

Міністерство освіти і науки України
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Курята Ю. В.

Theoretical Guide on English Methodology. Module2. Unit 2.1.
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«Підготовка до вчителювання 1». Розділ «Напрями та методи
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навчання мови».

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Посібник з теорії методики навчання англійської мови. Модуль «Підготовка до вчителювання 1». Розділ «Напрями та методи викладання англійської мови. Принципи комунікативного навчання мови». Навчально-методичний посібник для студентів другого курсу спеціальності 014 Середня освіта (Мова і література (англійська)) / Укладач: Курята Ю.В. – Рівне, РДГУ, 2021. – 54 с.

Укладач: Курята Ю. В. – кандидат психологічних наук, доцент кафедри практики англійської мови

Рецензенти:

- к.пед.н., доц., завідувач кафедри іноземних мов Міжнародного економіко-гуманітарного університету імені академіка Степана Дем'янука Кочмар Діана Анатоліївна

- к.педагог.н., доцент кафедри практики англійської мови РДГУ Фрідріх А.В.

Відповідальний за випуск:

Михальчук Н.О. – доктор психологічних наук, завідувач кафедри практики англійської мови РДГУ

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE

By the end of the methodology module “Approaches and methods in English language teaching. Principles of Communicative language teaching” students must be aware of the most significant changes in ELT methodology and their causes, the main approaches and methods in language teaching and techniques associated with them, the views on language, language learning and the roles of teachers and learners that underpin CLT, the key distinguishing features and principles of CLT in the classroom, the characteristics which make a task communicative, the ways to create conditions and facilities for CLT in an English language classroom and must be able to reflect on their own experience of learning a foreign language and analyze tasks and lesson plans in terms of CLT.

The main learning outcome of the module lies in the students’ ability to identify features of different approaches and methods in classroom materials and procedures.

The content of the module embraces methods and approaches in ELT; the main principles and features of CLT (language as a means of communication, teaching language in a meaningful context (specifying notions, functions, functional exponents based on the learners’ needs analysis), priority meaning over form, focus on skills, task-based learning, focus on sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence as well as linguistic competence, the correlation between accuracy and fluency, the role of grammar, errors as learning steps, the roles of a teacher and a learner); characteristics of a communicative task; implications of the communicative approach for classroom practice (creating conditions for communication in the classroom).

To enable the students to reach the above mentioned goals it is necessary to provide them with sufficient tools not only for efficient work at the sessions but for independent work as well. Thus, this tutorial aims at providing students with a possibility to get chrestomathy of the material and do practical assignments as an individual kind of work for additional grades and getting a deeper insight into the module content.

SESSION 1. Grammar-Translation, Direct and Audio-Lingual Methods.

Chrestomathy.

Pre-Twentieth Century Trends

Prior to the twentieth century, language teaching methodology vacillated between two types of approaches: *getting learners to use a language* (i.e., to speak and understand it) versus *getting learners to analyze a language* (i.e., to learn its grammatical rules).

Both *the classical Greek* and *medieval Latin periods* were characterized by an emphasis on teaching people to use foreign languages. The classical languages, first Greek and then Latin, were used as *lingua franca*. Higher learning was conducted primarily through these languages all over Europe. They were used widely in philosophy, religion, politics, and business. Thus the educated elite became fluent speakers, readers, and writers of the appropriate classical language. We can assume that the teachers or tutors used informal and more or less direct approaches to convey the form and meaning of the language they were teaching and that they used oral techniques with no language textbooks per se, but rather a small stock of hand-copied written manuscripts of some sort, perhaps a few texts in the target language, or crude dictionaries that listed equivalent words in two or more languages side by side.

During *the Renaissance*, the formal study of the grammars of Greek and Latin became popular through the mass production of books made possible by the invention of the printing press. This occurred at about the same time that Latin began to be abandoned as a *lingua franca*. (No one was speaking classical Latin anymore, and various European vernaculars had begun to rise in respectability and popularity.) Thus, in retrospect, strange as it may seem, the Renaissance preoccupation with the formal study of classical Latin may have contributed to the demise of Latin as a *lingua franca* in Western Europe.

Since the European vernaculars had grown in prestige and utility, it is not surprising that people in one country or region began to find it necessary and useful to learn the language of another country or region. Thus the focus in language study shifted back to utility rather than analysis during *the seventeenth century*. Perhaps the most famous language teacher and methodologist of this period is Johann Amos Comenius, a Czech scholar and teacher, who published books about his teaching techniques between 1631 and 1658.

Comenius, perhaps for the first time, made explicit an inductive approach to learning a foreign language, the goal of which was to teach use rather than analysis of the language being taught.

Comenius's views held sway for some time; however, by *the beginning of the nineteenth century*, the systematic study of the grammar of classical Latin and of classical texts had once again taken over in schools and universities throughout Europe.

Grammar-Translation Method (Classical Method)

Grammar-Translation method originated from the practice of teaching Latin; in the early 1500s, students learned Latin for communication, but after the language died out it was studied purely as an academic discipline. In the mid 19th century the method was adopted for teaching modern languages by German scholars such as **Karl Plötz** and **Johann Seidenstücker**, and it quickly spread to classrooms throughout Europe and the United States.

As it has been mentioned above, Latin and Ancient Greek are known as “dead” languages, based on the fact that people no longer speak them for the purpose of interactive communication. Yet they are still acknowledged as important languages to learn (especially Latin) for the purpose of gaining access to classical literature, and up until fairly recently, for the kinds of grammar training that led to the *mental dexterity* considered so important in any higher education study stream.

Latin has been studied for centuries, with the prime objectives of learning how to read classical Latin texts, understanding the fundamentals of grammar and translation, and gaining insights into some important foreign influences Latin has had on the development of other European languages. The method used to teach it overwhelmingly bore those objectives in mind, and came to be known (appropriately!) as the *Classical Method*, which is now more commonly known in Foreign Language Teaching circles as the *Grammar Translation Method*.

It is worth looking at the objectives, features and typical techniques commonly associated with the Grammar Translation Method, in order to both understand how it works and why it has shown such tenacity as an acceptable (even recommended or respected) language teaching philosophy in many countries and institutions around the world.

There are two main goals for grammar-translation classes:

- to develop students' reading ability to a level where they can read literature in the target language and

- to develop students' general mental discipline.

Speaking and listening are overlooked.

Grammar-translation classes are usually conducted in the students' native language. Grammar rules are learned deductively; students learn grammar rules by rote and then practice the rules by doing grammar drills and translating sentences to and from the target language. More attention is paid to the form of the sentences being translated than to their content. When students reach more advanced levels of achievement, they may translate entire texts from the target language. Tests often consist of the translation of classical texts.

The mainstay of classroom materials for the grammar-translation method is the textbook. Textbooks attempted to codify the grammar of the target language into discrete rules for students to learn and memorize. A chapter in a typical grammar-translation textbook would begin with a bilingual vocabulary list, after which there would be grammar rules for students to study and sentences for them to translate.

Typical Techniques

- 1) Translation of a literary passage (*translating target language into native language*).
- 2) Reading comprehension questions (*finding information in a passage, making inferences and relating to personal experience*).
- 3) Antonyms/synonyms (*finding antonyms and synonyms for words or sets of words*.)
- 4) Cognates (*learning spelling/sound patterns that correspond between L1 and the target language*).
- 5) Deductive application of rule (*understanding grammar rules and their exceptions, then applying them to new examples*).
- 6) Fill-in-the-blanks (*filling in gaps in sentences with new words or items of a particular grammar type*).
- 7) Memorization (*memorizing vocabulary lists, grammatical rules and grammatical paradigms*).
- 8) Use words in sentences (*students create sentences to illustrate they know the meaning and use of new words*).

(From Diane Larsen-Freeman, Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching, 1986)

Many people who have undertaken foreign language learning at high schools or universities even in the past 10 years or so may remember many of the teaching techniques listed above for the Grammar Translation Method. They may also recall that the language learning experience was

uninspiring, rather boring, or even left them with a sense of frustration when they traveled to countries where the language was used only to find they couldn't understand what people were saying and struggled mightily to express themselves at the most basic level.

Very few modern language teaching experts would be quick to say that this is an effective language teaching method, and fewer would dare to try and assert that it results in any kind of communicative competence. And yet the Grammar Translation Method is still common in many countries - even popular. Brown attempts to explain why the method is still employed by pointing out that "It requires few specialized skills on the part of teachers. Tests of grammar rules and of translations are easy to construct and can be objectively scored. Many standardized tests of foreign languages still do not attempt to tap into communicative abilities, so students have little motivation to go beyond grammar analogies, translations, and rote exercises." (1994:53)

Direct Method (Natural Method)

Towards the end of the late 1800s, a revolution in language teaching philosophy took place that is seen by many as the dawn of modern foreign language teaching. Teachers, frustrated by the limits of the Grammar Translation Method in terms of its inability to create communicative competence in students, began to experiment with new ways of teaching language. Basically, teachers began attempting to teach foreign languages in a way that was more similar to first language acquisition. It incorporated techniques designed to address all the areas that the Grammar Translation did not - namely oral communication, more spontaneous use of the language, and developing the ability to think in the target language. Perhaps in an almost reflexive action, the method also moved as far away as possible from various techniques typical of the Grammar Translation Method - for instance using L1 as the language of instruction, memorizing grammatical rules and lots of translation between L1 and the target language.

The appearance of the "Direct Method" thus coincided with a new school of thinking that dictated that all foreign language teaching should occur in the target language only, with no translation and an emphasis on linking *meaning* to the language being learned. The method became very popular during *the first quarter of the 20th century*, especially in private language schools in Europe where highly motivated students could study

new languages and not need to travel far in order to try them out and apply them communicatively.

One of the most famous advocates of the Direct Method was the German **Charles Berlitz**, whose schools and Berlitz Method are now world-renowned. So, *it was adopted by key international language schools such as Berlitz and Inlingua in the 1970s and many of the language departments of the Foreign Service Institute of the U.S. State Department in 2012.*

Direct method of teaching languages aims to build a direct way into the world of the target language making a relation between experience and language, word and idea, thought and expression, rule and performance. It intends for students to learn how to communicate in the target language.

This method is based on the assumption that the learner should experience the new language in the same way as he/she experienced his/her mother tongue without considering the existence of his/her mother tongue.

No translation is used. Concepts are taught by means of objects or by natural contexts through the mental and physical skills of the teacher only. Oral training helps in reading and writing listening and speaking simultaneously. Grammar is taught indirectly through the implication of the situation creation.

Typical Techniques

- 1) Reading aloud (*reading sections of passages, plays or dialogs out loud*).
- 2) Question and answer exercise (*asking questions in the target language and having students answer in full sentences*).
- 3) Student self-correction (*teacher facilitates opportunities for students to self correct using follow-up questions, tone, etc*).
- 4) Conversation practice (*teacher asks students and students ask students questions using the target language*).
- 5) Fill-in-the-blank exercise (*items use target language only and inductive rather than explicit grammar rules*).
- 6) Dictation (*teacher reads passage aloud various amount of times at various tempos, students writing down what they hear*).
- 7) Paragraph writing (*students write paragraphs in their own words using the target language and various models*).

(From Diane Larsen-Freeman, Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching, 1986)

The Direct Method is undoubtedly a highly effective method in terms of creating language learners who are very competent in terms of using the target language *communicatively*. However, *it requires small*

class sizes, motivated learners and talented teachers in order to succeed really well. It is also an unfortunate fact of life that students of foreign languages these days need more than just the ability to communicate confidently - they need to be able to demonstrate grammatical accuracy and good reading skills in order to succeed in both national and international language testing systems. It becomes something of an issue in countries where English language learning is primarily EFL-based (that is, English as a Foreign Language) and there is a distinct shortage of both (1) the opportunity to apply the language communicatively in real-life situations outside the actual classroom, and (2) teachers who have the required level of native or native-like ability in the target language and the creativity to provide realistic examples to illustrate what elements of the language actually mean.

There is a fundamental flaw to the Direct Approach that has nothing to do with ensuring the students achieve a sufficient level of proficiency in English structure and reading. Like many other “modern” language teaching methods that preceded the “communicative approach”, the Direct Method contains nothing in its essential theory and principles that deals with the learners themselves - cognitive and affective principles orientated around stepping into the boots of the students and looking out at the strange and confusing landscape of the foreign language they are asking (or being asked) to learn.

The Direct Method was an important turning point in the history of foreign language teaching, and represented a step away from the Grammar Translation Method that was progressive and heading in the right direction. The method should be viewed in exactly this way - not a bad way to teach but a long way short of the big picture modern language teaching methodology is attempting to achieve.

Audio-Lingual Method

Audiolingualism came about as a result of a number of developments in linguistics, psychology, and politics. In the 1940s, linguists at the University of Michigan and other universities were engaged in developing materials for teaching English to foreign students studying in the U.S. Their approach, based on structural linguistics, relied on a contrastive analysis of the students’ native language and the target language, which they believed would identify potential problems in language learning. Lessons consisted of intensive oral drilling of grammatical patterns and pronunciation. The

approach became known variously as the Oral Approach, the Aural-Oral Approach, or the Structural Approach.

At approximately the same time, the United States was drawn into World War II and needed personnel who were fluent in foreign languages. Upon finding a lack of Americans with sufficient language skills, in 1942 the U.S. government developed the Army Specialized Training Program, an oral-based program based on intensive drilling and study. The success of this program convinced a number of prominent linguists of the value of an intensive oral approach to language learning. Most American schools and universities, however, continued to employ the Grammar-Translation Method or the Reading Method well into the 1950s.

In 1957 Russia launched Sputnik, the first artificial satellite, causing the U.S. government to become concerned about Americans' isolation from scientific advances in foreign countries due to their lack of proficiency in foreign languages. The National Defense Education Act of 1958 provided funds for developing foreign language teaching materials and training teachers, and language teaching specialists set about developing new teaching methods. They drew upon the earlier Structural Approach and the Army program, as well as on principles of behaviorist psychology. The new approach, which Yale professor **Nelson Brooks** dubbed *audio-lingual*, claimed to have transformed language teaching into a science.

The Audiolingual Method (ALM) was widely adopted in the U.S. and Canada and served as the principal approach to foreign language teaching in the 1960s. The method's decline in the late 1960s and early 1970s was brought about by two factors. First, linguist Noam Chomsky questioned the theoretical basis for the method. Second, some language teachers and students experienced frustration with the method's avoidance of grammar explanations, its heavy emphasis on rote memorization and drilling, and its failure to produce conversational ability in the foreign language. These developments led to the eventual abandonment of the method, although some of its practices, such as dialogue learning and pattern drills, continue to be used in some foreign language programs.

ALM incorporated many of the features typical of the earlier Direct Method, but the disciplines of descriptive linguistics and behavioral psychology added the concepts of teaching linguistic patterns in combination with something generally referred to as "habit-forming". This method was one of the first to have its roots "firmly grounded in linguistic and psychological theory" (Brown 1994:57), which apparently added to its

credibility and probably had some influence in the popularity it enjoyed over a long period of time. It also had a major influence on the language teaching methods that were to follow and can still be seen in major or minor manifestations of language teaching methodology even to this day.

Another factor that accounted for the method's popularity was the quick success it achieved in leading learners towards communicative competence. Through extensive mimicry, memorization and over-learning of language patterns and forms, students and teachers were often able to see immediate results. This was both its strength and its failure in the long run, as critics began to point out that *the method did not deliver in terms of producing long-term communicative ability*.

Just as with the Direct Method that preceded it, the overall goal of the Audiolingual Method was to create *communicative* competence in learners. However, it was thought that the most effective way to do this was for students to “overlearn” the language being studied through extensive repetition and a variety of elaborate drills. The idea was to project the linguistic patterns of the language (based on the studies of structural linguists) into the minds of the learners in a way that made responses automatic and “habitual”. To this end it was held that the language “habits” of the first language would constantly interfere, and the only way to overcome this problem was to facilitate the learning of a new set of “habits” appropriate linguistically to the language being studied.

Audiolingualism views language as a set of structures, including phonemes, morphemes, and syntax, the patterns of which can be deduced by analysing the language used by native speakers. The Audio-lingual syllabus is organized around these linguistic structures, which are represented in dialogues and pattern drills.

A second tenet of audiolingualism is that language is primarily an oral phenomenon, in as much as all natural languages first developed orally, and children learn their first language orally before learning its written form. Thus, the Audio-lingual Method teaches listening and speaking before reading and writing. Exposing beginning students to the written language is avoided in the belief that seeing the written word interferes with developing correct pronunciation habits. Reading and writing are introduced later, and consist primarily of material that was first learned orally.

The learning theory underlying the Audio-lingual Method is behaviorism, a prominent school of psychological thought in the first half of the twentieth century.

A typical Audio-lingual lesson begins with a dialogue, which is presented either from a recording or verbally by the teacher, often accompanied by drawings to illustrate the meaning. Lines from the dialogue are memorized one by one, with students repeating each line in chorus. When a pair of lines is learned, the teacher asks half of the class to repeat the first line, and the other half to respond by repeating the second line. The same procedure is repeated with rows of students and then with individual students.

When the dialogue has been memorized, the teacher leads students in adapting it to their own situation or interests by substituting words or phrases. Students repeat the dialogue with the new substitutions.

Sentences containing key linguistic structures are then extracted from the dialogue to form the basis for pattern drills of different types. The teacher reads a sentence and asks students to repeat it in unison. The teacher subsequently leads the students in drills based on the model sentence. Drills may include responding to questions, substituting new words or grammatical structures, negating affirmative sentences, or making morphological manipulations such as changing singular to plural, all according to the teacher's cues. These drills are first practiced in chorus and then individually. Any grammatical or pronunciation errors are corrected immediately by the teacher. Some grammatical explanation may be provided, but it is generally kept to a minimum.

Follow-up activities may consist of reading, writing, or vocabulary activities, which are based on the dialogue and sentences that have been practiced in class. If a language laboratory is available, students may do further drill work on structures and pronunciation using recordings of the dialogues and sentences.

Typical Techniques

- 1) Dialog Memorization (*students memorize an opening dialog using mimicry and applied role-playing*).
- 2) Backward Build-up (Expansion Drill) (*teacher breaks a line into several parts, students repeat each part starting at the end of the sentence and "expanding" backwards through the sentence, adding each part in sequence*).

- 3) Repetition Drill (*students repeat teacher's model as quickly and accurately as possible*).
- 4) Chain Drill (*students ask and answer each other one-by-one in a circular chain around the classroom*).
- 5) Single Slot Substitution Drill (*teacher states a line from the dialog, then uses a word or a phrase as a "cue" that students, when repeating the line, must substitute into the sentence in the correct place*).
- 6) Multiple-slot Substitution Drill (*same as the Single Slot drill, except that there are multiple cues to be substituted into the line*).
- 7) Transformation Drill (*teacher provides a sentence that must be turned into something else, for example a question to be turned into a statement, an active sentence to be turned into a negative statement, etc*).
- 8) Question-and-answer Drill (*students should answer or ask questions very quickly*).
- 9) Use of Minimal Pairs (*using contrastive analysis, teacher selects a pair of words that sound identical except for a single sound that typically poses difficulty for the learners - students are to pronounce and differentiate the two words*).
- 10) Complete the Dialogue (*selected words are erased from a line in the dialog - students must find and insert*).
- 11) Grammar Games (*various games designed to practice a grammar point in context, using lots of repetition*).

(From Diane Larsen-Freeman, Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching, 1986)

Just as with the Direct Method, the Audiolingual Method represents a major step in language teaching methodology that was still aimed squarely at communicative competence. A teacher that can use the method well will generally be able to create what appear to be very “productive” students. The extensive and elaborate drills designed to facilitate overlearning and good “language habit forming” were an innovative addition to the techniques used to practice language, and many of them are featured as essential parts of “communicative” methods that followed the Audiolingual Method.

The method’s original appearance under the name “The Army Method” is apt, and from it one ought not to be surprised that the method is all about highly controlled practice involving extensive repetition aimed at “habit forming”. If you can imagine a squad of new military recruits doing marching drills in the exercise yard, listening to the terse commands and repeating the movements in various combinations until they become second

nature and do not need to be “thought about”, then you have yourself an effective picture of how the Audiolingual Method essentially works and creates the desired result. The experts representing descriptive linguistics at that time can be seen as disseminating the patterns required to perform the various marching drills piece by piece, and the behavioral psychologists dictated the various ways for the drills to be repeated in order to create an effective habit-forming process.

The (however slightly simplified) picture presented above ought to also indicate to the modern, enlightened and eclectic language teacher the obvious ways in which the Audiolingual Method falls far short of the overall goal of creating sustainable long-term communicative competence in language learners. The linguistic principles upon which the theory was based emphasized surface forms of language and not the “deep structure”. Cognitive principles aimed at explaining how learners learn and develop independent concepts were to change considerably in the period following the Audiolingual Method.

Still, there are reasons why the method is still popular, and perhaps even appropriate in certain educational contexts. In countries where one of the prime objectives of learning English is to take and achieve successful results in a variety of tests, and where many learners are not intrinsically motivated to learn English but do so because they feel they have to, the method is not without merits. The term “practice makes perfect” was coined at a time when the concept of practice was synonymous with repetition, and if English is seen as just “another subject to be learned”, then the philosophy of repeating the required patterns until you get them right without needing to think about them does have a lot of supporters.

But it is important to stress that one of the key responsibilities of the modern day teacher of any discipline is to actively create and build intrinsic motivation in their learners, to empower them with the ability and confidence to “learn how to learn”, to develop a sense of responsibility for their own development, and to regard peers as possible sources of learning as well. They should also be encouraged to experiment with and formulate their own ongoing set of language rules, and to deduct through active independent application where and how the rules need to be adapted. The idea that errors are a natural and even necessary part of the learning process needs to be encouraged and supported. The Audiolingual Method does nothing to address those issues, and as a whole is little more than a very effective way of running highly teacher-orientated classrooms designed to

produce language users whose proficiency stems from some kind of “auto pilot” mentality.

There are ways in which the practice involved in the Audiolingual Method can be applied to approaches that have a bigger picture in mind. Audiolingual-based drills can be adapted and used in combination with effective error correction techniques to create an approach that is sensitive to affective factors, and can be followed up with techniques designed to create more independent experimentation and application. It cannot in any way be recommended as a holistic approach to language teaching, but there are certainly aspects and techniques from the method that are effective if used properly and in combination with an appropriate range of other activities.

Home task. Do you believe you will use any part of these methods in your classroom? If so, which? Why/Why not? Make notes and be ready to comment.

SESSION 2. Silent Way, Total Physical Response and Suggestopedia methods.

Chrestomathy.

Silent Way

In addition to affective theories relative to language learning, another challenge to the Audiolingual Method was under way already in the sixties in the form of the *Cognitive Code* and an educational trend known as “Discovery Learning.” These concepts most directly challenged the idea that language learning was all about mimicry and good habit-formation. An emphasis on human cognition in language learning addressed issues such as learners being more responsible for their own learning - formulating independent hypotheses about the rules of the target language and testing those hypotheses by applying them and realizing errors.

When students create their own sets of meaningful language rules and concepts and then test them out, they are clearly learning through a discovery/exploratory method that is very different from rote-learning. This appears to have much more in common with the way people learn their native language from a very early age, and can account for the

way children come out with new language forms and combinations which they have never heard before. The underlying principles here are that learners become increasingly autonomous in, active with and responsible for the learning process in which they are engaged.

Silent Way is a language-teaching method created by a math teacher **Caleb Gattegno** who was critical of the mainstream language education at the time, and he based the method on his general theories of education rather than on existing language pedagogy. It is usually regarded as an “alternative” language-teaching method, that makes extensive use of silence as a teaching method. Gattegno introduced the method in 1963. The method emphasizes learners’ autonomy and active students’ participation. Silence is used as a tool to achieve this goal; the teacher uses a mixture of silence and gestures to focus students’ attention, to elicit responses from them, and to encourage them to correct their own errors. Pronunciation is seen as fundamental to the method with a great deal of time spent on it each lesson. The Silent Way uses a structural syllabus and concentrates on teaching a small number of functional and versatile words. Translation and rote repetition are avoided, and the language is usually practiced in meaningful contexts. Evaluation is carried out by observation, and the teacher may never set a formal test.

Teachers using the Silent Way want their students to become highly independent and experimental learners. Making errors is a natural part of the process and a key learning device, as it is a sign that students are testing out their hypotheses and arriving at various conclusions about the language through a trial and error style approach. The teacher tries to facilitate activities whereby the students discover for themselves the conceptual rules governing the language, rather than imitating or memorizing them - Brown (1994:63) expresses this as being a process whereby “students construct conceptual hierarchies of their *own* which are a product of the time they have invested.”

In addition to the idea that students become more autonomous learners and “develop their own inner criteria for correctness” (Larsen Freeman, 1986:62), another key objective was to encourage students to work as a group - to try and solve problems in the target language together.

Principles:

- teachers should concentrate on how students learn, not on how to teach;
- learning consists of trial and error, deliberate experimentation, suspending judgement, and revising conclusions;

- in learning, learners draw on everything that they already know, especially their native language;
- the teacher must not interfere with the learning process;

These principles situate the Silent Way in the tradition of discovery learning that sees learning as a creative problem-solving activity.

The general goal of the Silent Way is to help beginning-level students gain basic fluency in the target language, with the ultimate aim being near-native language proficiency and good pronunciation.

The grammar is learned inductively.

The silent way makes use of specialized teaching materials: coloured Cuisenaire rods (wooden, come in ten different lengths, but identical cross-section; each length has its own assigned colour; at the beginning stages they can be used to practice colours and numbers, and later they can be used in more complex grammar, for example, to teach prepositions the teacher could use the statement “The blue rod is between the green one and the yellow one”), the sound-colour chart, word charts (twelve word charts in English, containing a total of around five hundred words), and Fidel charts (used to teach spelling).

Typical Techniques

- 1) Sound-color chart (*the teacher refers students to a color-coded wall chart depicting individual sounds in the target language - students use this to point out and build words with correct pronunciation*).
- 2) Teacher's silence (*teacher is generally silent, only giving help when it is absolutely necessary*).
- 3) Peer correction (*students are encouraged to help each other in a cooperative and not competitive spirit*).
- 4) Rods (*rods are used to trigger meaning, and to introduce or actively practice language. They can symbolize whatever words are being taught and be manipulated directly or abstractly to create sentences*).
- 5) Self-correction gestures (*teacher uses hands to indicate that something is incorrect or needs changing - eg. using fingers as words then touching the finger/word that is in need of correction*).
- 6) Word chart (*words are depicted on charts, the sounds in each word corresponding in color to the Sound-Color Chart described above - students use this to build sentences*).
- 7) Fidel chart (*a chart that is color-coded according to the sound-color chart but includes the various English spellings so that they can be directly related to actual sounds*).

8) Structured feedback (*students are invited to make observations about the day's lesson and what they have learned*).

(From Diane Larsen-Freeman, *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*, 1986)

Like almost all methods, this one has had its fair share of criticism. The method encourages the teacher to assume a distance that prevents him/her from providing direct guidance when at times such guidance would be helpful. It is criticized as being too focused on building structure, and misses out on cultural input through the language, and the silence of the teacher can prevent students from hearing many active models of correct usage that they may find useful. In trying to create a less teacher-orientated classroom, many say that the Silent Way goes too far to the opposite extreme.

Other problems are a little more practical in nature. Getting together the “classic SW” prerequisite materials can take a lot of time and money - there is the sound-color chart, 12 word charts each containing around 500 words, and 8 Fidel Charts for the English language alone. And don't forget the actual cuisinere rods as well! In order to maximize the learning potential of students using the Silent Way, teachers would have to be prepared to invest quite heavily in materials.

A lot can be taken from the method, however, if adapted and combined with elements from other methods. Viewing language learning as an “exploratory” process for students, of hypothesis building and trying out, is a very valuable teaching principle.

As of the XXI century, the Silent Way is only used by a small number of teachers. Their working conditions may be rather challenging, for example working with illiterate refugees.

Total Physical Response

In the 1960s, **James Asher** (a professor of psychology at San Jose State College) began experimenting with a method he called Total Physical Response.

Since its inception in the 1960s TPR has become widely known throughout the United States, Canada, and Europe. Asher claims that one-third to one-half of the linguistic input that young children hear is in the form of commands. Children respond to these commands physically, activating the right hemisphere of the brain, which is associated with motor movement. The right brain is thus able to internalize the new linguistic elements immediately, without a time-consuming analysis by the left brain, which is normally associated with language use. According to Asher, most

of the grammatical structure of the target language and hundreds of vocabulary items can be learned through the skilful use of the imperative by the instructor.

Asher emphasizes that because TPR taps into natural language learning processes, the stress associated with mental analysis of the target language is reduced, and learning becomes a more enjoyable experience.

In the classroom the teacher plays the role of a parent. He/she starts by saying a word ('jump') or a phrase ('look at the board') and demonstrating an action. The teacher then says the command and the students all do the action. After repeating a few times it is possible to extend this by asking the students to repeat the word as they do the action. When they feel confident with the word or phrase the teacher can then ask the students to direct each other or the whole class.

It is more effective if the students are standing in a circle around the teacher and he/she can even encourage them to walk around as they do the action.

The disadvantages of TPR:

- Students who are not used to such things might find it embarrassing. But if the teacher is prepared to perform the actions, the students feel happier about copying.

- It is mostly suitable for beginner levels. Whilst it is clear that it is far more useful at lower levels because the target language lends itself to such activities a teacher can also sometimes use it successfully with Intermediate and Advanced levels if he/she adapts the language accordingly. For example, one can teach 'ways of walking' (stumble, stagger, tiptoe) to an advanced class and cooking verbs to intermediate students (whisk, stir, grate).

- You can't teach everything with it and if used a lot it would become repetitive but it can be a successful and fun way of changing the dynamics and pace of a lesson used in conjunction with other methods and techniques.

Typical Techniques

1) Using commands to direct behavior (*the use of commands requiring physical actions from the students in response is the major teaching technique*).

2) Role reversal (*students direct the teacher and fellow learners*).

3) Action sequence (*teacher gives interconnected directions which create a sequence of actions [also called an "operation"] - as students progress in*

proficiency, more and more commands are added to the action sequence. Most everyday activities can be broken down into a sequence of actions).

*(From Diane Larsen-Freeman, *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*, 1986)*

TPR is now a household name among teachers of foreign languages. It is widely acclaimed as a highly effective method at beginning levels, and almost a standard requirement in the instruction of young learners. It is also admired as a method due to its inherent simplicity, making it accessible to a wide range of teachers and learning environments.

TPR has become a worldwide business (see www.tpr-world.com), so it makes sense to try and determine which of the principles involved are business/marketing-orientated and which are strictly pedagogic. TPR.com would have you believe that you can use TPR as the be-all and end-all for language teaching, right up into very advanced levels.

The original theories underlying the method, orientated around creating an effective and stress-free listening period in combination with physical responses (the same way we all began learning our own native language as babies) are the safest ones to stick to. It is an almost pre-requisite technique for teaching young students or older students at beginning levels, but it is a method that needs to be supplemented with other approaches as students progress in proficiency. In the same way, it is an excellent method for young/beginning teachers to learn, as TPR lessons tend to be a lot of fun and the techniques involved are relatively simple. As with any other method or technique style, overdoing it will eventually create boredom and a feeling of repetition, which is enjoyable for neither students nor teachers.

If there is another weakness to be found it would have to be the difficulty involved in employing TPR for the purpose of teaching abstract language. Not all the things we do are “physical” and not all of our thinking is orientated around the visible physical universe. To some extent you can be innovative and even develop “physical” manifestations of abstract and/or mentally-based verbs and nouns, but it loosens the connection and thus weakens it. Thus, TPR activities should be limited to the directly obvious, visible and physically “doable”. This makes it a great method for young learners before they develop enough cognitively to start considering more abstract concepts.

As one of the methodologists advises a teacher can also experiment with a technique that seems to grow naturally out of the TPR sphere, which

might be called “Total Conceptual Response.” Through this technique, students can be encouraged to draw pictures or symbols for words and/or phrases and units of meaning that are personal to them - a manifestation on paper representing their own perception of various concepts. They share these with fellow students to (1) see how effectively the representation transfers to other people, (2) to get fresh ideas on how to portray the language “visually”, and (3) build up a personal language “picture dictionary” that portrays language conceptually rather than translating it. It tends to involve humor in the same way TPR does, but involves the students more personally and more creatively. The way one student conceptualizes “ambition” or “success” is usually different from other students, and it can be an entertaining process to see what drawings and symbols emerge.

Suggestopedia

A teaching method developed by the **Bulgarian psychotherapist Georgi Lozanov**. The theory applied positive suggestion in teaching when it was developed in the 1970s. Lozanov believed that learners may have been using only 5 to 10 percent of their mental capacity, and that the brain could process and retain much more material if given optimal conditions for learning. Based on psychological research on extrasensory perception, Lozanov began to develop a language learning method that focused on “desuggestion” of the limitations learners think they have, and providing the sort of relaxed state of mind that would facilitate the retention of material to its maximum potential. This method became known as Suggestopedia (but also - rather confusingly - Desuggestopedia) - the name reflecting the application of the power of “(de)suggestion” to the field of pedagogy. “Suggestopedia” is made of the words “suggestion” and “pedagogy”. A common misconception is to link “suggestion” to “hypnosis”. However, Lozanov intended it in the sense of offering or proposing, emphasizing student choice.

One of the most unique characteristics of the method was the use of soft Baroque music during the learning process. Baroque music has a specific rhythm and a pattern of 60 beats per minute, and Lozanov believed it created a level of relaxed concentration that facilitated the intake and retention of huge quantities of material. This increase in learning potential was put down to the increase in alpha brain waves and decrease in blood pressure and heart rate that resulted from listening to Baroque music. Another aspect that differed from other methods to date was the use

of soft comfortable chairs and dim lighting in the classroom (other factors believed to create a more relaxed state of mind).

Other characteristics of Suggestopedia were the giving over of complete control and authority to the teacher (who at times can appear to be some kind of instructional hypnotist using this method!) and the encouragement of learners to act as “childishly” as possible, often even assuming names and characters in the target language. All of these principles in combination were seen to make the students “suggestible” (or their fears of language learning “desuggestible”), and therefore able to utilize their maximum mental potential to take in and retain new material.

The prime objective of Suggestopedia is to tap into more of students’ mental potential to learn, in order to accelerate the process by which they learn to understand and use the target language for communication. Four factors considered essential in this process were the provision of a relaxed and comfortable learning environment, the use of soft Baroque music to help increase alpha brain waves and decrease blood pressure and heart rate, “desuggestion” in terms of the psychological barriers learners place on their own learning potential, and “suggestibility” through the encouragement of learners assuming “child-like” and/or new roles and names in the target language.

Due to the method, teachers should not act in a directive way, although this method is teacher-controlled and not student-controlled. For example, they should act as a real partner to the students, participating in the activities such as games and songs “naturally” and “genuinely”. In the concert session, they should fully include classical art in their behaviours. Although there are many techniques that the teachers use, factors such as “communication in the spirit of love, respect for man as a human being, the specific humanitarian way of applying their ‘techniques’” etc. are crucial.

The lesson of Suggestopedia consisted of three phases at first: deciphering, concert session (memorization séance), and elaboration.

Deciphering: the teacher introduces the grammar and lexis of the content. In most materials the foreign language text is on the left half of the page with a translation on the right half, i.e. meanings are conveyed via the mother tongue.

Concert session (active and passive): in the active session, the teacher reads the text at a normal speed, sometimes intoning some words, and the students follow. In the passive session, the students relax and listen

to the teacher reading the text calmly. Baroque music is played in the background.

Elaboration: The students finish off what they have learned with dramas, songs, and games.

Then it has developed into four phases as lots of experiments were done: introduction, concert session, elaboration, and production.

Introduction: the teacher teaches the material in “a playful manner” instead of analysing lexis and grammar of the text in a directive manner.

Concert session (active and passive): in the active session, the teacher reads with intoning as selected music is played. Occasionally, the students read the text together with the teacher, and listen only to the music as the teacher pauses in particular moments. The passive session is done more calmly.

Elaboration: the students sing classical songs and play games while “the teacher acts more like a consultant”.

Production: the students spontaneously speak and interact in the target language without interruption or correction.

Typical Techniques

- 1) Classroom set-up (*emphasis is placed on creating a physical environment that does not "feel" like a normal classroom, and makes the students feel as relaxed and comfortable as possible*).
- 2) Peripheral learning (*students can absorb information "effortlessly" when it is perceived as part of the environment, rather than the material "to be attended to"*).
- 3) Positive suggestion (*teachers appeal to students' consciousness and subconscious in order to better orchestrate the "suggestive" factors involved in the learning situation*).
- 4) Visualization (*students are asked to close their eyes and visualize scenes and events, to help them relax, facilitate positive suggestion and encourage creativity from the students*).
- 5) Choose a new identity (*students select a target language name and/or occupation that places them "inside" the language language they are learning*).
- 6) Role-play (*students pretend temporarily that they are someone else and perform a role using the target language*).
- 7) First concert (*teacher does a slow, dramatic reading of the dialog synchronized in intonation with classical music*).

8) Second concert (*students put aside their scripts and the teacher reads at normal speed according to the content, not the accompanying pre-Classical or Baroque music - this typically ends the class for the day*).

9) Primary activation (*students "playfully" reread the target language out loud, as individuals or in groups*).

10) Secondary activation (*students engage in various activities designed to help the students learn the material and use it more spontaneously - activities include singing, dancing, dramatizations and games - „communicative intent" and not "form" being the focus*).

(From Diane Larsen-Freeman, Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching, 1986)

The language teaching method known as Suggestopedia provides some valuable insights into the power of cognition and creating/employing techniques that make students feel comfortable and relaxed, and “suggestible” to the material being learned.

Unfortunately it does not provide for the majority of language teaching environments teachers typically encounter. The dim lighting, large comfortable chairs and music selections are not readily available to the majority of schools, and these environmental factors are certainly close to impossible for very large classes. As with other methods, it does not take account of the fact that many learners in many countries do not necessarily bring an intrinsic desire to learn the language into their English lessons, and its basic foundations in cognitive theory in some ways limit it as a method to the realm of adult learning.

Still, many teachers can relate to many of the basic principles of the approach. Playing soft music to make students relax, making classrooms as comfortable as possible for students within the constraints imposed by space and budget considerations, having them assume new target language identities, employing role-playing activities, and decorating the classroom with peripheral aids to learning. These are the things that can be taken from the Suggestopedia method and effectively combined with more effective language teaching techniques specific to the students we find in various learning situations.

Home task. Do you believe you will use any part of these methods in your classroom? If so, which? Why/Why not? Make notes and be ready to comment.

SESSION 3. Intensive Methods: H. Kytaihorodska's Method of Activation, Method of Immersion. Counselling Method.

Chrestomathy.

H. Kytaihorodska's Method of Activation

H. Kytaihorodska's intensive method of activation: activation of students' mental abilities via high rate of the activities and (in case of language courses) long sessions; all students are involved; the topic is related to students' life; learning is joyful; the sphere of the unconscious is activated; no negative feedback on the part of a teacher; positive general emotional attitude of the teacher to her students' creativity is stimulated.

Suggestia: psychological, didactic, artistic.

Principles:

- personal communication,
- collective interaction,
- role-based learning,
- polyfunctionality of exercises (linguistic material + speech activity, grammatical phenomenon + lexical content),
- concentration and organization of educational material

Intensive Method of Total Immersion.

Immersion programs that exist today actually originated in Canada in the 1960's, when middle-class English speaking parents campaigned for their children to be taught French through the experimental technique of language immersion. This enabled tutors to try and teach their students about specific French culture and traditions and to help them appreciate and understand them.

Unlike more traditional language teaching programs, where the language is taught simply as a subject to be learned, language immersion focuses more on the second language being a tool which is used to immerse the student completely within the subject.

Types of language immersion can be characterized by the total time students spend in the program and also can be characterized by the student's age.

Types that are characterized by learning time:

• **Total immersion:** In total immersion, the language of instruction is the students' L2, meaning that students spent 100% of the school day in their L2. The main problem with this type of language immersion is that

students feel that it is hard to understand more abstract and complex concepts if they are taught only via their L2.

- **Partial immersion:** In partial immersion programs, the class time is shared between the students' L1 and L2. In most cases this is an even split of time between the two languages. This type of language immersion is more acceptable for students.

- **Two-way immersion:** This type, which is also called bilingual immersion, is a way to integrate both students of the minority language and students of the majority language into the same classroom with the goal of academic excellence and bilingual proficiency for both student groups. In this type of language immersion, the instructional languages can be two languages but only one language is used at a time. Students learn languages by the interaction with their peers and teachers. This method of language immersion is popular language in America.

Types that are characterized by age:

- **Early Immersion:** Students start learning their second language at five years old or six years old.

- **Middle immersion:** Students start learning their second language around nine years old or ten years old.

- **Late immersion:** Students start learning their second language after the age of 11.

Location

People can also relocate temporarily to receive language immersion. This type of immersion occurs when a person moves to a place within their native country or abroad where their native language is not the majority language of that community. For example, Canadian anglophones go to Quebec. Many times this involves a homestay with a family who speaks only the target language. Children whose parents immigrate to a new country also find themselves in an immersion environment with respect to their new language. Another method is to create a temporary environment where the target language predominates, as in linguistic summer camps like the "English villages" in South Korea and parts of Europe.

Study abroad can also provide a strong immersion environment to increase language skills. However, there are a variety of factors that can affect immersion during study abroad, including the amount of foreign language contact during the program. In order to positively impact competence in the target language, language learning during study abroad suggests a need for language learners' broader engagement in local

communicative practices, for mindfulness of their situation as peripheral participants, and for more nuanced awareness of language itself.

Counselling Method (Community Language Learning).

In the early seventies, **Charles Curran (a Jesuit priest, professor of psychology at Loyola University Chicago, and counselling specialist)** developed a new education model he called “Counseling-Learning”. This was essentially an example of an innovative model that primarily considered affective factors as paramount in the learning process. Drawing on Carl Rogers’ view that learners were to be considered not as a *class*, but as a *group*, Curran’s philosophy dictated that students were to be thought of as “clients” - their needs being addressed by a “counselor” in the form of the teacher. Brown (1994:59), in commenting on this approach also notes that “In order for any learning to take place ... what is first needed is for the members to interact in an interpersonal relationship in which students and teacher join together to facilitate learning in a context of valuing and prizing each individual in the group.” Curran was best known for his extensive studies on adult learning, and some of the issues he tried to address were the threatening nature of a new learning situation to many adult learners and the anxiety created when students feared making “fools” of themselves. Curran believed that the counseling-learning model would help lower the instinctive defenses adult learners throw up, that the anxiety caused by the educational context could be decreased through the support of an interactive community of fellow learners. Another important goal was for the teacher to be perceived as an empathetic helping agent in the learning process, not a threat.

As it has been mentioned it is not based on the usual methods by which languages are taught. Rather the approach is patterned upon counselling techniques and adapted to the peculiar anxiety and threat as well as the personal and language problems a person encounters in the learning of foreign languages. Thus, this method refers to two roles: that of the know-er (teacher) and student (learner). The learner is thought of as a client and collaborator. The native instructors of the language are considered to be language counsellors and paraphrasers.

According to Curran, a counsellor helps a client understand his or her own problems better by capturing the essence of the clients concern and relating the client's affect to cognition, in effect, understanding the client and responding in a detached yet considerate manner.

The language-counselling relationship begins with the client's linguistic confusion and conflict. The aim of the language counsellor's skill is first to communicate an empathy for the client's threatened inadequate state and to aid him linguistically. Then slowly the teacher-counsellor strives to enable him to arrive at his own increasingly independent language adequacy. This process is furthered by the language counsellor's ability to establish a warm, understanding, and accepting relationship, thus becoming an "other-language self" for the client.

To restate, the counsellor blends what the client feels and what he is learning in order to make the experience a meaningful one. Often, this supportive role requires greater energy expenditure than an 'average' teacher.

The Counseling-Learning educational model later became known as Community Language Learning as a language learning method. Based on most of the principles above, Community Language Learning seeks to encourage teachers to see their students as "whole" persons, where their feelings, intellect, interpersonal relationships, protective reactions, and desire to learn are addressed and balanced. Students typically sit in a circle, with the teacher (as counselor) outside the ring. They use their first language to develop an interpersonal relationship based on trust with the other students. When a student wants to say something, they first say it in their native language, which the teacher then translates back to them using the target language. The student then attempts to repeat the English used by the teacher, and then a student can respond using the same process. This technique is used over a considerable period of time, until students are able to apply words in the new language without translation, moving in 5 stages from a situation of dependence on the teacher-counselor to a state of independence.

The Community Language Learning method does not just attempt to teach students how to use another language communicatively, it also tries to encourage the students to take increasingly more responsibility for their own learning, and to "learn about their learning", so to speak. Learning in a nondefensive manner is considered to be very important, with teacher and student regarding each other as a "whole person" where intellect and ability are not separated from feelings. The initial struggles with learning the new language are addressed by creating an environment of mutual support, trust and understanding between both learner-clients and the teacher-counselor.

Typical Techniques:

- The use of native language and translation.
- No text books.
- Cooperative learning.
- Grammar and vocabulary are taught inductively.
- Focusing on pronunciation and listening.
- Learning is mostly directed by the students.
- Writing exercises.
- Tape recording student conversation
- Transcription
- Reflection on experience (*teacher takes time during or after various activities to allow students to express how they feel about the language and the learning experience and the teacher indicates empathy/understanding*)
- Reflective listening (*students listen to their own voices on the tape in a relaxed and reflective environment*)
- Human computer (teacher is a “human computer” for the students to control - the teacher stating anything in the target language the student wants to practice, giving them the opportunity to self-correct)
- Small group tasks
- Tape Recording Student Conversation (*students choose what they want to say, and their target language production is recorded for later listening/dissemination*)
- Transcription (*teacher produces a transcription of the tape-recorded conversation with translations in the mother language - this is then used for follow up activities or analysis*)

In the **Community language learning** that represents the use of Charles Curran Counseling-Learning theory in teaching languages students work together to develop what aspects of a language they would like to learn.

Community Language Learning is an innovative approach that Brown (1994:58) lists as one of the “‘Designer’ Methods of the Spirited Seventies”. It is certainly unique in that it is one of the first methods to be developed that really focused on the feelings of the students and tried to address affective factors in learning (particularly for adult learners). It was also the first method to combine the field of language learning with the dynamics and principles of counseling.

Important and beneficial as that may be, it could be said that the method goes too far in the direction of affective factors at the expense of other considerations. It has been criticized for being *too* non-directive, and it certainly is not a method which could be recommended for students who are learning English as part of a standard, compulsory education curriculum. The method assumes that students intrinsically *want* to learn the new language, and that is not always the case. In a class where only half (or less) of the students actually want to be there, the principles of the group support/ dynamic are very likely to fall down.

The method has other limitations. The teacher must be fluent in both the target language *and* the students' mother language. It cannot be used for large or very large classrooms, and would be quite limited in terms of how it could be applied to classes of young learners, who tend to instinctively expect a certain amount of active direction from the teacher.

Still, the basic affective principle is a good one, and various Community Language Learning techniques can be used very effectively in combination with other methods. The tape recording and transcription elements are very useful, and any method which stresses the feelings and independent development of the learners themselves is one worth looking at and trying out in a variety of ways.

The present-day online types of such communities have recently arisen with the explosion of educational resources for language learning on the Web. Online social network services (such as 'English, baby!') take advantage of the Web concept of information sharing and collaboration tools, for which users can help other users to learn languages by direct communication or mutual correction of proposed exercises.

Home task. Do you believe you will use any part of these methods in your classroom? If so, which? Why/Why not? Make notes and be ready to comment.

SESSION 4. The Main Principles and Features of Communicative Language Teaching.

Chrestomathy.

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is generally regarded as an approach to language teaching (Richards and Rodgers 2001). It is based on

the theory that the primary function of language use is communication. Its primary goal is for learners to develop communicative competence (**Hymes 1971**), or communicative ability. In other words, its goal is to make use of real-life situations that necessitate communication.

Key features:

- 1) Meaning is paramount.
- 2) Dialogs, if used, center around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.
- 3) Contextualization is a basic premise.
- 4) Language learning is learning to communicate.
- 5) Effective communication is sought.
- 6) Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
- 7) Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.
- 8) Any device which helps the learners is accepted - varying according to their age, interest, etc.
- 9) Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.
- 10) Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.
- 11) Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
- 12) Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.
- 13) The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.
- 14) Communicative competence is the desired goal.
- 15) Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methods.
- 16) Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content function, or meaning which maintains interest.
- 17) Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
- 18) Language is created by the individual often through trial and error.
- 19) Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.
- 20) Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings.
- 21) The teacher cannot know exactly what language the students will use.
- 22) Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

Principles of CLT

- In CLT approach, meaning is given prime importance. The main focus of the approach is to make the learners able to understand the intention and expression of the writers and speakers.
- In this approach, it is believed that communicative functions are more important rather than linguistic structures.
- While using CLT approach in teaching language, the target language is used in the classroom. The target language is a vehicle for class room communication, not just the object of study (Larsen-Freeman, 2000:125). Because if the learners continue to use their native languages, they are not able to communicate in the target language. It is believed that *native language should be used judiciously*.
- Appropriate use of language is emphasized rather than accuracy. Accuracy comes at the later stage. It is believed that when the learners learn to use the language appropriately accuracy comes automatically.
- Language should be taught by integrating all language skills and not by only one skill. It means communication approach is not limited to only speaking skill; reading and writing skills should be developed.
- Language cannot be learnt through rote memorization. It cannot be learnt in isolation. It should be learnt through social interaction. To communicate in the target language, there is a need to struggle with language. Richards & Rodgers state that the target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate (1986:67).
- While using this approach, the major focus is to make the learner able to communicate in the target language. Errors are tolerated by the teacher because what is more important is to make them able to speak in the target language. Teacher should not correct them during the activities in which they are using target language. The teacher can note the errors of the learners and make it correct after the activities are over.
- CLT approach provides the opportunities to communicate in the target language to the learners. It encourages teacher-student and student – student interaction. It helps to encourage the co-operative relationship among students. The teacher should give work in group or in pair which give opportunities to share the information among them. It also helps to promote the communication among them. Richards & Rodgers state that students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings (1986:68).

- CLT approach provides the opportunities to the learners not only about what to say and but also about how to say.
- The teacher should create situations which help to promote communication. The teacher should teach them how language should be used in a social context. Teacher should give activities such as role play which help the learners to learn the language in social context.
- Language teaching techniques should be designed in such way that it encourages the learners to use the target language. Functional aspects of language should be given importance. Dramas, role plays, games should be used in the class room to promote the real communication.
- Students should be given opportunities to listen to language as it is used in authentic communication. They may be coached on strategies for how to improve their comprehension (Larsen- Freeman, 2000:128).

Role of the teachers in the classroom

The teachers are just the facilitators who facilitate the learning process. It is the responsibility of teachers to create such situations in which communication can take place among the students. They monitor the learning process. While using CLT approach in the class room, the teachers do not interrupt during the learning process to correct the errors of the learners. They just note the errors and correct it at a later point. The teachers give such types of activities which help to accelerate the communication process. The teachers are also active participants of the communicative process. Richards & Rodgers state that there are some other roles assumed for teachers are need analyst, counsellor, and group process manager (1986:77).

Role of the learners in the classroom

The major focus in CLT approach is on communication process rather than mastering linguistics structures. This leads to different roles for the learners. Communicative Language Teaching is a learner- centered approach in which the learners are given importance. The learners are expected to participate in the communication process actively. The cooperative approach (rather than individualistic approach) to learning stressed in CLT may likewise be unfamiliar to learners. CLT methodologists consequently recommend that learners learn to see that failed communication is a joint responsibility and not the fault of speaker or listener. Similarly, successful communication is accomplishments jointly achieved and acknowledge (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:77).

Types of Learning Associated with the CLT Approach

Interactive Learning:

This concept goes right to the heart of communication itself, stressing the dual roles of “receiver” and “sender” in any communicative situation. Interaction creates the “negotiation between interlocutors” which in turn produces meaning (semantics). The concept of interactive learning necessarily entails that there will be a lot of pair and group work in the classroom, as well as genuine language input from the “real world” for meaningful communication.

Learner-centered Learning:

This kind of instruction involves the giving over of some “power” in the language learning process to the learners themselves. It also strives to allow for personal creativity and input from the students, as well as taking into account their learning needs and objectives.

Cooperative Learning:

This concept stresses the “team” like nature of the classroom and emphasizes *cooperation* as opposed to *competition*. Students share information and help, and achieve their learning goals as a group.

Content-based Learning:

This kind of learning joins language learning to content/subject matter and engages them both concurrently. Language is seen as a tool or medium for acquiring knowledge about other things, instantly proving its usefulness. An important factor in this kind of learning is that the content itself determines what language items need to be mastered, not the other way around. When students study math or science using English as the medium, they are more intrinsically motivated to learn more of the language.

Task-based Learning:

This concept equates the idea of a “learning task” to a language learning technique in itself. This could be a problem solving activity or a project, but the task has a clear objective, appropriate content, a working/application procedure, and a set range of outcomes.

Home task. Find some more detailed information about the historical background of the method that you yourself find interesting and be ready to discuss it with the teacher.

SESSIONS 5. Communicative Language Competences.

Chrestomathy.

The term *communicative competence* refers to both the tacit knowledge of a language and the ability to use it effectively.

The concept of communicative competence (a term coined by linguist Dell Hymes in 1972) grew out of resistance to the concept of linguistic competence introduced by Noam Chomsky. Most scholars now consider linguistic competence to be a *part of* communicative competence.

Michael Canale and Merrill Swain identified these four components of communicative competence:

I. **Grammatical competence** (or the **linguistic competence**) deals with grammar. It includes vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, and pronunciation. Students have to know rules that govern sentence structure, word formation, tenses, sound interactions, word and phrase meanings, and collocations. In other words, syntax, morphology, semantics, phonology, and phonetics are all subjects of interest to the linguistic competence area. Students have to be moving towards mastery of each one of them to construct grammatically correct sentences.

II. **Sociolinguistic competence** includes knowledge of sociocultural rules of use. It is concerned with the learners' ability to handle, for example, settings, topics and communicative functions in different sociolinguistic contexts. In addition, it deals with the use of appropriate grammatical forms for different communicative functions in different sociolinguistic contexts.

III. **Discourse competence** is related to the learners' mastery of understanding and producing texts in the modes of listening, speaking, reading and writing. It deals with cohesion and coherence in different types of texts.

IV. **Strategic competence** refers to compensatory strategies in case of grammatical or sociolinguistic or discourse difficulties, such as the use of reference sources, grammatical and lexical paraphrase, requests for repetition, clarification, slower speech, or problems in addressing strangers when unsure of their social status or in finding the right cohesion devices. It is also concerned with such performance factors as coping with the nuisance of background noise or using gap fillers.

Bachman's model (1987 and 1990) has extended Canale and Swain's view of communicative competence.

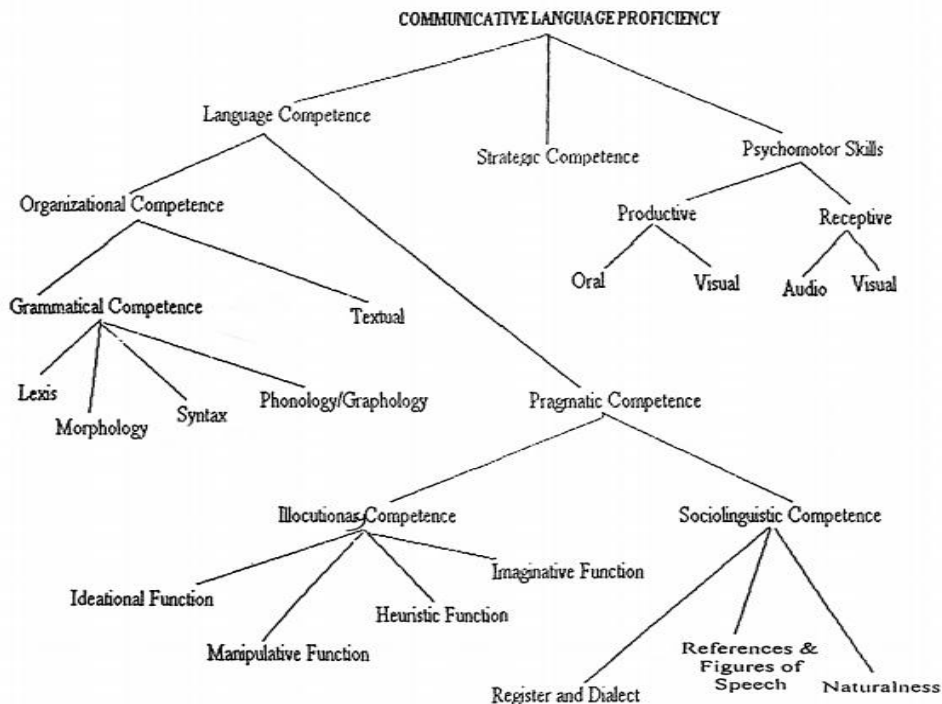


Fig.1

Home task. 1. Find all the necessary for sufficient understanding details about the above given Bachman's model and be ready to share the information with your teacher. 2. Think of the possible ways of activating your future pupils' Communicative language competences. Be ready to comment on them.

SESSION 6. Common European Framework of Reference and Its Role in Language Learning and Teaching.

Chrestomathy.

Some of the instruments produced within the Council of Europe have played a decisive role in the teaching of foreign languages by

promoting methodological innovations and new approaches to designing teaching programs, notably the development of a communicative approach.

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, abbreviated in English as CEFR or CEF or CEFRL, is a guideline used to describe achievements of learners of foreign languages across Europe and, increasingly, in other countries. It was put together by the Council of Europe as the main part of the project “Language Learning for European Citizenship” between 1989 and 1996. Its main aim is to provide a method of learning, teaching and assessing which applies to all languages in Europe. In November 2001, a European Union Council Resolution recommended using the CEFR to set up systems of validation of language ability. The six reference levels (from A1 to C2, which can be regrouped into three broad levels: Basic User, Independent User and Proficient User, and that can be further subdivided according to the needs of the local context) are becoming widely accepted as the European standard for grading an individual’s language proficiency.

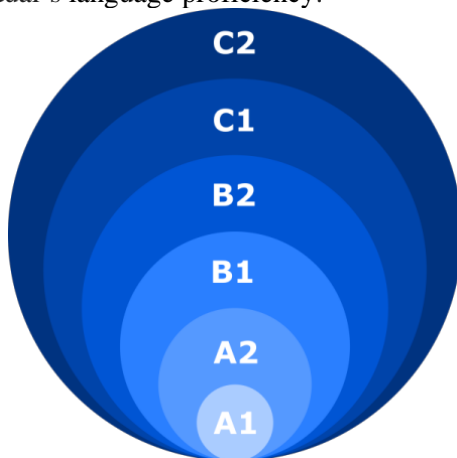


Fig.2

The levels did not suddenly appear from nowhere in 2001, but were a development over a period of time, as described below.

Development

An intergovernmental symposium in 1991 titled “Transparency and Coherence in Language Learning in Europe: Objectives, Evaluation, Certification” held by the Swiss Federal Authorities found the need for a

common European framework for languages to improve the recognition of language qualifications and help teachers co-operate. A project followed to develop language-level classifications for certification to be recognized across Europe.

The CEFR is also intended to make it easier for educational institutions and employers to evaluate the language qualifications of candidates to education admission or employment.

As a result of the symposium, the Swiss National Science Foundation set up a project to develop levels of proficiency, to lead on to the creation of a “European Language Portfolio” – certification in language ability which can be used across Europe.

A preliminary version of the Manual for Relating Language Examinations to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) was published in 2003. This draft version was piloted in a number of projects, which included linking a single test to the CEFR, linking suites of exams at different levels, and national studies by exam boards and research institutes. Practitioners and academics shared their experiences at a colloquium in Cambridge in 2007, and the pilot case studies and findings were published in *Studies in Language Testing (SiLT)*. The findings from the pilot projects then informed the Manual revision project during 2008-2009.

Theoretical background

The CEFR divides general competences in knowledge, skills, and existential competence with particular communicative competences in *linguistic competence*, *sociolinguistic competence*, and *pragmatic competence*. This division does not exactly match previously well-known notions of communicative competence, but correspondences among them can be made.

The CEFR has three principal dimensions: language activities, the domains in which the language activities occur, and the competences on which we draw when we engage in them.

Language activities

The CEFR distinguishes among four kinds of language activities: reception (listening and reading), production (spoken and written), interaction (spoken and written), and mediation (translating and interpreting).

Domains

Four broad domains are distinguished: educational, occupational, public, and personal. These largely correspond to Register (sociolinguistics)

Competences

A language user can develop various degrees of competence in each of these domains and to help describe them, the CEFR has provided a set of six Common Reference Levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2).

Common reference levels

The Common European Framework divides learners into three broad divisions that can be divided into six levels; for each level, it describes what a learner is supposed to be able to do in reading, listening, speaking and writing.

These descriptors can apply to any of the languages spoken in Europe, and there are translations in many languages.

Relationship with duration of learning process

Educational bodies for various languages have offered estimates for the amount of study needed to reach levels in the relevant language.

Body	Language	Cumulative hours of study to reach level					
		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
Cambridge English Language Assessment	English		180– 200	350– 400	500– 600	700– 800	1,000– 1,200

Fig.3

Connection with the communicative approach

The CEFR invites readers to be explicit about their own beliefs about the process of learning; which teaching approaches they favour; what they take to be the relative roles and responsibilities of teachers and learners, and so on. These invitations to reflect on methodology show the CEFR as an open, flexible tool. However, there are some broad teaching and learning principles underlying the CEFR approach. The text of the CEFR emphasizes learners' 'communicative needs', including dealing with the business of everyday life, exchanging information and ideas, and achieving wider and deeper intercultural understanding. This is to be

achieved by ‘basing language teaching and learning on the needs, motivations, characteristics and resources of learners.’

This conveys the CEFR’s communicative, action-oriented approach. This approach is broad and should be coherent with the aims of most school language learning.

It is based on the model of language use and language learning in which the two key notions are tasks and interaction. Language use is seen as purposeful, involving communication of meanings which are important to learners, in order to achieve goals. The principle underlying this is that learning will be more effective where language is used purposefully.

The importance of purposeful communication as an aspect of classroom language use does not mean, of course, that a focus on language form is not also necessary. Reference Level Descriptions can give very useful guidance on the linguistic features which students may master well at a particular CEFR level, and those where they will demonstrate partial competence, continuing to make mistakes. This helps the teacher to judge what are realistic expectations at each level.

Home task. Find the information about the criticism of the system.

SESSION 7. Characteristics of a Communicative Task.

Chrestomathy.

One of the distinctive points of communicative language teaching is the focus on communicative activities that promote language learning. These activities use real life situations to trigger communication. They encourage and require a learner to speak with and listen to other learners. Communicative activities have real purposes such as finding and exchanging information, breaking down barriers, talking about oneself, and learning about culture.

Advantages of communicative activities:

- Learning is maximized when students are engaged in relevant tasks within a dynamic learning environment instead of traditional teacher-centred classes.
- Real life communication is the target. Learners are trained not only to be linguistically competent but also communicatively and sociolinguistically competent.

- Communicative activities are motivating. Learning is achieved while learners are having fun.

Characteristics of communicative activities

- The success of a communicative activity can be determined by the extent to which learners are dependent on the teacher. Tasks should be devised in a manner that learners gain autonomy and independence while learning.
- The role of the teachers is to give clear and to the point instructions and provide the appropriate environment for learners to interact and exchange information.
- Communicative activities are motivating. Learners should be at ease and have fun while doing the communicative tasks.
- Communicative tasks are realistic. Real communication situations with authentic material (if any is necessary) should be the focus instead of isolated structures with no real-life reference.
- While in teacher-led classrooms learners were expected to be quiet and listen to the teacher and then, when asked, to respond to the teacher in unison with the one correct answer, communicative tasks require learners to take initiatives and provide their responses (instead of a response) to contribute to the success of learning.
- Communicative activities are meaningful: they are carried out to fulfil specific purposes such as booking a plane, hotel ticket, inviting somebody to a party, answering an invitation letter, shopping....
- Performance in communicative tests reflects an underlying competence that is linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic, strategic... Communicative activities should consider this multi-dimensional nature of language.

The following are the examples of some of the communicative activities.

Role-play

Example:

The instructor sets the scene where the conversation is taking place (E.g., in a café, in a park, etc.)

The instructor defines the goal of the students' conversation. (E.g., the speaker is asking for directions, the speaker is ordering coffee, the speaker is talking about a movie they recently saw, etc.)

The students converse in pairs for a designated amount of time. This activity gives students the chance to improve their communication skills in a low-pressure situation. Most students are more comfortable speaking in pairs rather than in front of the entire class.

Instructors need to be aware of the differences between a conversation and an utterance. Students may use the same utterances repeatedly when doing this activity and not actually have a creative conversation. If instructors do not regulate what kinds of conversations students are having, then the students might not be truly improving their communication skills.

Interview

Example:

The instructor gives each student the same set of questions to ask a partner.

Students take turns asking and answering the questions in pairs.

This activity, since it is highly-structured, allows for the instructor to more closely monitor students' responses. It can zone in on one specific aspect of grammar or vocabulary, while still being a primarily communicative activity and giving the students communicative benefits.

This is an activity that should be used primarily in the lower levels of language classes, because it will be most beneficial to lower-level speakers. Higher-level speakers should be having unpredictable conversations in the TL, where neither the questions nor the answers are scripted or expected. If this activity were used with higher-level speakers it wouldn't have many benefits.

Group work

Example:

Students are assigned a group of no more than six people.

Students are assigned a specific role within the group. (E.g., member A, member B, etc.)

The instructor gives each group the same task to complete.

Each member of the group takes a designated amount of time to work on the part of the task to which they are assigned.

The members of the group discuss the information they have found, with each other and put it all together to complete the task.

Students can feel overwhelmed in language classes, but this activity can take away from that feeling. Students are asked to focus on one piece of information only, which increases their comprehension of that information. Better comprehension leads to better communication with the rest of the group, which improves students' communicative abilities in the TL.

Instructors should be sure to monitor that each student is contributing equally to the group effort. It takes a good instructor to design

the activity well, so that students will contribute equally, and benefit equally from the activity.

Information gap

Example:

The class is paired up. One partner in each pair is Partner A, and the other is Partner B.

All the students that are Partner A are given a sheet of paper with a time-table on it. The time-table is filled in half-way, but some of the boxes are empty.

All the students that are Partner B are given a sheet of paper with a time-table on it. The boxes that are empty on Partner A's time-table are filled in on Partner B's. There are also empty boxes on Partner B's time-table, but they are filled in on Partner A's.

The partners must work together to ask about and supply each other with the information they are both missing, to complete each other's time-tables.

Completing information gap activities improves students' abilities to communicate about unknown information in the TL. These abilities are directly applicable to many real-world conversations, where the goal is to find out some new piece of information, or simply to exchange information.

Instructors should not overlook the fact that their students need to be prepared to communicate effectively for this activity. They need to know certain vocabulary words, certain structures of grammar, etc. If the students have not been well prepared for the task at hand, then they will not communicate effectively.

Opinion sharing

Example:

The instructor introduces a topic and asks students to contemplate their opinions about it. (E.g., dating, school dress codes, global warming)

The students talk in pairs or small groups, debating their opinions on the topic.

Opinion sharing is a great way to get more introverted students to open up and share their opinions. If a student has a strong opinion about a certain topic, then they will speak up and share.

Respect is the key with this activity. If a student does not feel like their opinion is respected by the instructor or their peers, then they will not

feel comfortable sharing, and they will not receive the communicative benefits of this activity.

Scavenger hunt

Example:

The instructor gives students a sheet with instructions on it. (e.g. Find someone who has a birthday in the same month as yours.)

Students go around the classroom asking and answering questions about each other.

In doing this activity, students have the opportunity to speak with a number of classmates, while still being in a low-pressure situation, and talking to only one person at a time. After learning more about each other, and getting to share about themselves, students will feel more comfortable talking and sharing during other communicative activities.

Since this activity is not as structured as some of the others, it is important for instructors to add structure. If certain vocabulary should be used in students' conversations, or a certain grammar is necessary to complete the activity, then instructors should incorporate that into the scavenger hunt.

Home task. Prepare one communicative task to exemplify each of the following activities and practice them with the rest of the students: role-play, interview, group work, information gap, opinion sharing, scavenger hunt.

SESSION 8. The Implications of CLT for Classroom Practice in the Context of Its Historical Background and some Present-Day Criticism.

Chrestomathy.

The origins of the Communicative Approach (or Communicative Language Teaching) date back to the late 1960s, when language education expanded significantly in Britain to meet both the needs of the children of permanent residents from Commonwealth countries and those of a growing number of overseas students who required either general-purpose or specialized pre-college instruction in English. The introduction of comprehensive schools, which offered foreign-language study to all

children rather than to the select few in the elite grammar schools, also greatly increased the demand for language learning in the country.

The other reason was that it came as a reaction against the grammar-based approaches such as audiolingual method and grammar-translation method of foreign language instruction that ignored that the goal of language learning is communicative competence.

Additionally, the trend of progressivism in education provided further pressure for educators to change their methods. Progressivism holds that active learning is more effective than passive learning; consequently, in schools there was a general shift towards using techniques where students were more actively involved, such as group work. Foreign-language education was no exception to this trend, and teachers sought to find new methods, such as CLT, that could better embody this shift in thinking.

The new approach was launched during a Conference on ‘The Communicative Teaching of English’ held at Lancaster University in 1973. On the basis of the insight that language is a system for the expression of meaning, the goal set for language teaching was to develop ‘communicative competence’, which consists of the ‘knowledge’ and ‘ability for use’ of four parameters of communication, i.e. whether (and to what degree) something is (a) formally possible, (b) feasible, (c) appropriate and (d) done (Hymes 1972).

The approach originally is a non-methodical system that does not use a textbook series to teach English, but rather works on developing sound oral/verbal skills prior to reading and writing. Today CLT is the dominant technique in teaching any language.

Although CLT has been extremely influential in the field of language teaching, it is not universally accepted and has been subject to significant critique:

- Critique of the theory of CLT includes that it makes broad claims regarding the usefulness of CLT while citing little data, that it uses a large amount of confusing vocabulary, and that it assumes knowledge that is predominately language non-specific (ex. the ability to make educated guesses) is language specific.

- CLT techniques often suggest prioritizing the “function” of a language (what one can do with the language knowledge one has) over the “structure” of a language (the grammatical systems of the language). This priority can leave learners with serious gaps in their knowledge of the formal aspects of their target language.

- It implies that there is a generally agreed upon consensus regarding the definition of “communicative competence”, which CLT claims to facilitate, when in fact there is not. Because there is not such agreement, students may be seen to be in possession of “communicative competence” without being able to make full, or even adequate, use of the language. That an individual is proficient in a language does not necessarily entail that they can make full use of that language, which can limit an individual’s potential with that language, especially if that language is an endangered language. This critique is largely to do with the fact that CLT is often highly praised and is popular, when it may not necessarily be the best method of language teaching.

- CLT has nonspecific requirements of its teachers, as there is no completely standard definition of what CLT is; this is especially true for the teaching of grammar (the formal rules governing the standardized version of the language in question). Some critics of CLT suggest that the method does not put enough emphasis on the teaching of grammar and instead allows students to produce utterances which are grammatically incorrect as long as the interlocutor can get some meaning from them.

- Many researchers associate the use of CLT techniques with modernity and, therefore, the lack of CLT techniques as a lack of modernism. In this way, these researchers consider teachers or school systems which don’t use CLT techniques as outdated and suggest that their students learn the target language “in spite of” the absence of CLT techniques, as though CLT were the only way to learn a language and everyone who fails to implement its techniques is ignorant and will not be successful in teaching the target language.

Home task. Watch TED TALK video “Teaching Methods for Inspiring the Students of the Future” and comment on the following:

- What two aspects does the speaker highlight?
- What new ideas has he got while observing children in the school café?
- What does ‘choice’ imply in his teaching?
- What does ‘caring’ imply in his teaching?
- What is ‘teacher paradox’ in his methodology?
- What are two most powerful techniques on his opinion?
- How are these aspects related to the concept of the communicative approach?

Link to the video: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UCFg9bcW7Bk>

SESSION 9. The Features of CLT in Materials and Classroom Procedures in Contrast with the other Methods and Approaches Studied During the Module. “Method Synergistics” or a “Disciplined Eclecticism”.

Chrestomathy.

Post-methods era

From the survey of methods and approaches (Grammar-Translation, Direct, Audio-Lingual, The Silent Way, Total Physical Response, Suggestopedia, Intensive methods, Counselling method, Communicative Language Teaching) we can see that the history of language teaching in the last one hundred years has been characterized by a search for more effective ways of teaching second or foreign languages. The commonest solution to the “language teaching problem” was seen to lie in the adoption of a new teaching approach or method. One result of this trend was the era of so-called designer or brand-name methods, that is, packaged solutions that can be described and marketed for use anywhere in the world. Thus, the Direct method was enthusiastically embraced in the early part of the twentieth century as an improvement over Grammar-Translation. In the 1950s the Audio-Lingual method was thought to provide a way forward, incorporating the latest insights from the sciences of linguistics and psychology. As the Audio-Lingual method began to fade in the 1970s, particularly in the United States, a variety of guru-led methods emerged to fill the vacuum created by the discrediting of Audiolingualism, such as the Silent Way, Total Physical Response, and Suggestopedia. While these had declined substantially by the 1990s, new “breakthroughs” continue to be announced from time to time, such as Task-Based Instruction, Neurolinguistic Programming, and Multiple Intelligences, and these attract varying levels of support. Mainstream language teaching on both sides of the Atlantic, however, opted for Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as the recommended basis for language teaching methodology in the 1980s and it continues to be considered the most plausible basis for language teaching today, although CLT is today understood to mean little more than a set of very general principles that can be applied and interpreted in a variety of ways.

By the end of the twentieth century, mainstream language teaching no longer regarded methods as the key factor in accounting for success or failure in language teaching. Some spoke of the death of methods and approaches and the term “post-methods era” was sometimes used.

The “top-down” criticism

While approaches tend to allow for varying interpretations in practice, methods typically prescribe for teachers what and how to teach. Teachers have to accept on faith the claims or theory underlying the method and apply them to their own practice. Good teaching is regarded as correct use of the method and its prescribed principles and techniques. Roles of teachers and learners, as well as the type of activities and teaching techniques to be used in the classroom, are generally prescribed. The role of the teacher is marginalized; his or her role is to understand the method and apply its principles correctly. Likewise, learners are sometimes viewed as the passive recipients of the method and must submit themselves to its regime of exercises and activities. Absent from the traditional view of methods is a concept of learner-centeredness and teacher creativity: an acknowledgment that learners bring different learning styles and preferences to the learning process, that they should be consulted in the process of developing a teaching program, and that teaching methods must be flexible and adaptive to learners’ needs and interests. At the same time, there is often little room for the teacher’s own personal initiative and teaching style. The teacher must submit herself or himself to the method.

Role of contextual factors

Both approaches and methods are often promoted as all-purpose solutions to teaching problems that can be applied in any part of the world and under any circumstance. In trying to apply approaches or methods, teachers sometimes ignore what is the starting point in language program design, namely, a careful consideration of the context in which teaching and learning occur, including the cultural context, the political context, the local institutional context, and the context constituted by the teachers and learners in their classrooms.

For example, attempts to introduce Communicative Language Teaching in countries with very different educational traditions from those in which CLT was developed (Britain and the United States and other English-speaking countries) have sometimes been described as “cultural imperialism” because the assumptions and practices implicit in CLT are viewed as “correct” whereas those of the target culture are seen in need of replacement. Similarly, Counseling-Learning and Cooperative Learning both make assumptions about the roles of teachers and learners that are not necessarily culturally universal.

Lack of research basis

Approaches and methods are often based on the assumption that the processes of second language learning are fully understood. Many of the books written by method gurus are full of claims and assertions about how people learn languages, few of which are based on second language acquisition research or have been empirically tested. With some exceptions, such as Krashen, researchers who study language learning are themselves usually reluctant to dispense prescriptions for teaching based on the results of their research, because they know that current knowledge is tentative, partial, and changing. Much of such research does not support the often simplistic theories and prescriptions found in some approaches and methods. It is perhaps for this reason that video samples of different approaches and methods typically demonstrate the first lesson (or an early lesson) of a foreign language class. There are no convincing video “demonstrations” with intermediate or advanced learners, perhaps because, as Brown points out, at that level there is nothing distinctive to demonstrate.

The way out of the controversy

The majority of language specialists considers eclecticism a legitimate solution to the lack of universal solutions offered by any single method or, as Rodgers (2001: 4) terms it, “method synergistics” or a “disciplined eclecticism”. Thus, teachers and teachers in training need to be able to use approaches and methods flexibly and creatively based on their own judgment and experience. In the process, they should be encouraged to transform and adapt the methods they use to make them their own. In the early stages, teaching is largely a matter of applying procedures and techniques developed by others. As the teacher gains experience and knowledge, he or she will begin to develop an individual approach or personal method of teaching, one that draws on an established approach or method but that also uniquely reflects the teacher’s individual beliefs, values, principles, and experiences.

An individual teacher may draw on different principles at different times, depending on the type of class he or she is teaching (e.g., children or adults, beginners, or advanced learners). The following are examples of such principles (Bailey 1996):

- Engage all learners in the lesson.
- Make learners, and not the teacher, the focus of the lesson.
- Provide maximum opportunities for student participation.

- Develop learner responsibility.
- Be tolerant of learners' mistakes.
- Develop learners' confidence.
- Teach learning strategies.
- Respond to learners' difficulties and build on them.
- Use a maximum amount of student-to-student activities.
- Promote cooperation among learners.
- Practice both accuracy and fluency.
- Address learners' needs and interests.

Only a few of these principles will be consciously referred to at a given time. Some may be derived from the approaches and methods teachers are familiar with. Others are personally constructed over time based on experience.

Therefore, there is much more to teacher development than learning how to use different approaches or methods of teaching. Experience with different approaches and methods, however, can provide teachers with an initial practical knowledge base in teaching and can also be used to explore and develop teachers' own beliefs, principles, and practices.

Home task. 1. Decide on the working techniques of all the methods studied worth using at the present-day lesson (those that you favor most of all), present your scheme.

2. Portfolio item: supplement your personal learning account of the module with a reflection (200-250 words) on the methods and approaches you have been exposed to and their impact on you as a learner.

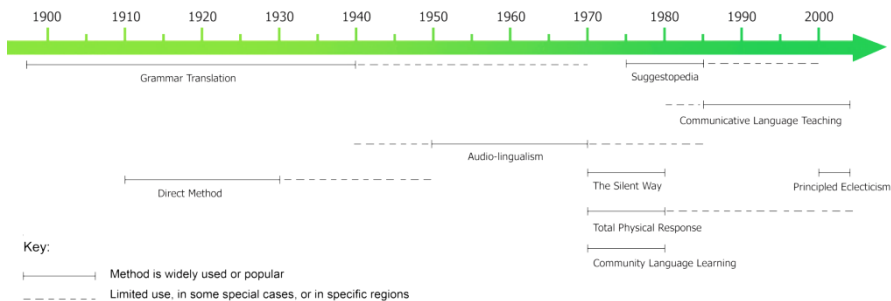
Focus on the following aspects:

- views of language
- focus of teaching
- roles of a learner and a teacher
- the language of instruction
- attitude to mistakes
- typical activities
- strengths and weaknesses

ADDITIONAL TASKS FOR EXTRA POINTS

I. Comment on the timeline of the methods studied (historical background and peculiarities of each of them).

Timeline of Teaching Methods



II. Role play one activity to illustrate each of the methods studied during the module.

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Укладач:
Курята Ю. В.

Відповідальна за випуск:
Михальчук Н. О.

Технічний редактор:
Курята Ю. В.

Комп'ютерна верстка та макет:
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