertake research-level activity in support of teaching reform. The Regional Institute of English in Bangalore was one of the ten state-level institutions, set up in 1963, to serve southern India. This institute has used the term 'S-O-S' (Structural-Oral-Situational) to refer to the implementation of the new pedagogic principles. By about 1975, S-O-S was regarded as a well-established method of teaching English. The following are the basic tenets of the S-O-S pedagogy:
1. Influenced by Palmer's thinking, S-O-S pedagogy has aimed to promote in learners an internal grammatical competence which would manifest itself in the natural use of grammatical correct sentences.

2. The search was for procedures of teaching suitable for school children and capable of developing grammatical competence from early stages.

3. Specific items of language would be preselected for any teaching unit and practiced in contexts which suited them.

In general, the development of grammatical competence in learners continued to be viewed as the primary objective in teaching English in India, while in other parts of the world, communicative approaches were seen to be concerned with objectives other than grammatical competence. Grammar was taught subconsciously as was the opinion of Palmer when he said, "we learn without knowing what we are learning" (1921, 44), or when he said, "We form our sentences in unconscious obedience to some rules unknown to us" (1921, 5). S-O-S pedagogy attempted to regulate and facilitate the process by which learners abstracted the grammatical system by ordering the elements of the system in ways considered to be helpful for learning, limiting the samples of language presented to learners in such a way that only one new element had to be abstracted at a time, and increasing the chances of the new element being abstracted by increasing
the number of relevant samples encountered by learners which may be called planned progression, pre-selection, and form-focused activity.

Communication in the classroom - in the sense of meaning-focused activity which is a process of coping with a need to make sense or getting the meaning across could very well be a good means of developing grammatical competence in learners. Unfortunately, the possible grounds for dissatisfaction with S-O-S pedagogy was that those who had been taught English for several years were still unable to use the language when necessary outside the classroom, to achieve an acceptable level of grammatical accuracy in their language use outside the classroom, and to achieve an acceptable level of situational appropriacy in their language use outside the classroom. Perceptions such as these led to the setting up of a teaching project with the aim of developing pedagogic procedures which would bring about in the classroom a preoccupation with meaning and an effort to cope with communication. They also tried to avoid planned progression and pre-selection in terms of language structure as well as form-focused activity or planned language practice in the classroom.

The project included eight classes which were taught at different schools in different towns or districts and at different stages of both schooling and instruction in English. All the eight classes were in schools within the state system, where the language of instruction was the language of the state and the mother tongue of most students. Those who taught as a part of the project were either specialists or regular teachers at schools.
There was a lack of shared expectations between teachers and learners which could enable each to interpret and evaluate the actions of the other. Each lesson included two activities namely 'pre-task' and 'task'. Pre-task was to be attempted as a whole-class activity under the teacher's guidance and control. The second called 'task' in contrast to pre-task was to be attempted by each learner individually or sometimes in voluntary collaboration with a fellow learner with assistance sought from the teacher when necessary on specific points. The third component of each lesson included a quick marking of students' individual work. The marking was done overnight based on content and not on language with an aim at giving students some feedback on the level of their success. The teacher's assessment of the level of difficulty acted as an input to the planning of subsequent lessons. When there was an indication of incomprehension, the teacher adopted such strategies as repeating or rephrasing the statement, breaking it down into smaller propositions, employing a non-verbal form of communication, or providing a gloss in the learners' mother-tongue, for the purpose of getting the meaning across adequately for the class to make a relevant response.

Learners' preoccupation with language and meaning could be translated into four different categories of classroom activity. Rule-focused activity involves understanding how the language concerned works and was rejected by S-O-S pedagogy on the grounds that such explicit knowledge of the rules did not lead to an ability to use the language automatically. Form-
focused activity is one in which the learners are occupied with manipulating given language forms or invent new forms based on the model. S-O-S pedagogy valued this activity on the grounds that it provides experience in different modes of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Meaningful activity is one in which learners repeat, manipulate or construct language forms with attention to the forms themselves along with the context. This activity ensures assimilation of structural regularities and associated contexts and is valued as a meaningful activity by S-O-S pedagogy. Meaning-focused activity is one in which learners are occupied with understanding, extending or conveying meaning, and cope with language forms as demanded by that process.

Meaning-focused activity in the classroom can be divided broadly into three types. They are Information-gap activity, Reasoning-gap activity, and Opinion-gap activity. Information-gap activity involves a transfer of given information from one person to another or from one form to another or from one place to another. One example is pair work in which each member of the pair has a part of the total information and attempts to convey it to the other. Reasoning-gap activity involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns. One example is working out a teacher's timetable based on class timetables. Opinion-gap activity involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to a given situation. One example is story completion; another is taking part in the discussion of a
social issue. The activity may involve using factual information and formulating arguments to justify one's opinion, but there is no objective procedure for demonstrating outcomes as right or wrong, and no reason to expect the same outcome from different individuals or on different occasions.

The outcome of the project indicated that Information-gap activity was seen as a useful preliminary to a Reasoning-gap activity. The Reasoning-gap activity proved to be the most satisfying in the classroom and Opinion-gap activity with its open-ended outcome made the learners insecure about their responses and hence it was difficult to implement it in the classroom. In the USA educational system, high priority is given to the Opinion-gap activity and hence it is especially very difficult for a foreign born to get accustomed to it. As a result, initially students are unable to participate in the class discussion which does affect their grades adversely. This activity may have some advantages for the advanced level learners in the second language, but in early stages of second language learning it leads to learners' verbal imitation of each other or the teacher.

In general, information-gap activity involves learners in stating meaning which is given to them. On the other hand, opinion-gap activity involves stating meaning which is very much one's own which is neither well defined nor easy to articulate. This leads to high level of anxiety and uncertainty, though it offers a corresponding high level of pleasure from success. Reasoning-gap activity seems to offer a balance between the two
contradictory tendencies. Both information-gap activity and reasoning-gap activity involve objective meaning content, in contrast to opinion-gap activity and both permit objective criteria for judging outcomes to be right or wrong. The project gave a clear preference to reasoning-gap activity, though information-gap activity was used as a stepping-stone to it. The non-use of opinion-gap activity has been commented on as a limitation of the project on the grounds that the affective aspect of the learners' personalities was left unengaged.

The aim of second language teaching, as conceived of on the project, was to develop in learners a grammatical competence in the language. The pre-task as a whole-class activity is an opportunity for some learners to learn by making an attempt, and equally an opportunity for others to learn without taking the risk of public failure. The pre-task is an occasion for making use of the evidence from learners' performance on the preceding task as well as for anticipating and easing learners' difficulty on the task to follow. Finally, the pre-task and task pattern divides a lesson desirably into an initial period of whole-class activity, teacher-direction, and oral interaction, and a later period of sustained self-dependent effort by learners. Learners refrained from speaking to the teacher in the mother tongue in whole-class activity when the teacher was in front of the class but felt much freer to do so at the individual task phase when the teacher was going round the class and the learner was therefore consulting the teacher privately or at the pre-task stage, when the learner happened to be at the blackboard and close to the teacher, which made it private talk as well.
It will facilitate here to distinguish, in considering learners' use of the target language, between 'production', 'borrowing', and 'reproduction' as follows. Production is self-initiated verbal formulation, resulting from a deployment of linguistic competence. It is automatic, that it occurs while attention remains on the meaning-content the language expresses, and can be thought of as having been generated by an internal grammar to match some self-initiated meaning-content. Borrowing, in contrast, is taking over an available verbal formulation in order to express some self-initiated meaning-content. It is a matter of saying what one wants to say in someone else's words. It is not automatic but deliberate. Reproduction is different from both production and borrowing in that its purpose is to take over an available sample of language and the decision to do so is not one's own but made in compliance with the requirement or expectation of the teacher. It is a deliberate act in which both language and meaning-content are seen as borrowed. From the perspective which informs task-based teaching, reproduction is of little value to language acquisition. In contrast, production is of value both in furthering acquisition and as evidence of it. Borrowing is necessary for maintaining task-based activity (and thereby a meaning-focused condition which is of value to acquisition) and is probably of some direct value to acquisition.

One of the weaknesses of the S-O-S teaching procedure which attempts to present pieces of language meaningfully is that the teacher has to assume blindly that the degree of comprehension is proportionate to his
effort in presentation. D. N. S. Prabhu thinks that the experiment should not be looked on as a field trial or pilot study leading to a large scale statutory implementation. The value of statutory implementation as a means of bringing about better learning in a large number of classrooms is questionable generally, not so much because no single method can be suitable to varied teaching conditions or that teachers in any educational system are varied in their abilities, but much more because the quality of teaching in any classroom is dependent on the teacher's pedagogic perception, quite apart from his or her abilities and teaching conditions.

What a teacher does in the classroom is not solely determined by the teaching method he or she intends to follow. There is a complex of other forces at play in varied forms and degrees. These include conform to the teacher behavior, loyalty to the previous teachers or his/her own teaching style in the past. There is also teacher's self image and his rapport with his students. One further factor in the teacher's 'mental- mix' is perception of how classroom activity leads to the desired outcome of learning. A teacher's 'intuition' can be said to be the perception which he or she identifies with (or feels a sense of plausibility about) in an unarticulated state. It is possible to think of the teacher's sense of plausibility as being engaged in some teaching activities but not in others. Where the teacher's sense of plausibility is not engaged, teaching is mere routine, which can only get more and more 'set' over time. The teacher's sense of plausibility is likely to be influenced in some way - strengthened, weakened, modified,
extended, or brought into greater awareness - by the experience of teaching, and this, in turn, is likely to be an input to professional growth. According to Prabhu

a good system of education is as follows:
It is a system in which all or most of teachers carry out the same recommended classroom procedures but rather a system in which (1) all, or most teachers operate with a sense of plausibility about whatever procedures they choose to adopt, and (2) each teacher's sense of plausibility is as 'alive' or active, and hence as open to further development or change as it can be (Prabhu 1987, 103-107).

2.4.11 Community Language Learning

Charles A. Curran and his associates developed yet another method of teaching which is called Community Language Learning. Curran was a specialist in counseling and a professor of psychology and he applied psychological techniques to learning which is known as Counseling-Learning theory to teach languages. It has been called an example of a "humanistic approach" which has links to bilingual education and procedures referred to as "language alternation" or "code switching." Henceforth Community Language Learning will be addressed as CLL.

CLL derives its rationale from Rogerian counseling which consists of one individual (the counselor) assuming "insofar as he is able the internal frame of reference (of the client), perceiving the world as that person sees it and communicating something of this empathetic understanding" (Rogers 1951). Counseling is defined as one person giving
advice to another who has a problem or is in some way in need. In a CLL classroom, teacher is the counselor and student is the client. Humanistic techniques engage the whole person, including emotions and feelings as well as linguistic knowledge and behavioral skills.

Another language teaching tradition with which CLL is linked is a set of practices used in certain kinds of bilingual education programs and referred to by Mackey (1972) as "language alternation." In language alternation, a message/lesson/class is presented first in the native tongue and then again in the second language. Students know the meaning and flow of an L2 message from their recall of the parallel meaning and flow of an L1 message.

Curran's student, P. G. La Forge (1983), begins by suggesting that language as social process is "different from language as communication." Other proponents refer to CLL as "language as social process." La Forge rejects the classic sender-message-receiver model in information theory. The social-process model is different from information-transmitting models, La Forge suggests, because

Communication is more than just a message being transmitted from a speaker to a listener. The speaker is at the same time both subject and object of his own message...communication involves not just the unidirectional transfer of information to the other, but the very constitution of speaking subject in relation to its other... Communication is an exchange which is incomplete without a feedback reaction from the destinee of the message (LaForge 1983, 3).
La Forge elaborates on the interactional view of language underlying CLL. "Language is people; language is persons in contact; language is persons in response" (1983, 9). CLL interactions are of two types: interactions between learners and interactions between learners and knowers. The desire to be a part of growing intimacy pushes learners to keep pace with the learning of their peers. D. D. Tranel (1968) notes that "the students of the experimental group were highly motivated to learn in order to avoid isolation from the group."

Curran contrasts CLL with two other types of learning called putative learning in which "the intellectual and factual process alone are regarded as the main intent of learning, to the neglect of engagement and involvement of the self" (Curran 1972, 58). The second view of learning is the behavioral view to which Curran refers as "animal learning," in which learners are "passive" and their involvement limited (Curran 1976, 84).

Curran advocates a holistic approach to language learning which he terms as the whole person learning. He views "learning as a unified, personal and social experience. The learner is no longer seen as learning in isolation and in competition with others" (Curran 1972, 11-12). He discusses what he calls "consensual validation" or "covalidation" in which mutual warmth, understanding, and a positive evaluation of the other person's worth develops between the teacher and the learner. He groups his ideas of learning under the acronym SARD (Curran 1976, 6) which can be explained as follows: S stands for security. A stands for attention and
aggression. R stands for retention and reflection. D stands for discrimination for the purposes of communication outside the classroom.

As with most methods, CLL combines innovative tasks and activities with conventional ones; they include translation, group work, recording, transcription, analysis, reflection and observation, listening, and free conversation. In CLL, learners become members of a community - their fellow learners and the teacher - and learn through interacting with the members of the community. Language is a "whole person" process. La Forge compares language learning to stages of human growth. In stage one, the learner is completely dependent on the knower for linguistic content. In stage two, the child achieves independence from the parent and asserts some independence by using simple expressions. In stage three, "the separate-existence stage" learners begin to understand others directly in the target language. Stage four may be considered "a kind of dolescence" in which the learner functions independently, although his/her knowledge of foreign language is still rudimentary. Stage five is called "the independent stage" in which learners refine their understanding of register as well as grammatically correct language use.

In early accounts of CLL the use of teaching machines (the Chromachord Teaching System) is recommended for necessary "rote-drill and practice" in language learning. Contemporary CLL classes do not use teaching machines.
CLL places unusual demands on language teachers. They must be proficient and sensitive to nuances in both L1 and L2. They must resist the pressure to teach in traditional senses and the teacher needs to be specially trained in CLL techniques.

Critics of CLL question the appropriateness of the counseling metaphor. Questions also arise about whether teachers should attempt counseling without special training. There is a lack of a syllabus which makes objectives unclear and evaluation difficult to accomplish, and the focus on fluency rather than accuracy, which may lead to inadequate control of the grammatical system of the target language. Supporters of CLL emphasize the positive benefits of a method that centers on the learner and stresses the humanistic side of language learning, and not merely its linguistic dimensions.

The language learning theories can vary based on which aspect of learning is emphasized. Comprehension-Based Learning (CBL) emphasizes the learner's need to communicate less and understand more of what is being said. Production based learning involves the students in the process of learning. In Humanistic and psycho suggestive approaches students are put in real life situations which creates a bond between and among the learners.
2.4.12 Comprehension-Based Learning

A. Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response, devised by James J. Asher, is a mixture of the Gouin Method and the Direct Method. Professor Asher uses imperatives and actions (jump, sit down, run etc.) which the learners carry out. The sentences become longer and more complex, requiring that the students perform multiple actions (if they can remember the several parts of the utterance). The mechanism is short and simple: 1. The directive 2. The hearing and interpretation of the directive 3. The overt action 4. The visible confirmation or disconfirmation of comprehension.

Asher elaborated an account of what he feels facilitates or inhibits foreign language learning. He drew three learning hypotheses:

1. There exists a specific innate bio-program for language learning, which defines an optimal path for first and second language development.

2. Brain lateralization defines different learning functions in the left-and-right-brain hemispheres.

2. Stress (an affective filter) intervenes between the act of learning and what is to be learned; the lower the stress, the greater the learning.
The general objectives of TPR are to teach oral proficiency at a beginning level. Comprehension is a means to an end, and the ultimate aim is to teach basic speaking skills. A TPR course aims to produce learners who are capable of an uninhibited communication that is intelligible to a native speaker. The goals must be attainable through the use of action-based drills in the imperative form.

Learners in TPR have the primary roles of listener and performer. They listen attentively and respond physically to commands given by the teacher. Learners are required to respond both individually and collectively. Learners have little influence over the content of learning, since content is determined by the teacher, who must follow the imperative-based format for lessons. Learners are required to monitor and evaluate their own progress.

The teacher plays an active role in TPR. "The instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors" (Asher 1977, 43). Asher recommends detailed lesson plans: "It is wise to write out the exact utterances you will be using and especially the novel commands because the action is so fast-moving there is usually no time for you to create spontaneously" (1977, 47).

There is no basic text in a TPR course. Materials and realia play an important role in play and increasing role in later learning stages. For the beginners, teacher's voice, actions, and gestures may be a sufficient basis for classroom activities. Asher has developed TPR student kits that focus
on special situations. He has developed a course of 159 hours of classroom instruction for adult immigrants.

TPR has enjoyed popularity because of its emphasis on the role of comprehension in second language acquisition. S. D. Krashen (1981) regards provision of comprehensible input and reduction of stress as keys to successful second language acquisition. Asher himself has stressed that TPR should be used in association with other methods and techniques. For many teachers TPR represents a useful set of techniques and is compatible with other approaches to teaching.

From his reflection on this mechanism of natural language acquisition, Asher hypothesized that kinetic, physically active response, was superior to the vocal response. He saw the implications of his hypothesis for a principled language teaching approach. By the mid-1960s, he had developed an approach to language training which came to be known as Total Physical Response. At the start of the session, the teacher plays "Do what I do," modeling a couple of actions. This enables the students to see a connection between the action and what the teacher says. For certain effect, the teacher may turn it into a game. The idea is to make things through a succession of connected activities. The simplicity, logic, and power of TPR have stimulated the development of syllabuses for teaching various languages.
A criticism voiced against TPR is that it deals with language in too general a way and fails to train students to perform "survival" functions, such as exchanging greetings, asking directions, and ordering a meal. But the proponents of TPR do not accept as the proper aim of the beginning language training the teaching of in-country survival language. The basic principle of a comprehension approach says that to begin by pushing production cuts against the grain of natural acquisition. What TPR offers is a less demanding, more leisurely route to the acquisition of comprehension skills which properly underlie the natural acquisition of full-blown communication skills.

TPR is a kind of progressive problem-solving game in which learners demonstrate through observable actions their comprehension of more complex instructions. There is an immediate feedback for the problem solving skills.

B. The Natural Approach

sections prepared by Krashen that outline his views on second language acquisition (SLA) (Krashen 1981; 1982) and sections on implementation and classroom procedures, prepared largely by Terrell. They have identified the Natural Approach with what they call "traditional" approaches to language teaching. Traditional Approaches are defined as "based on the use of language in communicative situations without recourse to the native language" - and, perhaps, without reference to grammatical analysis, grammatical drilling, or to a particular theory of grammar. They note that such "approaches have been called natural, psychological, phonetic, new, reform, direct, analytic, imitative and so forth" (Krashen and Terrell 1983, 9).

The fact that the authors of the Natural Approach relate to Natural Method has led some to assume that Natural Approach and Natural Method are synonymous terms. The Natural Method is another term for what was later known as Direct Method. The term Natural used with reference to the Direct Method conform to the principles of naturalistic language learning in young children. Natural Approach on the other hand conform to the naturalistic principles found in successful second language acquisition. Unlike the Direct Method, however, it places less emphasis on teacher monologues, direct repetition, and formal questions and answers, and less focus on accurate production of target language sentences. In the Natural Approach there is an emphasis on exposure, or input, rather than practice; optimizing emotional preparedness for learning; a prolonged period of
attention to what the language learners hear before they try to produce language; and a willingness to use written and other materials as a source of comprehensible input. The emphasis on the central role of comprehension of the Natural Approach links it to other comprehension-based approaches in language teaching like the TPR.

Krashen and Terrell refer to the Natural Approach as an example of a communicative approach. Unlike proponents of Communicative language Teaching, Krashen and Terrell give little attention to a theory of language. A recent critic of Krashen suggests that he has no theory of language at all (Gregg 1984). But Krashen on the contrary gives the principal tenets of the theory, since it is on these that the design and procedure in Natural Approach are based.

The Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis

The Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis claims that there are two ways of developing competence in a second language. Acquisition is the "natural" way, paralleling first language in children. Learning, by contrast, refers to a process in which conscious rules about a language are developed. Formal teaching is necessary for "learning" to occur. Learning, according to the theory, cannot lead to acquisition.
The Monitor Hypothesis

The Monitor Hypothesis claims that we may call upon learned knowledge to correct ourselves when we communicate, but that conscious learning (i.e., the learned system) has only this function. Three conditions limit the successful use of the monitor:

1. **Time:** There must be sufficient time for a learner to choose and apply a learned rule.
2. **Focus on form:** The language user must be focused on correctness or on the form of the output.
3. **Knowledge of rules:** The performer must know the rules.

The monitor does best with rules that are simple in two ways. They must be simple to describe and they must not require complex movements and rearrangements.

The Natural Order Hypothesis

According to the Natural Order Hypothesis, the acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen studied and tested the order of acquisition of eleven morphemes on several populations and replicated it several times. Research is said to have shown that certain grammatical structures or morphemes are acquired before others in first language acquisition of English, and a similar natural order is found in second language acquisition. Errors are signs of
naturalistic developmental processes, and during acquisition (but not learning), similar developmental errors occur in learners no matter what their mother tongue is. The natural order of acquisition which emerged primarily when the data were elicited through natural communicative tasks is as follows: (a) nominative and accusative cases, word order of simple sentences; (b) singular copula, plural copula, singular auxiliary "ing"; (c) past irregular tense forms, possessive forms, conditional auxiliary, "es" plural, "s" in third person singular present-tense verbs; (d) perfect auxiliary, past participle in "en", possessive s. The acquisition sequence for children and adults has been found to be similar and holds for both the oral and the written mode. Burt and Dulay have prepared a working model for creative construction in L2 acquisition.

The Input Hypothesis

The Input Hypothesis claims to explain the relationship between what the learner is exposed to of a language (input) and language acquisition. It involves four main issues.

1. The hypothesis refers to acquisition, and not to learning.
2. People acquire language best by understanding input that is slightly beyond their current level of competence. An acquirer can "move" from a stage 1 (where 1 is the acquirer's level of competence) to a stage 1+1 (which is the stage immediately following 1 along some natural order) by
understanding language containing 1+1 (Krashen and Terrell 1983, 32).

3. The ability to speak fluently cannot be taught directly, rather it "emerges" independently in time, after the acquirer has built up linguistic competence by understanding input.

4. If there is a sufficient quantity of comprehensible input, 1+1 will usually be provided automatically. Comprehensive input refers to utterances that the learner understands based on context in which they are used as well as the language in which they are phrased.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis

This hypothesis identifies three kinds of affective or attitudinal variables related to second language acquisition.

1. Motivation: Learners with high motivation generally do better.

2. Self-confidence: Learners with self-confidence and good self-image tend to be more successful.

3. Anxiety: Low personal anxiety and low classroom anxiety are more conducive to second language acquisition.
These five hypotheses discussed above have obvious implications for language teaching. They are as follows:

1. As much comprehensible input as possible must be presented.
2. Whatever helps comprehension is important.
3. The focus in the classroom should be on listening and reading; speaking should be allowed to "emerge."
4. In order to lower the affective filter, student work should center on meaningful communication rather than on form; input should be interesting and so contribute to a relaxed classroom atmosphere.

The Natural Approach "is for beginners and is designed to help them become intermediates" (Krashen and Terrell 1983, 71). "The purpose will vary according to the needs of the students and their particular interests" (Krashen and Terrell 1983, 65).

Techniques recommended by Krashen and Terrell are often borrowed from other methods and adapted to meet the requirements of Natural Approach theory. These include command-based activities from TPR; Direct Method activities in which mime, gesture, and context are used to elicit questions and answers; and even situation based practice of structures and patterns. Group-work activities are identical to those used in Communicative Language Teaching, where sharing information in order to
complete a task is emphasized. There is nothing novel about the procedures and techniques advocated for use with the Natural Approach.

The Natural Approach teacher has three central roles. First, the teacher is the primary source of comprehensible input in the target language. He creates a classroom atmosphere that is interesting, friendly, and in which there is a low affective filter for learning. The teacher must choose and orchestrate a rich mix of classroom activities, involving a variety of group sizes, content, and contexts. Since the selection, reproduction, and collection of materials places a considerable burden on the Natural Approach teacher, Krashen and Terrell suggest a syllabus of topics and situations.

Like Communicative Language Teaching, the Natural Approach is evolutionary rather than revolutionary in its procedures. Its greatest claim to originality lies not in the techniques it employs but in their use in a method that emphasizes comprehensible and meaningful practice activities, rather than production of grammatically perfect utterances and sentences.

Terrell's policy of fluency at the cost of accuracy encourages bad habits which are not easily eradicated. Once a low level of inter language is used repeatedly and successfully, it "fossilizes." Due to fossilization, method-crippled learners hardly ever rise from their sad affliction. According to these critics, the only protection against fossilization is an
approach which right from the beginning guides the learner systematically through a training program focused on linguistic correctness.

2.4.13 Production-Based Learning: Silent Way

If comprehension approaches could be summed up as "From much, little" or "Know much, say little," which means a relatively limited capacity to say much even though one may understand a great deal; in contrast, Silent Way Learning is the reverse of that: "From little, much" or "Know a little, say much," referring to the fact that from the meager input learners receive, they are urged to make as much of it as they can, to push their communication envelope outward.

Caleb Gattegno's Silent Way Learning (SWL) (Gattegno 1963, 1976) begins with the teacher being silent or at least holding verbal input to a bare minimum while eliciting and reinforcing verbal output from the learners. It is based on the premise that the teacher should be as silent as possible and the learners should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible. SWL is called a problem-solving approach to learning. SWL is succinctly represented in the words of Benjamin Franklin:

Tell me and I forget,
Teach me and I remember,
Involve me and I learn.
The rods and color-coded pronunciation charts (called Fidel charts) create memorable images to facilitate student recall. These visual devices serve as associative mediators for student learning and recall. "The teacher's strict avoidance of repetition forces alertness and concentration on the part of the learners" (Gattegno 1972, 80). The SWL student is expected to become "independent, autonomous, and responsible" (Gattegno 1976) - in other words, a good problem solver in language.

Gattegno sees vocabulary as a central dimension of language learning and choice of vocabulary as crucial. He distinguishes between several classes of vocabulary items. The "semi-luxury vocabulary consists of expressions common to the daily life of the target language culture; This refers to food, clothing, travel, family life, and so on. "Luxury vocabulary" is used in communicating more specialized ideas, such as political or philosophical opinions. The "Functional vocabulary" is the most important vocabulary because it deals with the most functional and versatile words of the language. This vocabulary provides a key to comprehending the "spirit" of the language. These words "refer to oneself and to others in numerous relations of everyday life (Stevick 1979). They are referred to as the functional words because of their high utility.

Silence is considered the best vehicle of learning, because in silence students concentrate on the task to be accomplished and the potential means to its accomplishment. Repetition (as opposed to silence) "consumes time
and encourages the scattered to remain scattered" (Gattegno 1976, 80). Silence, as avoidance of repetition, is thus an aid to alertness, concentration, and mental organization. Retention links are formed in the most silent of periods, that of sleep: "The mind does much of this work during sleep" (Stevick 1980, 41). Gattegno speaks of remembering as a matter of "paying ogdens." An "ogden" is a unit of mental energy required to link permanently two mental elements, such as a shape and a sound or a label and an object.

SWL is not merely a language teaching method but it is a recovery of innocence - "a return to our full powers and potentials." SWL claims to "consolidate the human dimensions of being, which include variety and individuality as essential factors for an acceptance of others as contributors to one's own life" and even moves us "towards better and more lasting solutions of present-day conflicts" (Gattegno 1972, 84). SWL can be used to teach reading and writing, and its usefulness is not restricted to beginning level students. Most of the examples Gattegno describes, however, deal primarily with a basic level of aural/oral proficiency.

In SWL, in order to be productive members of the learning group, the learners have to play varying roles. At times one is an independent individual, at other times a group member. A learner must be a teacher, a student, part of a support group system, a problem solver, and self-
evaluator. It is the student who is expected to decide on what role is most appropriate to a given situation.

Stevick defines the SWL teacher's tasks as following:

1. to teach
2. to test
3. to get out of the way (Stevick 1980, 56)

Although this may not seem to constitute a radical alternative to standard teaching practice, the details of the steps the teacher is expected to follow are unique to SWL. The teachers often appear aloof or even gruff with their students. The teacher's role is one of neutral observer, neither elated by correct performance nor discouraged by error. Students are expected to come to see the teacher as a disinterested judge, supportive but emotionally uninvolved.

The innovations in SWL derive primarily from the manner in which classroom activities are organized, the role the teacher is required to assume in directing and monitoring learner performance, the responsibility placed upon learners to figure out and test their hypotheses about how language works, and the materials used to elicit and practice language.

Of course, there have been many criticisms of SWL, some well taken, some inane. It's too slow. It's too ambitious. It's not based on accepted theory. It won't work without a gifted teacher. It's too focused on
structure. It's too limiting. It intimidates some learners. It won't work in a large class. It's nothing new.

The defenders of SWL maintain that if the theory behind comprehension-based approaches were all truth and nothing but the truth, there would be no way to account for the success of SWL or any other approach not founded on that theory. The impressive success of SWL raises interesting questions about the claim made by comprehension based approaches.

2.4.14 Humanistic and Psychosuggestive Approaches: Suggestopedia

Suggestopsedia, created by Georgi Lozanov, was a course for adults, who were given new names and professions appropriate to the target language and culture. They sat on white velvet couches and listened to delightful background music. The course was for adults and communication and interaction did not seem to be an integral part of the program. Suggestopedia is the science of suggestology of which hypnosis is one branch. It aims at neutralizing learning inhibitions and de-suggesting false limitations that cultural norms impose on learning. It is claimed that Suggestopedia speeds up the assimilation of the basic elements of a foreign language (e.g., students learn eighty to one hundred words per class session) and eliminates the usual stress accompanying an intensive course.
Students are often put into real-life situations, such as acting as tourist guides. It also trains them for ordering a meal or renting a room. Much emphasis is placed on appropriate gestures and facial expressions to enhance communication. Students choose new name and nationality after which they are given a fictional autobiography and a script which is with a different aim and set up. These script performances, called "concert sessions" are accompanied by music. The use of musical, dramatic, and visual art are marked characteristics of Lozanov's teaching. The learners have scripts in two languages arranged in short phrases on opposite sides of the page. Groups of twelve students are provided with a pleasant, protected atmosphere, including soft lighting and reclining armchairs.

2.4.15 The Whole Language Approach

The term Whole Language Approach (WLA) comes not from linguists but from educators - people like Harste and Burke (1977), Ken and Yetta Goodman (1981), and Watson (1989) - who began using it in reference to how English-speaking children become readers. They stressed that language is a whole (hence the name), that any attempt to fragment into parts - whether it be grammatical patterns, vocabulary lists, or phonics "families" - destroys it. If language is not kept whole, it isn't language anymore. Harste and Burke (1977) first suggested the term when they described different theories of reading. One of them is phonics which presumed that reading was basically a process of turning letters into sounds.
Another one is the WLA which defines reading as a psycho linguistic process (Goodman 1967) in which readers interact with texts.

Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores (1991, 7) offer description of what whole language currently is and what it is not; *Whole Language: What's The Difference?* opens with "First and foremost, whole language is a professional theory, an explicit theory in practice...Whole language weaves together a theoretical view of language, language learning, and learning into a particular stance on education." It is not a method, nor a collection of strategies, techniques, or materials although certain approaches and materials are characteristic of whole language classes. "Real" is a byword in whole language classes. Notwithstanding the difficulties in defining authenticity, a commitment to real activities is important. Writing must also be real. Students select their own topics, their own audiences, and write for their own purposes and to their standards. Whole language advocates and recognizes that language is both individual and personal. Who or what we are is determined in great part by our language. Both speakers and writers are urged to consider their audience, the persons they are addressing; both are reminded to consider the setting in which their messages will be received. The four language modes - reading, writing, listening, and speaking are mutually supportive and are not artificially separated in whole language classes. Many traditional ESL programs have separated language modes, offering classes in reading, writing,
conversation, pronunciation, and listening. Whole language classes use all four modes, but may offer ESL students the opportunity to zero in on the aspect of language they most need help with.

The principles of knowledge and of language lead to principles of teaching and learning. Primary among these is the principle that curriculum and instruction need to be both meaning-centered and student-centered. Meaning-centered means that oral and written language experiences must be purposeful, functional, and real. Student-centered means building the curriculum in class with and for the students (Nunan 1988). A major aspect of the whole language view is respect for each student, with all that entails in terms of respect for student's language, home, and culture. The principle of respect for the teacher, coupled with students' obvious delight in student-centered, meaningful activities, has helped make whole language a large-scale movement in Australia, Canada, and USA. Teachers have joined together in peer support groups called Teachers Applying Whole Language or TAWL. They are affiliated across Canada and USA through the Whole Language Umbrella.

Evaluation, like curriculum, needs to be meaning-centered and student-centered. Assessment and evaluation of whole language education must itself be holistic (Goodman, Goodman & Hood 1989; Harp 1991). We cannot assess growth by using standardized or criterion-based tests which measure isolated, partial, or purposeless skills (Taylor 1990). Whole
language classrooms typically use student self-evaluation as a part of ongoing and informal assessment which allows the instructor and student to document growth and to plan for future instruction. Because students themselves establish their goals, students themselves monitor their progress (Brindley 1986).

The whole language movement had its least effect in secondary education. In secondary schools, teachers easily meet 150 students daily and hence many teachers focus on teaching subjects, not students. They typically face rigid curriculum demands. It demands every ounce of a teacher's power to drag 30 bored 16 year-old through 45 minutes of reading and/or writing. Other pressures on secondary teachers to confirm quietly are the tests their students must pass to graduate or, in some cases, to participate in extracurricular activities. Freeman says there is a push towards student collaboration on "real" projects and a new tendency to ask discussion questions rather than display questions. Here, too, practice runs ahead of theory. The term whole language is seldom used for adults learning English language and literacy.

The controversy over phonics or whole language abounds on both the sides. Kenneth Goodman, who helped pioneer the whole language concept in the late 1970s, compares phonics to "all that group repetition and reciting from Hitler's Germany." The whole language is the superior teaching method because it recognizes language as a means of
communication at an individual and personal levels with a definite audience in mind. In the 1850s educational reformer Horace Mann, repelled by what he saw as the tedium of the way phonics was taught at the time, tried to implement in Boston schools a system in which students learned words from context and picture cues. That caught on in the 1920s and 1930s as the look-say approach which immortalized by Dick and Jane readers. The Dick and Jane approach is considered a precursor of whole language, which was coined in the late 1970s. It would be correct to say that educators tend to be a blend of whole language and phonics.

Spelling is a major part of the whole language-phonics debate. Whole language advocates say spelling is less important than producing literate children who love reading and that phonics can hamper creativity. Phonics purists reply that the whole language fails to drill in early the basic skills like spelling, leaving some children unable to spell or sound out words they don't know. Whole language is rich in literature but has eliminated the skills part; and that is where phonics comes in.

Phonics is another vehicle one can use to approach reading. It is a part of a reading program, but we can also use the whole language philosophy. It has to be an integrated approach.

The most obvious place to find whole language is in elementary classrooms where many of the children speak English as an additional language. Else Hamayan (personal communication 1988) calls these
students "potentially English Proficient (PEP)" children in contrast to the U.S. government's labeling of them as limited English proficient. The term Limited English Proficient (LEP) is derogatory; alternatively, one might label limited English speakers as those handicapped by monolingualism, people limited to English.

The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA)

The following is a model of the CALLA, a Bridge to the mainstream.

**Figure 7**
Cummins recognized a twofold division between a more academic and a more communicative component. A diagram of classification of language and content activities within Cummins's (1982) framework is as follows:

**Figure 8**

Classification of Language and Content Activities
Within Cummins's (1982) Framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nonacademic or cognitively undemanding activities</th>
<th>Academic and cognitively demanding activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing survival vocabulary</td>
<td>Developing academic vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Following demonstrated directions</td>
<td>Understanding academic presentations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing simple games</td>
<td>accompanied by visuals, demonstrations of a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in art, music, physical education, and some vocational education classes</td>
<td>process, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaging in face-to-face interactions</td>
<td>Participating in hands-on science activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practicing oral language exercises and</td>
<td>Making models, maps, charts, and graphs in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>communicative language functions</td>
<td>social studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answering lower level questions</td>
<td>Solving math computation problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Solving math word problems assisted by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>manipulatives and/or illustrations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaging in predictable telephone conversations</td>
<td>Participating in academic discussions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing initial reading skills:</td>
<td>Making brief oral presentations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decoding and literal comprehension</td>
<td>Using higher level comprehension skills in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading and writing for personal purposes:</td>
<td>listening to oral texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>notes, lists, recipes, etc.</td>
<td>Understanding written tests through</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading and writing for operational purposes:</td>
<td>discussion, illustrations, and visuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>directions, forms, licenses, etc.</td>
<td>Writing simple science and social studies,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing answers to lower level questions</td>
<td>reports with format provided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Answering higher level questions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Cummins's (1982) Framework**

Nonacademic or cognitively undemanding activities

1. Developing survival vocabulary
2. Following demonstrated directions
3. Playing simple games
4. Participating in art, music, physical education, and some vocational education classes
5. Engaging in face-to-face interactions
6. Practicing oral language exercises and communicative language functions
7. Answering lower level questions
8. Engaging in predictable telephone conversations
9. Developing initial reading skills: decoding and literal comprehension
10. Reading and writing for personal purposes: notes, lists, recipes, etc.
11. Reading and writing for operational purposes: directions, forms, licenses, etc.
12. Writing answers to lower level questions

Academic and cognitively demanding activities

1. Developing academic vocabulary
2. Understanding academic presentations accompanied by visuals, demonstrations of a process, etc.
3. Participating in hands-on science activities
4. Making models, maps, charts, and graphs in social studies
5. Solving math computation problems
6. Solving math word problems assisted by manipulatives and/or illustrations
7. Participating in academic discussions
8. Making brief oral presentations
9. Using higher level comprehension skills in listening to oral texts
10. Understanding written tests through discussion, illustrations, and visuals
11. Writing simple science and social studies reports with format provided
12. Answering higher level questions
13. Understanding academic presentations without visuals or demonstrations
14. Making formal oral presentations
15. Using higher level reading comprehension skills: inferential and critical reading
16. Reading for information in content subjects
17. Writing compositions, essays, and research reports in content subjects
18. Solving math word problems without illustrations
19. Writing answers to higher level questions
20. Taking standardized achievement tests
CALLA is designed for limited English proficient students who are being prepared to participate in mainstream content-area instruction. CALLA combines English language development with content-based ESL and with instruction in special learner strategies that will help students understand and remember important concepts. CALLA is intended to be a bridge between bilingual or ESL instruction and academic mainstream classes. It teaches students the academic language skills and learning strategies they need to succeed in content areas and can also help the English-dominant but still limited English proficient bilingual student acquire these types of language skills. The approach addresses the need for English language development in the four language skill areas of listening, reading, speaking, and writing. CALLA is designed to supply added support for English language development among LEP students and is not a replacement for experience in mainstream classes.

2.5 Teaching Implications

Implications for teaching and learning processes culled from various sources of SLA hypotheses are briefly outlined as follows:

1. Simplify lexical items through paraphrase, circumlocution, gestures, and miming.
2. Interaction should be reciprocal, not one-way.
3. Learners must be encouraged to communicate individually or in groups. Learners should not be interrupted when errors are made unless comprehension has come to a standstill.
4. Provide for enough time to elaborate rules and examples in context.
5. Being a teacher means loving the subject one teaches; loving and respecting the learners; trying to make them feel ten feet tall (very important); and giving priority to establishing and reinforcing the moral, spiritual, and ethical value without which they would be dehumanized.

At present, educational research is in a period of great expansion. The increase in educational problems brought about by rapid technological change has also been an important factor in the expansion of educational research. Both laymen and educators have recognized in recent years that better educational methods and sweeping curriculum changes are needed to meet the educational challenges of a highly technical and rapidly changing society.

We teach in dramatic, exciting and controversial times. The past two decades have seen extraordinary changes in the schools and in the teaching of English. We have reviewed the changes in teaching methods from Grammar Translation method to the whole language method – so the methods have changed and for the better. The use of media, paperback books, elective courses, thematic units and alternative kinds of language study have made English classes more interesting and productive than they were two decades ago.
Having reviewed the historical background and contemporary scholarly work in ELT, the status of English among languages around the world, the investigator devoted major portion of the chapter to the basic tenets of various teaching methods and how each method affected the contemporary ELT scene in general and the ELT scene in the USA in particular. The chapter will conclude with the implications of the study. We shall now move on to the survey and discussion of the research design and the tools in the next chapter.