CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Language teaching that is being carried on for many centuries has undergone a lot of changes. The reasons for learning a language have been different during different ages. During certain ages, languages were merely taught for the purpose of reading. At other times, they were taught mainly to people who wanted to use them only orally. Languages have always existed in spoken and / or written modes. Formal language teaching has concerned itself at a given period with one or both modes. Theories concerning both the nature of language and that of learning have been changing. However, many of the current issues concerning language teaching and language learning have been continuously taken up for study.

Stern (1983) and Howatt (1984) in their famous books ‘The Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching’ and ‘A History of English Language Teaching’ trace the history of language teaching and summarize the contributions of language practitioners in detail. In ancient times, language learning was characterized by direct learning from native speakers and formal learning from bilingual manuals. Then came formal teaching which emphasized knowledge of kernels, namely vocabulary and grammar. In the Middle Ages,
Latin was the language of the western world. It was the only medium of instruction in schools and the sole language of all academic learning for a long time. Teaching was formally done through books and the focus was mainly on the teaching of Latin grammar.

Renaissance saw the vernaculars gaining importance as foreign languages after the invention of the printing press. Jan Comenius, the famous Czech educator devised new methods of language teaching based on new principles. He was the first one to attempt to teach grammar indirectly by induction. He used imitation, repetition and plenty of practice in reading and speaking. He also laid the foundations for modern pedagogy through his work ‘Didactica Magna’ (1632). His other work, the ‘Orbis Pictus’ (1658) was the first book to teach language through pictures.

During the Seventeenth and Eighteenth centuries, the usual practice of translating from the second language into the first was reversed through the influence of Meidinger’s publication ‘Praktische französische Grammatik’ (1783) which advocated translation into the second language through the application of rules of grammar. He was also the originator of ‘grammar translation’ method. By the end of the century, the teaching of Latin grammar came to an end and Latin ceased to be the medium of instruction. In the Eighteenth century, translation was the principal technique advocated by teachers of language. Emphasis was on learning grammar rules and vocabulary by rote, translations and practice in writing sample sentences. The sentences that were translated or written by students were examples of grammar points and had little relationship with the real world. The growth of grammar schools
contribute to the evaluation and establishment of the 'grammar-translation method'.

2.2 APPROACHES AND METHODS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

2.2.1 Grammar Translation Method

This method was first used to teach languages at the end of 19th century. It was called ‘The classical method’ as it was used for teaching classical languages like Latin and Greek. Its aim is to help learners to read and appreciate foreign language literature and to become familiar with the grammar of the language. The focus was on the written mode and its understanding through grammatical rules and analysis and its mastery through translation. Proficiency in the language was often judged according to criteria such as the ability to analyse the language into syntactic structures. Textbooks consisted of statements of abstract grammar rules, long lists of vocabulary and sentences meant for analysis and translation. They were artificially constructed to illustrate grammatical items and did not represent authentic use of the target language. Students had to translate passages into their mother tongue and find similarity between L1 and L2. This method insisted on the use of the target language. There was the notion that target language could be best learnt if learners were directly exposed to the use of the target language, like children in the process of learning their native language.

The Grammar-Translation Method was the dominant language teaching method from the 1840s to the 1940s and a version of it continues to be widely used in some parts of the world, even today. However, even as early as
the mid-19th Century, theorists were beginning to question the principles behind the Grammar-Translation Method. Consequently, though it may be true to say that the Grammar-Translation Method is still widely practised, 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 (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

2.2.2 Reform Movement

Changes were beginning to take place in the middle of the nineteenth century. There was a great demand for the ability to speak foreign languages and various reformers began reconsidering the very nature of language learning. Jean Joseph Jacotot was perhaps the first to employ and recommend monolingual methods for the language classroom. Among other reformers were two Frenchmen, Marcel and Gouin and an Englishman, Prendergast. Through their separate observations, they proposed alternative measures and concluded that the way children learned the mother tongue was relevant to how adults should learn a second language. Gouin’s concept was heavily influenced by his own problematic experiences in learning foreign languages and his observation that children appeared to pick up languages very easily. His Series Method taught students directly without translation and grammatical rules and explanations. Gouin was successful because his methods effectively anchored language learning in the reality of physical actions. Gouin believed that children learned language through using language for a sequence of related actions. He emphasized presenting each item in a context and using gestures to supplement verbal meaning. Gouin’s main contribution was to treat language learning as a
connected series of activities actually undertaken in real life. His method had all
the seeds of the later well known methods such as ‘Activity Method’,
‘Situational Method’ and also the ‘Direct Method’. Marcel emphasized the
importance of understanding meaning in language learning. Prendergast
proposed the first structural syllabus. He proposed arranging grammatical
structures in particular patterns so that the easiest were taught first.

The goals of modern language learning first had to shift from the
traditional teaching of grammar, translation and reading of famous works of
literature, to proficiency in the use of every day language and to knowledge of
facts from everyday life. On the level of teaching methodology, the reformers
proposed that the traditional deductive approach of grammar schools, which put
the learning of abstract rules and memorizing of tables with conjugations and
decensions about the use of the target language in class, be replaced by an
inductive approach. In particular, they called for a mainly monolingual
teaching, because they were convinced that the target language would be learnt
best in a “direct” way that is by actually using it in class. Knowledge of rules of
grammar was still considered indispensable, but they felt that grammar should
be taught inductively.

In the late 1800s and early 1900s, linguists became interested in
tackling the problems of teaching languages. Henry Sweet of England provided
a theoretical base to language teaching by incorporating truths from linguistics
and psychology. He prescribed primacy of speech, accuracy in pronunciation,
associating content with code. Sweet’s book ‘The Practical Study of Language’
can be considered to be the first major work on the methodology of teaching a
foreign language. Sweet’s system began with ‘the mechanical stage’ where the
focus was on phonetics and phonology at first and then on the ‘grammatical stage’. Isolated sentences were avoided in favour of their study in complex texts. ‘Grammatical stage’ was followed by the ‘idiomatic stage’ where a serious study of vocabulary was commenced. The ‘literary’ and ‘archaic stages’ which are the studies of literature and philology were reserved for advanced level work at the university level. Other reformers, like Wilhelm Vietor of Germany and Paul Passy of France, adopted the following principles in language teaching:

1. Language teaching should be based on scientific knowledge about it.
2. It should begin with speaking and extend to other skills.
3. Words and sentences should be presented in contexts.
4. Grammar should be taught inductively and translation should be avoided.

These ideas were consolidated in what became known as the Direct Method.

2.2.3 Direct Method

The Direct Method was developed by Sauveur in the USA and brought to the attention of the world by Charles Berlitz. The target language was used as the medium of teaching in very small classes. Lessons were made up of carefully graded exercises consisting of question and answer responses. Language learning should be as similar as that of the first language learning with an emphasis on oral interaction wherever possible and with no translation made between L1 and L2. While Jesperson, a prominent reformer of ELT, merely reflected the changing moods and trends of the times, Palmer made
language teaching ‘scientific’ with selection, gradation and presentation of language items. The influence of linguistics and psychology can be seen in his insistence on ‘structures’ in situations, accuracy in oral and written production and habit formation. Jesperson’s methodology of language teaching is based on linguistic theory, common sense psychology, and sound teaching practice. He felt that a language had to be studied in its total structure, in contexts and in real life situations. According to him, no formal grammar should be taught and the learner should discover the facts of grammar in the passage after studying it closely. Jesperson called this ‘Inventional grammar’. It proposes a practicable way of using the L2 in class, even in early stages of the foreign language learning process.

In the United States, Berlitz founded a large number of commercial language schools, and hired native speakers who could serve as ‘language models’ for students, encouraging learners to speak in the target language, thus keeping up their interest in language classes. Not knowledge about the language but knowledge of the language was the aim. They mainly teach everyday language and talk to their learners about everyday subjects. In Germany, Felix Franke (1884) argued that a language could best be taught by using it actively in the classroom because students would then ‘pick it up’ like children learning their first language (mother tongue). That is why we also find the term natural method as a near synonym to direct method.

Other linguists who supported the Direct Method were, for example, Whilhelm Vietor in Germany, Henry Sweet in Britain, and Paul Passy in France. They had the following beliefs about the principles of foreign language teaching:
a. The spoken language was given importance. They felt that classroom instruction should be conducted mainly in the target language.
b. The findings of phonetics and modern linguistic studies should be applied to teaching and teachers should receive proper (preferably academic) training.
c. Learners should hear the language first, before seeing it in the written form.
d. Limits must be imposed on the number and kind of vocabulary and grammar taught and they should be carefully selected; everyday vocabulary and phrases must be included.
e. Words should be presented in sentences and sentences should be practised in meaningful contexts and not be taught as isolated, disconnected elements.
f. Materials should be graded from simple to complex.
g. Grammar should be taught inductively.

2.2.4 Harold Palmer: The Scientific Study of Languages

Harold Palmer was an educationist who effectively bridged the gap between linguistic theory and teaching practice. According to him language learning was essentially ‘a process of unconscious assimilation’ of language elements. He therefore advocated direct contact with the language and meaningful repetition. Reading and writing would come next to listening and speaking, as he considered them to be the higher forms of learning. His major publications ‘The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages’ (1917), ‘The Principles of Language Study’ (1921) and ‘A Grammar of Spoken English’
(1924), "provided a statement of intellectual principle on which the ELT profession was to build for the next half century" (Howatt, 1984).

2.2.5 The Structural and Audiolingual Approach

Between the two world wars, the American Army, with the help of the universities evolved a method called Army Specialized Training Programme to train soldiers to speak foreign languages fluently using 'mimicry', 'memorisation' and 'pattern drill'. This method of teaching a language in a short period is what ultimately came to be called the Audiolingual Method. It is a mixture of structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis and behaviorist psychology. Languages are best learnt in chains of stimulus and response actions (habit formation). Speech based instruction for oral proficiency with accuracy was recommended and the techniques followed to achieve this were 'recognition and discrimination followed by imitation, repetition and memorization'.

Robert Lado (1964) sums up the following principles on which the Audiolingual Method is based:

Principle 1. Speech before writing: teach listening and speaking first, reading and writing next is the basis for the Audiolingual approach.

Principle 2. Basic sentences: let students memorize basic conversational sentences as accurately as possible.

Principle 3. Patterns as habits: establish the patterns as habits through pattern practice; to know the language is to use its patterns
of construction with appropriate vocabulary at normal speed for communication.

Principle 4. Sound system for use: teach the sound system structurally for use by demonstration, imitation, props, contrast and practice.

Principle 5. Vocabulary control: keep the vocabulary load to a minimum while students are mastering the sound system and grammatical patterns.

Principle 6. Immediate reinforcement; let the student know immediately when his response has been successful.

Principle 7. Writing as representation of speech: teach reading and writing as manipulations of graphic representation of language units and patterns that the student already knows.

Principle 8. Graded patterns: teach the patterns gradually, in cumulative graded steps.

Principle 9. Language practice versus translation: translation is not a substitute for language practice and word-for-word translations produce incorrect constructions.

Principle 10. Maintain authentic language standards: teach the language as it is, not as it ought to be.

Principle 11. Practice: the student must be engaged in practice most of the learning time.

Principle 12. Shape responses through partial experiences and props.
The Audiolingual approach led to the teaching that was characterized by pattern drills. It was a style of teaching that was, years later, heavily criticized as mechanical, mindless and boring; teachers and learners complained that drills did not lead to the attainment of communicative competence; especially with regard to motivation. Critics called them “drill and kill” exercises.

2.2.6 Michael West and the New Method

Michael West’s principles and the materials he prepared were based on his actual experience of the ELT situation in India. (He worked as Principal of the Teachers’ Training College at Dacca and also as Principal Inspector of Schools for Chittagong and Calcutta). West produced his first language teaching material based on his experimental project carried out in West Bengal. He was not happy with the imperial British educational system followed in India as 32 percent of class III pupils (8 year olds) never even reached class IV and as many as 82 percent had dropped out before the end of school in class X. He felt that basic literacy skills in English could be acquired much more rapidly, if the children were already literate in their Mother tongue. West as a field practitioner, felt the need to develop reading more than anything else. After a thorough investigation of the situation, he decided that developing reading skills must be given first priority (Reading First Philosophy). He then started simplifying the vocabulary by replacing old-fashioned archaic literary words with common modern equivalents. The textbooks ‘New Method Readers’ which were written by him choosing right words for different classes had a new ordinary word in every five or six sentences, instead of a new word
in every sentence. His General Service List of English words which took 20 years to complete, is a great contribution to the development of ELT.

2.2.7 Situational Language Teaching

One important school of thoughts that influenced ELT in the sixties was Situational Language Teaching. It was first systematically applied to foreign language teaching in Britain in the thirties and further developed in the 1940s and 1950s. It insists that we cannot adequately understand language if we divorce it from its social functions and meaning. 'Learning a language' means, "learning effective and acceptable language behaviour in situations in an unfamiliar culture" (Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens, 1964). Central tenets of the situational approach are that the construction of the syllabus for ELT must start with an analysis of the learner needs, which consequently necessitates a process of the principled selection of the learning items, since teaching, 'the whole of English' is neither possible nor sensible as a goal in ELT. After the selection the next step is grouping and gradation of the learning items, which entails arranging them into 'blocks' of the right size for the various years, terms, weeks, etc. and deciding on the sequence in which they are to be taught. The final step is the presentation, which requires the use of appropriate techniques for the presentation and practice of the systematically selected and graded items.

The approach emphasizes that the learner’s meaningful experience of language as it is used is essential for the progress in the language learning process. Learning takes place more readily if the language is encountered in active use rather than as a set of disembodied utterances or exercises. That is
why course designers and teachers were called upon to find situations that are meaningful, both with regard to the future situations in which learners would want to use their English and with regard to their present situations in classrooms. In reality, it meant that learners were called upon to imagine themselves in a situation in which they might want to use English they were learning. Typical situations of textbook units are those of the station and supermarket and those which involve buying of tickets, asking one’s way, having breakfast and talking about an event in the past.

2.2.8 Communicative Language Teaching

Today Communicative Language Teaching is widely accepted as an alternative to other approaches but interpreted and applied in different ways. According to this approach, language is only for communication and meaning and contextualisation are very important. The communicative approach could be said to be the product of educators and linguists who had grown dissatisfied with the Audiolingual and grammar-translation methods of foreign language instruction. They felt that students were not learning enough of the realistic use of language. They did not know how to communicate using appropriate social language, gestures, or expressions; in brief, they were at a loss to communicate in the culture of the language studied. Interest in and the development of communicative-style of teaching mushroomed in the 1970s; authentic language use and classroom exchanges where students engaged in real communication with one another became quite popular. The goal of language teaching got shifted to the building up of learners’ communicative competence.
Dell Hymes (1966) introduced the concept of ‘communicative competence’ in the USA and the British linguists such as Wilkins, Christopher Candlin, Henry Widdowson, Christopher Brumfit, Keith Johnson and others insisted on a change in the approach, methods and techniques followed in language pedagogy. As a result of the shift from linguistic competence to communicative competence, several communicative syllabuses have been proposed. The following are some of the important ones (Krishnaswamy and Sriraman, 1994):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syllabus type</th>
<th>Name associated with it</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Functional</td>
<td>Jupp and Holdin (1975)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structures and functions</td>
<td>Wilkins (1976)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notional</td>
<td>Wilkins (1976)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner-generated</td>
<td>Candlin (1976)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional</td>
<td>Widdowson (1979)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional hyper spiral</td>
<td>Brumfit (1980)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural, functional, instrumental</td>
<td>Allen (1980)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competency-based</td>
<td>Grognet and Crandall (1982)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task-based</td>
<td>Prabhu (1983)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CLT emphasizes that the learner uses the structure in a communicative way. For example, after learning the passive structure ‘be + past participle of the verb’ he must be able to write a laboratory report or describe a process. Communicative Language Teaching makes use of real life situations that necessitate communication. The teacher sets a situation that students are likely to encounter in real life. It encourages co-operative relationship among
students. Students get opportunities to express ideas and opinions and teachers also get immediate feedback. The teacher tolerates errors and considers them as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills. Students' success in learning the language is determined by their accuracy and fluency. There are varieties of activities carried out in the classroom. Students play language games, watch television, listen to radio and role-plays to develop strategies for interpreting language as it is actually used by native speakers.

Language learners who knew merely the forms of the language thoroughly might not be able to communicate with others effectively. He could define grammatical structures and describe all the rules but he would not be able to use those structures and the rules to express himself clearly. Keith Johnson calls them "the structurally competent but communicatively incompetent students" (Johnson, 1981).

2.2.9 Community Language Teaching

This method was developed by Charles Curran. He viewed that classroom learners as a group were in need of therapy and counseling rather than conventional learners dealt with individually. Emphasis was made on the value of each individual's contribution to classroom language production as the way of lowering the defensive anxiety that impairs the performance of many classroom learners. This method has been criticized from the point of view that the teacher becomes too non-directive. Students often need direction during the early stages of learning. At the beginning, teacher and students get introduced to each other and build a cordial relationship. This removes the inferiority complex of students. The teacher also invites students to talk and accept what
each student says. Mother Tongue is used in the classroom to make the meaning clear. Activities are structured clearly in stages and completed in an appropriate way. One task is taken at a time. The teacher stands behind students to encourage them and leave them free to learn without his interference. Students create their own materials and create a syllabus of their choice. They work in a group and feel a sense of community.

2.2.10 SUGGETOPEDIA

Suggestopedia is a study of suggestion to pedagogy. It is based on the work of a Bulgarian psychologist, Lazanov. His view was that by enhancing the state of relaxation under right conditions, the human brain could process great quantities of material. This draws on work in the area of yoga and extrasensory perception. Class is arranged in a relaxed and comfortable environment. Students are encouraged to relax to the sound of classical music while attempting to memorize linguistic material. Students trust the teacher as he speaks assuringly to increase their confidence. Learning is fun with playful activities. Attention is given to communication and not to language forms. Teacher presents a few points on grammar and also helps students by translating words into their mother tongue. The teacher tolerates errors and corrects them later. Students close their eyes and listen to the communication along with music. Language is learnt through dramatization as fine arts enable suggestions to reach the subconscious level. Students are asked to revise at home in the night and morning what they have learnt in the classroom to reinforce conscious learning.
2.2.11 The Silent Way

This method, associated with Caleb Gattgno is based on more of problem solving principles rather than on the humanism of Suggestopedia. In this view, learning is facilitated if the learner spends energy on discovering and creating rather than remembering and repeating. The silent way is typical of the discovery of learning methods, developed during the 1960s. The method emphasizes the use of Chinese rods together with wall charts as props in the classroom. The open ended materials and games developed by Gattegno for the early stages of language learning include a box of rods of various lengths and colours, a set of pictures and worksheets, charts showing the principal functions of words of the language and also special charts presenting all the sounds and spellings of the language in one panoramic view.

Cognitive psychologists and TG (Transformational Generative) linguists argue that language learning cannot take place through mimicry and that simply repeating sentences will not help. Students should use their own thinking process, or cognition, to discover the rules of the target language. The teacher works with learners and helps them. He is not the center of attraction. Students also help each other. The teacher makes use of what students already know. Silence is the tool of learning. Silent teachers can observe students' behaviour closely. Teachers' silence encourages group work. Students listen to themselves and correct themselves with the help of other students. The Teacher does not help. At the beginning, the teacher looks for progress and not for perfection.
2.2.12 **Total Physical Response**

Over a long period of time, many teachers have recognized the value of associating language with physical activity. Total physical response associates language with physical activity. In total physical response classrooms, for example, students do a considerable amount of listening and acting, making a heavy use of imperative commands. This method appeals to the dramatic and theoretical nature of language learning. Total physical response has been generally thought to be most effective at lower levels of proficiency. It is a comprehension approach. Importance is given to listening comprehension. Listening and understanding occur before speaking. Language learning is similar to a child learning his mother tongue. Students listen and respond to teachers' commands. Students feel elated while performing actions themselves. This reduces anxiety and facilitates learning. The teacher is tolerant of errors and correction is carried out in an unobtrusive manner. Students feel happy in learning this type of novel situation which makes them jump, sing, dance and laugh in the classroom. Language learning is more effective when it is fun. They also don't need to memorize anything. Spoken language is emphasized over written language. When they are ready, they speak.

2.3 **PSYCHOLOGY AND LINGUISTIC THEORIES**

Behaviorism, which had a great influence on language learning, threw light on differences between languages. Pavlov and others studying in the fields of animal behavior (including John Watson and B.F.Skinner) believed that animal behavior was formed by a series of rewards or punishments. Skinner promoted the idea that human behavior could be described using the same
model. Theorists believed that languages were made up of a series of habits, and that if learners could develop all these habits, they would speak the language well. They also believed that a contrastive analysis of language would be invaluable in teaching languages. It is postulated that languages with similar linguistic structures are easy to learn than languages with different structures. These theories gave birth to Audiolingual method. This method basically concentrated on using drills for the formation of good language habits. Students are given a stimulus, which they respond to. If their response is correct, it is rewarded, so the habit will be formed; if it is incorrect, it is corrected, so that it is suppressed.

In the mid-1960s, Linguist Noam Chomsky challenged the behaviorist model of language learning i.e. Audiolingual method. He proposed a theory called Transformational Generative Grammar, according to which learners do not acquire an endless list of rules but only a limited set of transformations, which can be used over and over again. With a fairly limited number of transformations, according to Chomsky, language users can form an unlimited number of sentences. The Chomskyan revolution had a profound effect and brought about changes in the direction of the study of linguistics as well as that of psychology more at the theoretical and research level; but it contributed little to alter the way, language was actually taught in classrooms. Chomsky was also sceptical about the relationship between linguistics and language teaching.

Linguistics, an independent field of study was developed after World War II. It is defined as ‘a scientific study of language’. ‘Comparative Philology’, which studied natural languages of the world scientifically, was the beginning of ‘Modern Linguistics’. Different situations, interests, occupations,
or social roles demand different uses of language. Linguistics examines all varieties of language and branches itself to different studies of language. ‘Sociolinguistics’ relates to the study of language of society and its variations like style, register, domain and code. Till 1970, linguists have been studying the sound patterns and the concept of sentence in the language. After working for long on syntax and semantics, they felt that the sentence couldn’t be treated as an ultimate unit. Harris (1952) also felt that “Language does not occur in stray words or sentences but in connected discourse”. Since about 1970, linguists went beyond the study of sentence through ‘Discourse analysis’. Linguists realized that “Language cannot be studied in isolation from communicative intentions of language users and the context within which they use language” (Stern, 1983).

Other theorists have also proposed ideas that have influenced language teaching. Stephen Krashen (1988), for example studied the way that children learn language and applied it to adult language learning. He proposed Input Hypothesis, which states that language, is acquired by using comprehensible input that is slightly beyond the learner’s present proficiency. Learners use the comprehensible input to deduce rules. Krashen’s views on language teaching have given rise to a number of changes in language teaching. His theories have had an influence in language teaching though they are not universally accepted.

2.4 ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING vs LITERATURE TEACHING

There has been a conflict between teachers who teach English Language and teachers who teach English Literature. Literature based syllabus
began to be used to teach English at university level. Teachers like West felt strongly about the ill planned and ill suited materials that presented archaic and obsolete words and long winding sentences incomprehensible to the learner. Quirk also agreed with him entirely. (Lesson 2, Materials Course, C.T.E., D.C.C. CIEFL.) Several other events that occurred beyond the Indian borders had their implications for teaching English in India at college level. The Situational Approach has been extended to college syllabus and thus ELT has replaced Literature Teaching (LT). Literature is no longer an aim in itself. “Recent approaches to language teaching ... have ignored literature teaching” (Brumfit, 1985).

Literature teaching views language learning not for its own sake but as a part of an educational curriculum in totality. Teachers who teach literature feel that literature disciplines the mind, develops the intellect and caters to the satisfaction and refinement of emotions. It is the experience of life, not experience of language that counted. It is the development, refinement and maturity of personality. Literature teaching does not ignore language teaching. Learners get profited from the clearest, most significant and the most appropriate use of words possible. They learn words in the widest range of contexts, in their fullest and richest meanings. Their vocabulary increases and, through constant imitation, they develop their own. Language teaching stressed the importance of speech, supported by anthropological studies and natural language behavior. Teach the language, not about the language is the slogan. Learning began with sufficient oral practice (drilling) of controlled (basic) sentence patterns in situations. Language teaching insisted on mastery of ‘form’. It ignored literature teaching human values and their inculcation through literary works. As a result, ELT has interfered with the teaching of
literature and thus reveals the dichotomy between ELT and LT. ELT is not interested in presenting a literature based syllabus to the Indian learner but it believes that, the learner finds the syllabus a burden rather than help. It further believes that the learner requires English for intranational and international communication rather than anything else and hence he requires the acquisition of 'skills' rather than the development of personality.

2.5 USE OF TECHNOLOGY IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Educational practice the world over has been undergoing tremendous changes. While the western developed countries are experimenting and experiencing new concepts and methods, underdeveloped and developing countries have not yet achieved anything credible. But at the same time the impact and influence of media and knowledge explosion do have an impact on the outdated British educational system followed in countries like India. Teachers started using visual aids from 1869 to teach language through 'Natural Method' developed by Lambert Sauveur (Howatt, 1984). Use of audio visual aids in classroom teaching enables learners to sustain their motivation and interest in language learning. Picture-cards, Still pictures, Wall charts, Overhead Projectors, Epidiascopes, Slides, Filmstrips, Record and Cassette Players, T.V. and Video players are used as effective audio visual aids. Computers play a major role in the field of education in the changing society of 21st Century. They manage learning activity by assuming the role of the manager of learning. Computers also assist as well as evaluate the learning outcome of learner by maintaining a question bank, setting a question paper, scoring the response of learners and finally processing the results in a comprehensive manner.
2.5.1 Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

In the early stages computer was only used as a ‘tutor’ because they were used to provide drills repetitively to learners. This phase was called Behavioristic CALL. The next stage concentrated more on interaction and the computers were considered as ‘tools’ or ‘work house’. Thesaurus, Grammar, and Word Perfect were some of the examples of improvisation. This phase was called ‘Communicative CALL’. The advent of Multimedia, with Hypermedia, allowed learners to get trained in L S R W. Computer is a versatile tool and can generate a wide variety of different CALL activities like games, quizzes, text construction, simulation, testing, evaluation and other problem solving activities. Computer can make quick decisions and store vast quantities of material in it. Students can have an individualized instruction programme through computer as it can analyze students’ responses and reply quickly. The computer can be used as a supplementary to any type of textbook. CALL materials are flexible and suitable to different levels of students.

Teachers do not need to know about writing computer programmes. Pre-packaged software is available in the market. It is enough to know how to load the programme into the computer and operate it. The computer can be used as an interactive teaching aid along with an LCD projector in the classroom. It can vividly explain and show students answers to questions in full motion with sound and colour video graphics instead of simple written texts. In chat mode, it can produce appropriate answers in an interactive conversation. Students’ mistakes can be characterized and appropriate advice can be given to them. Computer based activities present the student with a task and the student can acquire mastery to complete the task using his linguistic skills and knowledge.
The Computer Mediated Communication has also attained a new dimension with the introduction of the Internet. Learners are able to learn anywhere, anytime, with anybody in a virtual environment and most importantly at their own pace. English is by far the most popular global language on the Internet. Even when the subject matter is highly, culturally and ethnically oriented only the use of English language is preferred.

2.6 SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Language is an important aspect in our life. We express our feelings, exchange ideas and experiences through language. Our mother tongue is our first language acquired from our parents and the society we live in. We learn another language for various reasons. In our case we learn English, which is used as a link language between Indian states and also as an international language. First language is acquired unconsciously as we are exposed to the natural settings of the language. It is evident that children take a short period to become competent speakers of their mother tongue before entering schools. It is an automatic process activated without any motivation. There is a debate on deciding whether a second language is learnt or acquired. In 1967, Pit Corder initiated the study of ‘Second Language Acquisition’ (SLA). In 1970, ‘SLA’ research has emerged as a new academic subject to look at second language learning from a scientific perspective. SLA includes learning a non-native language in a non-native environment (eg. English in India) as well as learning a native language by a non-native speaker (eg. French in France). SLA can be defined as the process of learning another language after the basics of the first have been acquired; when a young child learns two languages at the same time,
the principles that govern first language acquisition apply to the acquisition of both languages.

For Brown, “language needs to be learned by being instructed and being modified by other speakers. Even children learn their first language by imitating and interacting with their caretakers” (Brown, 1973). According to Dulay et al,

To say that humans are creative with respect to language means that they do not simply imitate what they hear. In fact they very often use sentences they have never heard before. This central aspect of language acquisition is believed to be rooted in innate and universal structural properties of the mind (Dulay et al, 1982).

2.6.1 Stephen Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition

Krashen maintains that two approaches are available for gaining proficiency in a second language: language learning and language acquisition. “Learning” is a conscious, slow processing of structural rules that usually takes place in a formal classroom setting. “Acquisition” refers to the subconscious mechanisms through which children learn their native tongue. Acquisition takes place in “natural” environments, that is, in communicative situations outside the classroom. While acquisition is the only system available to children in learning their native tongue or any second language, adults have both systems available for developing second language ability. Krashen points out, however, that although only acquired language can be used spontaneously in communication, consciously learned language rules could serve as monitors for self-correction.
Krashen hypothesizes that formal and informal environments contribute to mastery in different ways and that the best setting for adult language learning is one that offers both learning and acquisition. We know through experience that learning only the grammatical syllabus is insufficient for gaining language mastery. Experience also tells us that exposure alone, without formal instruction and correction, is insufficient for adults. It often leads to error fossilization and pidginization of a language. If, however, the learning environment provides sufficient time, opportunities, materials and activities both for formal learning and for the use of language in natural communicative situations, adult language learners can achieve high proficiency in a second language. Krashen maintains that acquisition occurs to the extent the target language is used realistically in the classroom. While learning increases the grammatical accuracy of a communicative exchange, semantic fluency develops only through acquisition. Five main hypotheses of Krashen's theory of second language acquisition are described in the following sections.

2.6.2 The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

The Acquisition-Learning distinction is the most fundamental of all the hypotheses in Krashen's theory and the most widely known among linguists and language practitioners. According to Krashen there are two independent systems of second language performance: 'the acquired system' and 'the learned system'. The 'acquired system' or 'acquisition' is the product of a subconscious process very similar to the process children undergo when they acquire their first language. It requires meaningful interaction in the target language - natural communication - in which speakers concentrate not on the form of their utterances, but on the communicative act. The 'learned system' or 'learning' is
the product of formal instruction and it comprises a conscious process, which results in the conscious knowledge 'about' the language, for example knowledge of grammar rules. According to Krashen 'learning' is less important than 'acquisition'.

2.6.3 The Monitor hypothesis

The Monitor hypothesis relates acquisition and learning and defines the role of grammar. According to Krashen, the acquisition system is the utterance initiator, while the learning system performs the role of the 'monitor' or the 'editor'. The 'monitor' acts in a planning, editing and correcting function when three specific conditions are met: that is, the second language learner has sufficient time at his/her disposal, he/she focuses on form or thinks about correctness, and he/she knows the rule. It appears that the role of conscious learning is somewhat limited in second language performance. According to Krashen, the role of the monitor is - or should be - minor, being used only to correct deviations from 'normal' speech and to give speech a more 'polished' appearance. Krashen also suggests that there is individual variation among language learners with regard to 'monitor' use. He distinguishes those learners that use the 'monitor' all the time (over-users); those learners who have not learned or who prefer not to use their conscious knowledge (under-users); and those learners who use the 'monitor' appropriately (optimal users). An evaluation of the person's psychological profile can help to determine to what group they belong. Usually extroverts are under-users, while introverts and perfectionists are over-users. Lack of self-confidence is frequently related to the over-use of the 'monitor'. 
2.6.4 The Natural Order hypothesis

The Natural Order Hypothesis suggests that the acquisition of grammatical structures follows a 'natural order' which is predictable. This order seemed to be independent of the learners' age, L1 background and conditions of exposure. Although the agreement between individual acquirers was not always 100%, there were statistically significant similarities that reinforced the existence of a Natural Order of language acquisition. Krashen however points out that the implication of the Natural Order Hypothesis is not that a language program syllabus should be based on the order found in the studies. In fact, he rejects grammatical sequencing when the goal is language acquisition.

2.6.5 The Input hypothesis

The Input hypothesis explains how the learner acquires a second language; in other words, how second language acquisition takes place. So, the Input hypothesis is only concerned with 'acquisition', not 'learning'. According to this hypothesis, the learner improves and progresses along the 'natural order' when he/she receives second language 'input' that is one step beyond his/her current stage of linguistic competence. For example, if a learner is at a stage 'i', then acquisition takes place when he/she is exposed to 'Comprehensible Input' that belongs to level 'i + 1'. Since all learners cannot be at the same level of linguistic competence at the same time, Krashen suggests that natural communicative input is the key to designing a syllabus, ensuring in this way that each learner will receive some 'i + 1' input that is appropriate for his/her current stage of linguistic competence.
2.6.6 Affective Filter Hypothesis

Finally, the Affective Filter Hypothesis embodies Krashen's view that a number of 'affective variables' play a facilitative, but non-causal, role in second language acquisition. These variables include motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Krashen claims that learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, and a low level of anxiety are better equipped for success in second language acquisition. Low motivation, low self-esteem and debilitating anxiety can combine to 'raise' the affective filter and form a 'mental block' that prevents comprehensible input from being used for acquisition. In other words, when the filter is 'up' it impedes language acquisition. On the other hand, positive affect is necessary for successful acquisition to take place.

2.7 TASK BASED LEARNING

A task is a piece of work undertaken for one's self or for others either as free service or for some reward. In other words, by 'task is meant the hundred and one things people do in every day life, at work, at play and in between' (Long, 1985). A dictionary of applied linguistics defines task as "an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (i.e. as a response)" (Richards, Platt and Weber, 1986). Tasks may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires a teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task. The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make language more communicative, since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity, which goes beyond the practice of language for its own
sake. In task based learning users’ attention is focused on meaning rather than linguistic structure. Breen defines task,

as any structured language learning endeavour, which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. ‘Task’ is therefore assumed to refer to a range of work plans which have the overall purpose of facilitating language learning from the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem solving or simulations and decision making (Breen, 1987).

Rani finds a purpose in using tasks in changing the language teaching practice today. She says,

Task provides a purpose for the use and learning of language other than simply learning language items for their own sake. Task based teaching has been particularly influential in generating quantities of simulating instructional material and has radically changed conceptions of what good teaching practice involves from what it was twenty five years ago (Rani, 1998).

Nunan defines task as a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. "Task-based learning is like an adventure--learners surprise you by coming up with all kinds of things..." "... exploring language in this way opens up whole new vistas...." (Nunan, 1989). This definition fits better the issues of language learning in academic settings. Furthermore, tasks will be seen as
"complex and lengthy activities" (Breen, 1987). A useful framework is provided by Nunan (Nunan, 1989) in which a task is analyzed in terms of its components: goals, input, activities, teacher role, learner role, and setting. Foster feels that,

> giving learners tasks to transact, rather than items to learn, provides an environment which best promotes the natural language learning process. By engaging in meaningful activities, such as problem solving, discussions, or narratives, the learner's interlanguage system is stretched and encouraged to develop (Foster, 1999).

Prabu's (1987) definition of task seems to be oriented towards cognition, process and (teacher-fronted) pedagogy. According to him, a task is an activity, which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought and which allows teachers to control and regulate the process. Candlin regards task as having a social and problem solving orientation. It is a negotiation between the learner and the teacher. According to him the 'task' is,

> one of a set of differentiated sequenceable problem-solving activities involving teachers and learners in some joint selection from a range of varied cognitive and communicative procedures applied to existing and new knowledge in the collective exploration and pursuance of foreseen and emergent goals, within a social milieu (Candlin, 1987).

According to Jane Willis task is a goal-oriented activity with a clear purpose. "It involves the use of language but in which the focus is on the outcome of the activity rather than on the language used to achieve that
outcome" (Jane Willis, 1990). Doing a communication task involves achieving an outcome, creating a final product that can be appreciated by others. Tasks can be used as the central component of a three-part framework: "pre-task," "task cycle" and "language focus." According to Willis these components have been carefully designed to create four optimum conditions for language acquisition and thus provide rich learning opportunities to suit different types of learners. In the pre-task phase (introduction to topic and task), the teacher explores the topic with the class, highlights useful words and phrases, and helps learners understand task instructions and prepares for what is to come. In the "Task Cycle" students do the task, in pairs or small groups. The teacher monitors from a distance, encouraging all attempts at communication, not correcting. Since this situation has a "private" feel, students should feel free to experiment. Mistakes do not matter. In the planning phase of the task circle students prepare to report to the whole class (orally or in writing) how they prepared the task, what they decided and/or discovered. Since the report stage is public, students will naturally want to be accurate, so the teacher stands by to give language advice. The teacher acts as a chairperson and then comments on the content of the reports. The report phase has a language focus. Students examine their reports from the point of view of accuracy.

There are different types of tasks which can be used for classroom activities. A task may be called 'Tight Task' when the participants of a group do not stray from sets of questions or subjects. But when the participants have more freedom to express beyond a definite framework it is called 'Loose Task'. The tasks where the accent is on 'getting things done' without any need to interpret are called 'Procedural Tasks'. 'Interpretative Tasks' allow interpretation of data. Tasks may be called 'planned tasks' when the
participants get time to plan and perform / execute tasks. 'Open Tasks' do not have one right solution whereas 'Closed Tasks' have only one correct answer. In a 'Decision Making Task', participants arrive at a decision but in a 'Problem-solving Task' participants arrive at a solution as result of interaction. Depending on the information flow during tasks, the tasks are called 'Two way' or 'One way'. Two-way tasks are tasks where the information flow is in both the directions; one way when the flow of information is only in one direction.

Long and Porter (1985) reported that two way tasks allow more negotiation of meaning, to create comprehensible input by allowing more occurrence of prompts, confirmation checks, clarification requests, definitions, requisitions, repetitions and rephrasing.

2.7.1 The Role of the Teacher in Task-based Learning

A task-based language lesson is different from a traditional language lesson. It requires the teacher to abandon the role of teacher and become a facilitator by changing the focus of the classroom from teacher dominated to student-centered. It becomes quite evident that this approach opens new ways for learning as well as challenges for the teacher. The role of the teacher is to present information around tasks, problems and situations in order to engage the students' interest. Teachers assist students in developing new understanding and connecting it to their previous learning. In the classroom, instructors focus on encouraging students to analyze, interpret, and predict information. Teachers also rely heavily on open-ended questions and promote extensive dialogues among students. Extensive use of cooperative learning may be used to facilitate the process.
In TBL classroom the teacher can

- encourage thoughtful discussions among students to suggest causes for events and situations and help them predict consequences
- engage students in experiences that challenge their previous knowledge
- allow students some time to think after asking questions
- encourage questioning by asking thoughtful open-ended questions using words such as classify, rank and create when setting tasks
- encourage and accept student independence and initiative by letting go of classroom control
- use primary sources together with interactive materials
- use student questions and ideas to guide lessons
- encourage student initiation of ideas
- promote student leadership and collaboration
- use student thinking, experiences and interests to move lessons
- use student’s ideas before presenting teacher’s ideas
- encourage students to challenge each other’s ideas
- involve students in seeking information that can be applied to solving real-life problems and thereby extend learning beyond the classroom
The first objective in the classroom is to engage students' interest on a topic in the target content area. This can be done by presenting a reading passage in the textbook or a newspaper or magazine article. The teacher should ask open-ended questions that bring out the students' passive knowledge and the understanding of the topic while eliciting new vocabulary. Next, some tasks, situations or problems are presented. Students are allowed to take charge. Students break into small groups to formulate their own ideas using gambits, target grammar structures and the content-based vocabulary that has been previously elicited. The role of the teacher during the small group interaction time should be to move around the classroom and act as a resource person asking questions that aid the students' understanding. After spending sufficient time on discussion, the small groups share their ideas and conclusions with the rest of the class, which will then try to reach a consensus. The incorporation of all these strategies meant for creating this learning environment requires change in the teaching learning process. New skills can be developed to enable students to take active part in classroom activities and thus take responsibility for their own learning.

Long describes a number of steps to be taken in implementing task-based language teaching. At first, a Needs Analysis is to be conducted to identify the target, real world tasks learners need to perform in the second language. The target tasks are classified into types or super ordinate categories such as 'making / changing reservations'. From the target tasks pedagogic tasks are derived. "Adjusted to such factors as learners' age and proficiency level, these are a series of initially simple, progressively more complex approximations to the target task" (Long, 1997). These tasks are then sequenced to form a syllabus and the program is implemented with appropriate
methodology and pedagogy. For each topic or text, teachers can design tasks that their learners would find engaging to do themselves and that would generate the type of interaction they may need to take part in. Teachers can vary the types of tasks to offer different degrees of cognitive challenge. Tasks can engage learners in listing, classifying, matching, comparing, problem-solving, sharing experiences and anecdote telling. Some can have more creative goals, such as writing a story or designing a brochure (Willis, 1999). Of all the syllabus types that have been recommended, it should at the same time be remembered that each and every type of syllabus has its own pedagogic value and relevance in the second language learning.