3. A REVIEW OF THEORETICAL PRECEPTS IN ELT

3.0 Significance of Theoretical Precepts.

Theories have given us the basis for evolving sound methodologies. They also have guided the practising teacher in the planning, design and implementation of the curriculum. McLaughlin (1987) feels that a theory is both a summary of known facts and laws and conjecture about the relationships among them. The purpose of the theory is in part to further understanding. Theories help us understand and organize the data of experience. They permit us to summarise relatively large amount of information via a relatively short list of propositions. In this sense, theories bring meaning to what is otherwise chaotic and unscrutable.

3.1 Language Pedagogy

H.H. Stern in his preface to Speaking in Many Tongues (1972) by Wilga Rivers says:

All language teaching inevitably, tacitly or openly, implies a theory of language learning. Every language teacher must somehow have an answer to two questions: what is the nature of language? And what is the nature of the language learning process? It is therefore not surprising to find language teachers responsive to the disciplines which discuss such questions: linguistics and psychology,
above all, and more recently, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics. But the relationship between the practice of language teaching and the underlying disciplines presents problems.

Language is a coherent and well-defined system. To quote Stern again

Unless we have a conceptual scheme of what language is, we cannot plan to teach it....

But for planning language teaching, a view of a language as a coherent structure is unavoidable and therefore the linguist's effort to develop schemes of this kind is of great interest to language pedagogy.

(H.H. Stern 1983:26)

Noam Chomsky too had observed in his address at the North East Conference (1966):

I am, frankly, rather skeptical about the significance, for the teaching of languages, of such insights and understanding as have been attained in linguistics and psychology.... It is possible, even likely, that principles of psychology and linguistics and research in these disciplines, may supply insights useful to the language teacher. But this must be demonstrated
Applied Linguistics

Linguistic inputs

a) Linguistic Theories
   b) Implications of Linguistic Theories to Pedagogical Presentations
      Selected Classroom related elements based on (b)

Psychological inputs

a) Psychological Theories
   b) Implications of Psychological Theories to Pedagogical presentations
      Selected Classroom related elements based on (b)

Administrative and Logistic inputs

a) Management
   Pedagogical
   Sociological
   Socio-economic

Applied Linguistics

Syllabus
Method
Materials
and cannot be presumed. It is the language teacher himself who must validate or refute any specific proposal (See Krishnaswami 1992:200)

3.2 Language Pedagogy: The Beginnings

Even before linguistics came to be talked about, language pedagogy provided useful insights to the language teacher. In the first century A.D., Quintilian advocated the development of four essential qualities of style, namely, correctness, clarity, elegance and appropriateness to make his ideal 'good man skilled in speaking'. Quintilian emphasised the need to use paraphrasing a text as a technique helping the learner not only in analysing the structure of the text but also in trying out the form of abridgement. Apart from these exercises, Quintilian recommended translation. Translation exercises were already administered to Greeks learning Latin.

In 1570, Ascham's School Master provided a 'pedagogical plan'. The Quintilian model was sought to be employed in Ascham's plan. Ascham's plan suggests a six step methodology, namely Imitatio (following the model of great authors). Translation, Paraphrasis (reformulating), Epitome (summarizing), Metaphrasis (changing a text from poetry to prose and prose to poetry) and Declamatio (public oratory). These steps are aimed at improving the learner's sensitivity to language use. The learning of grammar was made
subservient to the study of original texts. Joseph Webbe (1560-1633) totally excluded the study of grammar and concentrated only on communication skills and grammar through use. Comenius (1592-1670) wanted the concept of natural pictures for teaching languages and felt that language should not be the object of learning but the result or the product. Around the same period William Lily's *A short Introduction to Grammar* (1540) provided a uniform method of grammar teaching in schools. For the next 250 years or so, this book was used by almost everyone. Thus, we may identify distinctly two different schools of thought on the use of language, its role and function in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

The beginning of the eighteenth century turned to be quite eventful in the sense that there were new channels of development in the areas of trade and communication; new colonies sprang up; consequently, there was an understandable ambition and all these led to determining the usage. French and Italian academies were established; Jonathan Swift appealed for 'A proposal for correcting, Improving and Ascertaining the English Tongue' in 1712. The other noteworthy development was the publication of Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language* in 1755. Robert Lowth's *A Short Introduction to English Grammar with Critical Notes* appeared in 1762. It was a substitute to Lily's grammar. Lowth cited examples of 'bad English' in
the English used by eminent men such as Pope, Swift and Addison. This was followed by the publication of several grammars and dictionaries, prominent among them being Webster's Dictionary (1828). There was a great emphasis on the concept of correct grammar. Naturally, this led to the establishment of a number of grammar schools which led to the evolution of the grammar translation method.

3.3. Grammar-Translation Method.

A.P.R. Howatt's A History of English Language Teaching (1984) presents a sketch on the factors that contributed to the grammar-translation method. Howatt observes:

"The grammar-translation method was devised and developed for use in secondary schools. It could be even called '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 favoured methodology of the Prussian Gymnasien .... The origins of the method do not lie in an attempt to teach languages by grammar translation, these were taken for granted anyway. The original motivation was reformist. The traditional scholastic approach among individual learners in the eighteenth century had been to acquire a reading knowledge of foreign languages by studying a grammar and applying this knowledge to the interpretation
of texts with the use of a dictionary.... The grammar translation method was an attempt to adopt these traditions to the circumstances and requirements of schools. It preserved the basic framework of grammar and translation because they were already familiar both to teachers and pupils from their classical studies." (A.P.R. Howatt 1984:130). As pointed out by Krishnaswamy, Verma and Nagarajan (1992) a parallel can be found in India. All language studies were based on the Kaavya (literature) - Vyakarna (grammar) tradition. All classical languages such as Sanskrit, Tamil, Persian were also studied using grammar and translation techniques for learning languages. When the question of teaching European languages such as French and English was taken up in India, the grammar translation method found a natural acceptance in our country, since the Indian tradition and the European tradition were in perfect agreement with each other.

It is worth pointing out here that in the grammar translation method, generally grammar was sentence based and translation was text-based/discourse based and perhaps there was no theory to link up these two and call it a method. Ollendorf employed a technique of making a brief presentation of grammar points. He followed it up with extensive translation practice. His language courses (1840) were quite popular. Ollendorf's method was praised by contemporaries as an active, simple and effective method, because as soon as a rule had been presented it was applied
Ahn (1796-1895), Claude Marcel (1793-1876) and several others used translation exercises at the sentence level. A sound knowledge of grammar and skills of translation were considered important to the study of literary works.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, the grammar translation method got tied up in a number of rules, exceptions, archaisms and such other things. There was no feeling for the people who used the language. The communicative needs in the changing contexts were totally ignored. Spoken language was not given due credence. Underplaying the spoken language use, regimentation with regard to academic activities, a new group of learners outside the grammar school system, industrialisation and mass communication paved the way for the Reform Movement in the late nineteenth century.

3.4 The Reform Movement

The establishment of International Phonetic Association (IPA), the publication of its journal, Henry Sweet's The Practical Study of Languages (1899), and efforts of a host of reformers like Jacotot, Marcel and others resulted in the Reform Movement. Importance to speech, connected text and an oral methodology in the classroom arose out of a strong resistance to the rigid rules of grammar-translation method. Henry Sweet's The Practical Study of Languages (1899) contains chapters on the teaching of phonetics and the spoken languages, principles of methodology, covering
grammar, vocabulary, the study of texts, translation and conversation. Otto Jespersen's *How to Teach a Foreign Language* (1904) recommends contextualised materials for the learners. The reform movement was referred to by various names like the reform method, the natural method, the phonetic method etcetera, the most important being the direct method.

The direct method does not encourage the use of translation. The major principles of this method are:

i. All classroom instructions are to be given only in the target language.

ii. Only day-to-day vocabulary and sentences are to be taught.

iii. Oral communication skills are to be built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question and answer exchanges between teachers and learners in small intensive classes.

iv. Grammar is to be taught inductively.

v. New teaching points are to be introduced orally.

vi. Concrete vocabulary is to be taught through demonstration; objects, pictures are to be used; abstract vocabulary is to be taught through association of ideas.

vii. Both speech and listening comprehension are to be taught.
Correct pronunciation is to be emphasized.

Titone (1968) lists the guidelines used by Maximilian Berlitz (1852-1921) in the U.S. Schools:

Never explain

Never make a speech : ask questions
Never imitate mistakes : correct
Never speak with single words: use sentences
Never speak too much : make students speak much
Never use the book : use your lesson plan
Never go too fast : keep the pace of the student
Never speak too slowly : speak normally
Never speak too quickly : speak naturally
Never be impatient : make it easy

Stern (1983) observes that, linguistically, language teaching was to be based on phonetics and on scientifically established coherent grammar. The learning of languages was viewed as analogous to the first language acquisition. It demanded inventiveness on the part of the teachers and led to the development of new non-translational techniques of language instruction. The use of a text as a basis of language learning, demonstrations of pictures and objects, the emphasis on questions and answers, spoken narratives, dictation, imitation and a host of new types of grammatical exercises have resulted from the direct method. Harold E.
Palmer and A.S. Hornby, among others adopted the principles of direct method during the 1920's and 1930s. However, there were some disadvantages in the direct method.

i. If one is to avoid the use of the first language, there may be a confusion or misunderstanding while conveying information.

ii. Resources of the first language remained unexploited and the exclusion of the mother tongue resulted in very complicated ways of explaining simple things. This resulted in very elaborate procedures on the use of too many visual aids.

iii. The direct method cannot be employed to teach adults who need not follow rigid procedures.

iv. The direct method was getting more and more culture bound.

A number of books during the first half of this century appeared on language teaching methodology. Daniel Jones's The Pronunciation of English (1909). The English Pronouncing Dictionary (1917), and An Outline of English Phonetics (1918) were published. Harold E. Palmer published materials based on the Direct Method. The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages (1921), The Principles of Language Study, (1921) and a number of course books such as English Through Questions and Answers (1930) appeared. Michael West, who investigated extensively in Bengal, India, published The New Method Grammar (1938), The New Method English Practice Books (3Vols.) (1939) and a number of New
Method Readers. Lawrence Fancet's *The Oxford English Course* (1993) was a course package.

Michael West's *General Service List of English Words* appeared in 1953. A.S. Hornby's *An Advanced learner's Dictionary of Current English* (1952), *A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English* (1954), and *The Teaching of Structural Words and Sentence Patterns* (1959-66) (a set of four books), Pit Corder's books including *Introducing Linguistics* were brought out. A number of phoneticians and language teachers published a number of books.

3.5 Principles of Linguistics and Psychology for Language Teaching

Across the Atlantic, around the same time, a number of developments took place. The first English Language Institute was established in 1939 with Charles Fries as its director. American Structuralism stemming out of Bloomfield's *Language* (1933) influenced the language teaching theory. A number of linguists followed the Bloomfieldian tradition. Charles Fries, Robert Lado, Kenneth Pike, Eugene Nider, Zellig Harries, H.A. Gleason and Charles Hockett greatly influenced the methods adopted in America. Charles Fries demonstrated how the sound system, the structures and the lexical items could be divided from available linguistic knowledge and used for teaching languages. He also wanted a fair description of the languages to be studied and also the learners' native languages. Based on the principles of contrastive
linguistics, the English Language Institute produced some language courses, for Chinese and Latin - American learners. Robert Lado, the author of Linguistics Across Cultures (1951) who succeeded Fries as the director of the institute, applied the principles of contrastive linguistics to curriculum design, instructional materials development and evaluation of teaching materials and diagnosis of learning problems.

The writings of Fries, Lado and others influenced by Bloomfieldian thinking, the American Military language programme, the language laboratory and the insights provided by behaviouristic psychology based on B.F. Skinner's Verbal Behaviour (1957) contributed to the development of the audiolingual theory.

The audiolingual method born of Bloomfieldian linguistics and the Skinnerian model of learning has the following guiding principles:

i. Language is speech, not writing.

ii. A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say.

iii. Languages are different, they have similarities and differences which can be systematically studied.

iv. Language is behaviour and behaviour is a mechanical skill and no intellectual process is involved in it. Because it is mechanical, the linguistic behaviour can be conditioned.
So, in teaching a language, the teacher should follow the stimulus-response-reinforcement pattern; in language teaching, there should be controlled, spaced repetition.

v. Teach language, not about language.

Language was described by linguists at three levels, namely, phonology, the study of sounds, morphology, the study of words, and syntax, the study of sentences.

Audiolingualism advocated the separation of the four skills, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing (LSRW). Some of the techniques employed by the audiolingual method included mimicry, memorization, pattern practice and the language laboratory. Dialogues and substitution tables were strongly recommended. The principles of scientific approach to the study and teaching of languages, preparing materials based on frequency counts of words and structures, emphasis on Selection, Gradation and Presentation and behaviouristic principles contributed to the Structural Approach. Within this approach, there were several methods such as the audiolingual method, the audiovisual method developed in France based on visual presentations, the bilingual method of Dodson (1967) and the reading method. Presentation, establishment and classroom procedures are techniques. The audiolingual method is only an advanced version of the direct method. The salient features of the audio-lingual method are
i. Language teaching begins with spoken language; the material is taught orally before it is presented in written form.

ii. The target language is the language of the classroom.

iii. New language points are introduced and practised situationally.

iv. Vocabulary selection procedures are followed to ensure that an essential service vocabulary is covered.

v. Items of grammar are graded following the principle that simple forms should be taught before complex ones.

vi. Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient lexical and grammatical basis is established.


Chomsky felt that language acquisition could not take place through habit formation because language was far too complex to be learnt so easily. Chomsky argued that some innate abilities that humans possessed were capable of handling the basic structures of the language. Added to
this was man's ability to create and comprehend utterances which they could not have possibly encountered in language spoken to them. Errors such as eated and sleeped were common in children's speech. They only indicated that children did not just repeat what was taught to them. Even adults learning a second language made such mistakes. Pit Corder (1967) in his article "The Significance of Learners Errors", suggested that learners normally generated their own built in syllabus. "The learners' language was termed an Interlanguage by Selinker (1972) as it was a stage between the first language and learning a second language. Interlanguage was considered a desirable feature in the learners' second language learning process.

The objections to Bloomfieldian and Skinnerian assumptions opened up newer issues. They may be broadly classified as:

i. Language is not behaviour; the use of language is more like writing a play than performing one; language learning is a process of creative construction that involves cognition and interaction.

ii. Any behaviour is controlled by cognitive processes; skills are actions which are originally voluntary and which later become automatic.

iii. Practice without understanding the basic principles will be meaningless just as the
description of a language without meaning is meaningless; mere repetition tends to weaken understanding.

iv. Teaching is not conditioning but creating conditions for learning; to learn is to learn the valid generalisation, discriminations and relationships because language is a related system of categories and classes. And learning of any sort is largely a matter of growth and maturation of relatively fixed capacities, under appropriate external conditions.

v. Languages do differ but they also have a great deal in common; and learning a second language is always in some measure repeating an old experience.

vi. Errors are not something to be avoided, but welcome signs that show learners are actively testing hypotheses; the first language is not a source of interference, but a source of hypothesis-formation about how the other language functioned. (Krishnaswamy, Verma, Nagarajan 1992:210)

Thus, language learning was considered a cognitive, mentalistic process. Individual learners learnt languages on their own. With this kind of shift the role of the learner and the factors that affected learning were
seriously considered, namely, social, motivational, affective, experiential, instrumental, biological, cognitive and other factors such as aptitude and personality traits.

According to Chomsky, language learning is solely a process of rule formation. Second language researchers working within the framework of Universal Grammar (Chomsky's Universal Grammar as part of Government and Binding theory, 1981) have shifted to exploring the notion that rule learning involves setting or fixing the parameters of principles of universal grammar in a manner consistent with the data of a particular language. However, there are other researchers like Schmidt who think that the role of imitation has not been given due importance. After all learners have memorized set phrases while greeting others or while taking leave of some one.

The Chomskyan revolution changed the directions in linguistics and psychology at the theoretical and research level. But it had no bearing on the classroom instruction. The transformational-generative grammarians (TG) too emphasized on sentence level syntax and mechanical transformations.

3.6 From Linguistic Competence to Communicative Competence

In 1966, Dell Hymes brought in the concept of communicative competence while the British applied linguists, D.A. Wilkins, Henry Widdowson, Christopher
Candlin, Christopher Brumfit, Keith Johnson and others felt
the need to recognize the functional and communicative
aspects of language. These applied linguists were mainly
drawing on the work already done by functional linguists
like J.R. Firth and M.A.K. Halliday. The goal of language
instruction changed to be building up the learner's
communicative competence. It was felt that there are rules
of use, without which rules of grammar would be useless.
Widdowson (1978) brought in a distinction between
grammatical rules of usage that enable users to construct
correct sentences and the use of language to accomplish some
kind of communicative purpose. The need to integrate socio-
linguistic principles with language teaching exercise was
emphasised.

The European Economic Community (EEC) had a decisive
role to play in the preparation of syllabuses and teaching
materials. The need to teach adults major languages of the
European Community opened up their common market. The Coun-
cil of Europe was entrusted with the task of identifying
syllabuses and materials. Wilkins' Notional Syllabus cen-
tered round functional principles. The courses were
designed around the uses or functions to which language is
put. Lessons can be prepared to request for information, to
express gratitude, to apologize and a number of other func-
tions. The structural patterns remained but they were
ordered differently according to their functions. Var. Ek
and Alexander (1975) formulated concrete objectives in their
threshold level series. Widdowson feels that the functional-notional approach has brought about major changes in foreign language teaching, namely the shift in emphasis towards communicative aspects of language teaching. But he rejects Wilkins' claim that it takes communicative facts of the language into account. Widdowson (1979) adds that communication does not take place through the linguistic exponent of concepts and functions on self-contained units of meaning. It takes place as discourse, whereby meanings are negotiated through interaction. The interactional viewpoint emphasizes the role of interpersonal relations - for transaction among individuals.

Applied linguists Krashen and Terrel (1983) felt that language exercises should be designed on topics such as family, office, airport and situations such as attending a job interview or consulting a doctor. Krashen's Monitor Model (1981) is a good example to cite where both 'processes' and 'conditions' meet because of the focus on the semantic aspects of language.

3.7 Language Acquisition Versus Learning.

We cannot use a language unless we learn the rules and we can learn the rules only through using the language. It is really a kind of paradox. But Krashen Monitor Model of second language development (1981) presents a dichotomy, namely an 'acquired system' which is sub-conscious and a 'learned system' which is conscious. Krashen is of the opinion that adult language learners have independent
systems for developing ability in a second language -
acquisition (sub-conscious) and learning (conscious).
Acquisition means learning the languages naturally and
Krashen calls this method "the natural method". He further
states that conscious learning is available to the learner
only as a Monitor. Krashen enlists three conditions
for the Monitor to operate:

a) the availability of sufficient time,
b) focus of attention of language form or correctness
   as against meaning and

 c) knowledge of relevant grammatical rules.

The time condition is a necessary one, but not
sufficient without 'focus' which is an all important
necessary condition. The 'comprehensible input' of Krashen
implies that sufficient quantity of exposure is the
condition for the process of acquisition to take place.

Krashen rejects memorization through conscious effort.
His model makes use of 'processes' (such as habit formation,
generalization, hypothesis testing) and 'conditions' (the
physical conditions conducive for learning to take place).

The procedural syllabus (Prabhu and Carrol 1980) be-
lieves that learners learn language through the performance
of certain tasks and activities.

3.8 Types of Syllabuses

The shift from linguistic competence to communicative
competence resulted in the design of a variety of syllabuses
### Syllabus Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syllabus Type</th>
<th>Names associated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Functional</td>
<td>Jump and Hodlin (1975)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural-Functional</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>Interational</td>
<td>Widdowson (1979)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional-spiral</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>around a structural core</td>
<td>Brumfit (1980)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural, functional</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>instrumental</td>
<td>Alen (1980)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competency based</td>
<td>Grogent and Cradall (1982)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task based</td>
<td>Prabhu (1982)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All these syllabuses follow a communicative approach and apparently are far from the structural approach or the audiolingual method.

In a nutshell, the communicative approach believes that the learner's motivation levels will be increased if they feel they are working on communicative skills; the advocates of the communicative approach assert that a language is learnt effectively when the focus is not on language but on communicative activities. Learners learn better by communicating and interacting with their teachers and peers.

Language testing has not kept pace with the development in language teaching. Any language teaching technique can also be used as a testing technique. Tests are
traditionally used to make pass-fail decisions. It will be better to view tests in language instruction as part of classroom management. Language testing within the framework of the communicative approach can open up a number of possibilities. A variety of testing procedures reflecting the wide ranging uses of language can be thought of. For instance, changing the mode of narration can be an interesting exercise. Applied linguists must evolve integrated tests that will test the learner's communicative competence instead of testing language skills (LSRW).

The teachers are normally carried away by the methods and techniques and they want to adopt an eclectic approach but they have not found a solution to the problem of combining these approaches. Mackey pointed out:

Such terms as the 'Direct Method', the Simplification Method', 'the Situation Method', 'the Natural Method', 'the Film Method', the Conversational Method', the 'Oral Method', 'the Linguistic Method', can only be vague and inadequate because they limit themselves to a single aspect of a complex subject, inferring that that aspect alone is all that matters.

(Mackey 1965 :156).

Michael Swan (1985) in his article in the ELT Journal, "A Critical Look at the Communicative Approach" says:

During the last few years, under the influence
of the Communicative Approach, language teaching seems to have made great progress. Syllabus design has become a good deal more sophisticated, and we are able to give our students a better and more complete picture than before of how language is used. In methodology, the change has been dramatic. The boring and mechanical exercise-types which were so common ten or fifteen years ago have virtually disappeared, to be replaced by a splendid variety of exciting and engaging practice activities. All this is very positive. And yet... a dogma remains a dogma, and in this respect the "communicative revolution" is little different from its predecessors in the language teaching field... Along with its many virtues, the Communicative Approach has most of the typical vices of an intellectual revolution; it over-generalizes valid but limited insights until they become virtually meaningless; it makes exaggerated claims for the power and novelty of its doctrines; it misrepresents the currents of thoughts it has replaced; it is often characterized by serious intellectual confusion; it is choked with jargon (Michael Swan 1985:9)
3.9 Language Pedagogy: Post-structuralists' Point of View

Post-structuralist thinkers have taken a critical look at the distinctions made in language teaching. To quote Krishnaswamy, Verma and Nagarajan.

They have subverted all the binary distinctions and dichotomies that are found in the field - language and literature, speech and writing, reading and writing, context and text. Phonocentrism and logocentrism have been under attack; Derrida has argued that speech is a form of writing and that the text is a gas. (Krishnaswamy, Verma and Nagarajan 1992: 218)

Post-structuralist thinking does not believe in reading a text objectively. As the meaning goes beyond the circularity of signifiers, there cannot be determinate comprehension of a text. Barthes observes (1987) that reading is the projection and fulfilment of individual desire in the interpretation of the text.

Reader-Response theories state that we are meaning breathing animals and that we breathe meaning into the text. It is also believed by some post-structuralist thinkers that reading and writing join hands, change places and finally become distinguishable only as two names for the same activity. That is, language teaching/testing must take place as an integrated process and not as isolated individual skills such as LSRW. Several such notions
question the well established perceptions and practices.

A number of humanistic approaches like Caleb Gattegno's Silent Way (1972) which helps learners develop their own 'inner criteria', Georgia Lozanov's Suggestopedia (1978) which advocates a child-like role for the learners to make them feel secure and less inhibited, Ashar's (1982) the Total Physical Response Approach and Krashen's (1983) the Natural Approach are some of the competing approaches that are innovative.

In the light of these developments one cannot follow any methodological prescription. Teachers can build up their own resources and get educated and not just trained.

3.10 Impact of the Theoretical Precepts in India

In India a number of factors affect the language teaching activity. The problem of training teachers of English in India has been discussed in almost every forum of English teachers. Millions of learners want to learn English and the resources are very limited.

In India too, grammar-translation method was followed almost till 1915. The focus was on the teaching of grammar and literature. There was no method followed between 1915 and 1955. The Direct Method came into existence under the influence of Henry Sweet, Michael West, Palmer, P.C. Wren, Jespersen and others. Soon there was a great emphasis on pre-service training for school level teaching. There was no provision for in-service training at the tertiary level.
The details of other developments have already been discussed in Chapter-II.

With this background in view, English language courses need to be planned, taking into account the learner's needs and the societal needs.