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A Historical Review of
Foreign Language Teaching
Methods with Particular
Reference to the Teaching of
Grammar

By

Muhammad Mahboob Ali

A thesis submitted to the
University of Durham in
candidacy for the degree of

Master of Arts

in

Education

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U. K.

1995

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13 NOV 1995

Dedication

I humbly dedicate this work to my parents, my wife, and my children: Fatima, Ahmed, Khaled, and Hamed with love.

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Abstract

Mohammad Mahboob Ali

A Historical Review of Foreign Language Teaching Methods with Particular Reference to the Teaching of Grammar.

This thesis is concerned with a 'historical review of foreign language teaching methods with particular reference to the teaching of grammar.'

Chapter one outlines the purpose of study, defines its scope and explains why it is significant. It outlines as well the stages through which language teaching methodology passed during the last hundred years.

Chapter two deals with the entry of Modern Languages into the school curriculum and the adoption of the Grammar-Translation method in the foreign language classroom.

Chapter three discusses why the Reform Movement was necessary and what changes took place consequently in language teaching methodology.

Chapter four looks at the development of some Reform Movement ideas which resulted in the growth of the Direct Method.

Chapter five is devoted to a discussion of the development of language learning theory, the emergence of behaviourist doctrine and the entry of machines in the language learning classroom.

Chapter six looks at the changes which were brought into language teaching methodology by Chomsky and Hymes and other linguists which resulted in the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching methodology with the appearance of the notional syllabus.

The last chapter summarizes the main points discussed in the previous chapters, especially the role of 'grammar' in language teaching methodology during the last hundred years.

Acknowledgement

I express my sincere thankfulness to Allah Almighty without whose reconciliation and help this work would never have been possible.

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Preface

There was a variety of developments in the methodology of teaching foreign languages during the past 100 years. It has been observed in various parts of the world that teachers face difficulties in conveying the knowledge of a foreign language to their pupils. There are many reasons for that, methods could be considered as a major one of the them. In Qatar, as an example, where I am involved in teaching English, as a foreign language, Communicative Language Teaching has been introduced through Crescent English Course with very little teacher training. Teachers by and large are unaware of the differences that exist between their past experiences as learners when Grammar-Translation was important and their actual experiences as teachers. This could be due to lack of proper preservice and inservice teacher training.

This thesis is therefore designed to be a *review of foreign language teaching methods with particular reference to the teaching of grammar*. The purpose is to explore the role of grammar in previous approaches in order to better understand the role of grammar in Communicative Language Teaching. Hence, it reviews the period from 1880 to 1980 being the one which has most influenced the TEFL in Qatar including Communicative Language Teaching. The thesis is of a critical nature to review the major methods and movements since approximately 1880 upto 1980.

Chapter 1

Introduction

It is generally agreed, that any problem before being solved, must first be analysed. The more complex the problem is, the more its solution depends on a sound and systematic analysis. Language teaching includes some of the most complex problems in the field of education. This thesis is an attempt to analyse at least some of the problems that are being confronted. It is addressed to language-teachers, teachers-in-training and researchers.

A number of broad substantive and methodological assumptions underlie this education/linguistic approach to a theory of language teaching. Two such basic substantive assumptions are (1) language is human behaviour and (2) each language has its own independent and unique structure; it requires its own independent and unique description. This structure or system is otherwise known as the grammar of the language. There is yet another set of four basic methodological assumptions as follows:

- 1) language may be studied objectively and systematically.
- 2) objective study of a language yields an accurate,

orderly, comprehensive description of the language system or structure.

- 3) structural linguistics is not just another nomenclature for "the parts of speech" of traditional grammar, or another way of parsing and diagramming sentences. It is an entirely new way of looking at language, of sorting out the data, of classifying findings.
- 4) structural linguistics leads to new data, new knowledge new insights, new understandings.

Many scholars of the present day believe that language teaching is influenced by ideas on the nature of language in general, by ideas on the particular language being taught and by ideas on how the language is learned. Precisely for this reason a theory of language teaching analysis must therefore begin with how ideas on language may differ, how language is made up, how it differs from the native language and so on.

Many fields of knowledge have been concerned with language and each of them have their own elaborated theories to explain its working. Different fields of knowledge are concerned with different aspects, or sometimes study the same aspect in different ways. Hence it is not surprising to find different answers for the only one simple question - what is language?. For a philosopher language may be an instrument of

thought. For a sociologist language is a form of behaviour. A psychologist looks into the working of the mind through this cloudy window, i.e. language. Language is nothing but a manifestation of calculus for a logician. Language is a series of physical events for an engineer. A statistician looks at language as a selection by choice and chance. It is a linguist who views language as a system of arbitrary symbols.

Language teaching is to be viewed from three different aspects viz; (a) first language/mother tongue teaching (b) second language teaching and (c) foreign language teaching.

L 1	L 2
First language	Second language
Native language	Non-native language
Mother tongue	Foreign language
Primary language	Secondary language
Stronger language	Weaker language.

(H.H.Stern 1984:9)

Stern is of the opinion that a foreign language can also be labelled as L2. But for some other scholars foreign language teaching is not to be counted as L2. In the Indian situation, where we come across many languages, the situation demands a different type of labelling. L1 for them is any of the vast number of Indian languages and L2 is Hindi,

the lingua franca (or National Common Language) of India. English is given the status of foreign language. A foreign language teaching situation can be defined as that situation where there is no interaction with the native speakers of that particular language.

At this juncture it is necessary for us to define certain technical terms. I draw my definitions from Dulay et al (1982) since their definitions cover the entire area of my present work.

- 1) Second Language (L2) acquisition is a process of learning another language after the basics of the first have been acquired. This process starts around the age of five years. Researchers prefer to label it as sequential language acquisition, in order to differentiate it from simultaneous or bilingual acquisition. The latter type of acquisition starts from infancy.

- 2) Second language acquisition includes learning a new language in a foreign language context (example: Arabic in India or English in Mexico) and also learning a new language in a host language environment (as English in Great Britain).

The term second language refers to both foreign and host languages and the principles discussed here refer to the acquisition of both.

For the purposes of this thesis, the phrase 'language teaching' refers to only foreign language teaching. This thesis restricts its scope to such situations of foreign language teaching unless otherwise specified. As observed by Anthony (1962: 55) "the undergrowth of overlapping terminology that surrounds this field' is really amazing." Anthony proposes a distinction between 'Approach', 'Method' and 'Technique'. Approach for him would be that part of language teaching which constitutes the axiomatic theoretical base. Method is the procedural aspect of language teaching. Method determines what and how much is to be taught. Mackey (1965) puts it in terms of selection. The selected material is arranged in a graded manner and is presented in a specific form. Within a particular approach one may adopt more than a single method. The reverse is not possible. Each method should conform to one selected approach. Technique is a term which describes a 'particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance' (Anthony, 1963: 65) used in the class room. Throughout this thesis care has been taken to use these technical forms with the meaning noted above.

Foreign language teaching /learning is generally considered as an art. Thus in a view that it is a highly skilled activity which is learned by careful observation and patient practice. Foreign language teaching/learning also involves some set rules of the language which are to be understood in toto. I am of the opinion that it makes no sense to claim that foreign language teaching/learning is an art or science. I believe it to be union of both, an art and a science, hence a craft.

The substance as '**content**' of language teaching is, in most situations, language itself. The focus is on learning the language through approaches which draws learners' attention to the language. (Other approaches- such as programmes - will not be considered here). Of the various aspects of language to be learned, grammar is the one which attracts most attention, and grammar is the most important part to be discussed when we speak about the foreign language classroom. The learners in the classroom often complain about their inability to 'remember the grammar' or 'perceive the grammatical rule'. The teachers sometimes overemphasize a particular grammatical rule or ignore a grammatical rule altogether. A question arises here about the role of grammar in foreign language teaching.

'Grammar' is usually defined as the rules of language. There is a view according to which the categories of grammar are the same for all languages. There is yet another view quite contrary to this which claims that each language must be described in its own system. The goal of the descriptive analysis of a language is the construction of a grammar. A language according to such analysis would be a set of sentences, each with an ideal phonetic form. These phonetic forms are associated with some semantic interpretation. Chomsky (1965,68) identifies 'the grammar of the language is the system of rules that specifies this sound meaning correspondence'.

In fact the teaching of grammar has always been disputed. In the early days of language teaching, there was much dogma. For example, the printed page was usually withheld from the learner for varied periods of time in the initial stages of learning. Grammatical explanations were not allowed in the class room. Learning was to be inductive, in fact, whereby the learner analysed the patterns through practising sentences, rather than analysing the grammar. Some others suggest a deductive method instead of inductive method. The learners of language through a deductive method proceed from rules to the knowledge of the target language.

Both inductive and deductive methods of language teaching besides teaching of grammar, continued for a considerably long time. Sometimes the learners were asked to learn the foreign language through the rules whereas at other times the learners were expected to abstract the rules from the text of a foreign language. In order to have an overview of the vicissitudes of grammar in foreign language teaching methodology, we will consider the development of language teaching during the last 100 years. The historical account of the development of methodology which is to be the basis of this thesis is a European (mainly British) perspective on the development of language learning/teaching.

Primarily, foreign languages were learnt by only those people who needed them for social purposes. Since that time the conflict that has existed (and been recognised too!) has been between two principles, viz., formalism and activism (Macky: 1967). Grammar teaching was the theme of foreign language teaching in 'formalism', whereas the oral aspect of the language was the goal of foreign language teaching in 'activism'. Activism dominated between the sixteenth and nineteenth centuries and formalism dominated in the late eighteenth and nineteenth century. The modern period of language teaching began from 'active' oral use of the language and slowly moved to the phase of grammatical rules, then back

to oral activity and again to grammatical rules and then to speech. To quote Kelly (1969) 'the ideas which were dominant during the last 2000 years, have not much changed'. I reproduce the scheme of the evolution of second language teaching as produced by Kelly (1969:304).

ERA	PARENT SCIENCES	ART						CRITICAL SCIENCES		
		AIMS			METHODS					
		Lit.	Scholarly	Social	Informal		Formal			
Classical	Logic Grammar Rhetoric Philosophy Theology	CL	ML	CL	ML	CL	ML	Introduction at home & in Society	Literary & Rhetorical schooling	Parent sciences with nor- mative bias—observations erected into rules to govern activities drawn from them.
Middle Ages		X		X		Y			Teaching by book—social uses of Latin secondary- contemporary languages taught for literary purposes.	
12th–15th centuries		X								
Renaissance	Education Grammar Rhetoric	X	X	X		Y	X	Methods in ML mainly oral—example followed by some Classics teachers	Methods in CL follow medieval pattern—ML enter translation teach- ing for literary purposes	
17th, 18th & 19th centuries	Grammar Philosophy Education Rhetoric	Y		X	X				Logical orientation of grammar—social purposes of language subordinate— grammar-translation evolves	
19th & early 20th	Linguistics Psychology Education Anatomy			X	Y		X	Natural & Direct methods, etc. predominate—experi- mentation in Direct and 'structural' methods for Latin	Classical languages continue 19th-century practice—many modern- language teachers do likewise.	Experimental Psychology. Language Didactics, Methods Analysis.
	X Main aim Y Most important subsidiary aim							CL Classical Languages ML Modern Languages	Gr Greek Lit. Literature	

Kelly's scheme of the evolution of second language teaching

Chart 1

(Kelly, 1969:394)

Kelly classifies language teaching into five different points. (1) The classical period (2) The middle ages (3) Renaissance (4) The age of reason and lastly (5) The modern period. Language teaching, which, during the ancient period was considered as an art, had three objectives. They were Social, Literary and Philosophical, and have importance for the learner in that order. The Social objectives (communication) dominated during the classical period, the renaissance period and also in the modern age. Written and analytical skills dominated the middle ages and the age of reason.

In ancient times Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, the languages of religion, dominated the school curriculum. But at the turn of the nineteenth century we observe a conflict between the industrial revolution and agrarian society on one side and the vicissitude of changes in Europe on the other hand. This in fact, shook the position of the 'religious languages' schools and education planners shifted their loyalties and began to think of reforming the curriculum. By the middle of the nineteenth century Latin was not in common use outside the class room. And within the class room, alongside Latin we observe that there was gradual introduction of modern languages. French and German were taught by the teachers who were well versed in 'classical' language and who used

'construe' methods. They concentrated on grammatical knowledge and reading. Immigrant native speakers, who were employed as teachers, first used more active oral methods but later they too resorted to the construe method. However, this situation could not appeal either to the teachers or the parents of the pupils.

It is necessary at this stage to draw attention to the report of the school Inquiry Commission in Great Britain (Gilbert, 1953:2, I) which as early as the year 1868 expressed its regret about the situation of language teaching in schools. Parents demanded that this commission should provide facilities for conversation practice and correspondence expertise in class room activity, rather than insisting on grammatical knowledge.

Throughout the nineteenth century Karl Plotz's techniques of language teaching dominated the scenario. His main contribution to methodology was in the form of using the first language to acquire the second. This, in fact, reminds us of the present day theorists who believe in contrastive analysis. Karl Plotz had two clear division in his proposed method. They were:

(a) rules and paradigms

(b) sentences for translation into and out of the second language.

In the second half of the nineteenth century, after undergoing a through brainwash by Karl Plotz's theories, educationists and language teachers slowly started to react in a sharp manner. Most of them individually tried to develop their own language teaching method, which later took the shape of a movement. These were the scholars who insisted on the abolition of translation and teaching of grammar rules. These reformers of language teaching advocated that the teaching of language should first start through comprehension of texts by abundant listening practice and then through the reading of simple material. Then comes the phase of speaking and writing. Some of these reformers, however, introduced the grammar and translation only when the learners were able to understand the language.

Around the same time Gouin published a work entitled '*Art d'enseigner et d'étudier les langues*'. Gouin was the first amongst his contemporaries to advocate the spoken language and he insisted that the speaking skill is a primary requirement for a foreign language teacher/learner. He considered the sentence as a basic unit of speech. Following, Gouin, Viëtor incorporated a phonetic element into language teaching. He declared that the spoken language is to be given more importance in foreign language teaching and it is superior to others in the acquisition process. New ideas for learning or teaching a foreign language found supporters

who were enthusiastic enough to acquire languages, in countries like Germany, Scandinavia, France, England and also in the United States of America. The movement was termed the 'Reform Movement'.

Ear training and its role in language learning was given more importance during this period. This resulted in systematic drills in order to master the sounds. At the turn of the twentieth century courses were designed in such a way that they concentrate on spoken language with the study of sounds through phonetic transcription. The grammatical rules were inferred and abstracted, and foreign language teachers were given special training in order to handle the specially designed language courses.

The beginning of the Twentieth Century saw a total change in language teaching methodology. In 1902 the Direct Method was declared as 'the method' for teaching a foreign language in countries like France and Germany. By then it had its roots in England. The Direct Method (cf. Chapter 4) and its implementation needed competent teachers and teaching material to suit the method. Teachers were found to be in small numbers, because most of them were tied to the profession of foreign language teaching through the traditional grammar-translation method. The Direct Method expects the teachers to be fluent in the foreign language, and unfortunately, the

teachers who had their training in the language through the Grammar-Translation method were not fluent in the language. The required techniques and capacity to handle the language-situation were lacking in them. Educationists thus began to compromise with the principles of the Direct Method in order to meet the demands for measurable standards of accuracy. Each region had its own way of compromising with the Direct Method. In England, the Direct Method flourished during the period 1899-1924, but declined later due to the dearth of competent teachers. Teachers of the later years switched back to Grammar-Translation method only.

Between the year 1892-1914, the Grammar-Translation method was successfully practised in the United States. The usage of the first language was given importance. The mother tongue of the learners was used while teaching the target language. But soon the demand for spoken language and speaking skills of language were given priority. Ideas to reform language teaching began to spread. These reforms in a way expected the teachers to be more competent. Efforts were made by all the people concerned with language teaching, to evolve a method suitable to meet requirements. These efforts of the scholars resulted in a lot of research in language teaching. People shared their experience and new research methods. A factual study was conducted by all the like minded people in the year 1924 under the name of 'Modern Foreign Language

Study' (quoted from Stern 1984:101). Their main aim was to solve the problem of devising a method for language teaching/learning. The study advocated a reading knowledge of the second language. It also suggested the use of word counts and sentence and idiom lists in a two year language course.

This was the situation in language teaching circles of American society in the period between the two world wars. At the beginning of World War II, the United States of America faced difficulty on the language front. The language problem was acute in the dealings of USA and its allies. The USA government could not come up to expected levels for its army, at least in terms of the supply of language material. To overcome this problem USA army administration set up a language course called 'Army Specialized Training Programme' with the help of educationists and linguists. The results were surprising, and satisfactory to that extent that even after the war, some language schools continued this 'Army Method'. Actually, this was a wrong nomenclature. No such method even existed. It was a conglomeration of various methods to achieve the target. The linguists and anthropologists of those times advised that instead of wasting time in learning grammar, one should resort to the imitation of spoken forms of the native speakers. Boas, Sapir and Bloomfield, linguists who had a vast knowledge gained through experience with exotic languages were in the forefront.

The post war situation had its influence on foreign language teaching methodology. The interest of learners of foreign languages drove the teachers to find new and convincing methods. The schools of language and universities began to think of better ways. The emergence of bodies like the United Nations and its annex wing UNESCO were responsible for official recognition of several languages in order to secure inter communication on a national or international level. Fast developing technology, ever increasing cultural exchange and migration were the factors which influenced the learning of foreign languages. In this period, new educational technology was used in the foreign language teaching class room. Tape recorders and television were extensively used in the classroom. In order to tackle the problem of foreign language teaching/learning, new organizational patterns were used. The Audio-lingual method came into usage, which put more emphasis on speech. Speaking skills in the language and oral practice were given a prominent place. Once again during the years 1960-70 some more new methods were tried to achieve much wanted success.

Noam Chomsky, an American Linguist, who is considered by many of his contemporary scholars on linguistics and educational psychology as one of the pioneers, has exerted considerable influence on foreign language teaching and

learning methodology. The study of language and the mind, which speaks about primarily how humans understand, produce, store and acquire language was discussed by Chomsky. This is all in general a part of psycholinguistics studies. Chomsky introduced the theories connected with language acquisition in his course of discussion about transformational generative grammar. Though he was not primarily concerned with language acquisition he began his arguments from that base. Human aptitudes relating to the mind covering the capacity to perceive, learn, think and make judgements were considered as cognitive abilities. There is generally a considerable amount of disagreement as to whether general cognitive abilities account for language. It is agreed that humans undoubtedly use general cognitive abilities when they speak in order to make sense, but the ability to handle structure may be separate. This ability to handle language structure was termed by Chomsky (1968) as innateness (of language). It does not mean that language actually exists at birth, but that it is pre-programmed to develop as individual natures. It is also a maturationally controlled behaviour. Chomsky (1965) strongly argues for this innateness in individuals. He went further and proposed the LAD (Language Acquisition Device), which is a system for learning language. In his book *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965) Chomsky, suggests that every human is innately endowed with this LAD system. LAD, according to Chomsky, comprises three components. (1) Knowledge of

Linguistic Universals, which included information about the basic building blocks of the language and some general principles of language organization; (2) a hypothesis-making device, to enable children to make increasingly complex guesses or hypothesis about the rules underlying the speech they hear around them; and (3) an evaluation measure, so that children could decide which grammar was best, in case they came up with more than one possibility.

According to Chomsky (1968) the capability of a speaker to abstract grammatical knowledge which enables him to produce a grammatically correct sentence in a situation is called 'competence'. 'Competence' and 'performance' were the two notions introduced by Chomsky. A person's linguistic system versus actual examples of language produced by him using the system were defined under these. The distinction is important because there may be considerable difference between some one's knowledge of their language and what he or she is actually able to produce, as in the case of children, or people suffering from some types of speech disorder. The notions were introduced by Chomsky (1965) though a similar dichotomy was proposed much earlier by the Swiss Linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1916), when he spoke about 'la langue' and 'la parole'.

For the perspective associated with transformational generative grammar, linguistics was concerned with two

dimensions: linguistic competence and linguistic performance. Hymes (1971) disputes this theory and calls for 'an explicit place' for sociocultural features of the speaker's society. While agreeing that Chomskian theory is the best of its kind and that 'no modern linguistic theory has spoken more profoundly of either the internal structure or the intrinsic human significance', Hymes (1971) argues for communicative competence. Communicative Competence, according to Hymes, is the speaker's knowledge of the language which makes him communicatively competent in a speech community. The learner acquires both the knowledge of language and ability to make use of the language. This concept of communicative competence later took a turn towards communicative language teaching, and then came into being a new method with that name. In the early 80's of this century the method took a shape. The chart on the following page describes the innovation in the field of language teaching methods during the past hundred years.

<i>Period</i>	<i>Time</i>	<i>Main features</i>
I	16, 17 and 18 centuries	Grammar - Translation method
II	1880-1920	Compromise Method Modern Foreign Reading Method Language study Basic English (U.S.A./Canada)
III	1940 - 1950	Linguistic approach to language teaching. American Army Method. Intensive language teaching Army specialized Training Programme (ASTP)
	1950 - 1960	Audio lingual (U.S.A.) and Language Laboratory Psycholinguistics
	1960 - 1970	Audiolingual habit theory Vs Cognitive code learning (Caroll, 1966) Impact of Chomsky's theory, Socilinguistics. Modern research Method analysis (Macky 1965)
IV	1970 - 1980	Breakaway from methods concept- New methods

CHART 2 SHOWING CHANGES AND INNOVATIONS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

<p>Curriculum Emphasis.</p> <p>Speech Acts Needs analysis Discourse analysis Language for special purpose Immersion proficiency levels.</p>	<p>Human relations emphasis</p> <p>Individualization</p> <p>Humanistic techniques.</p>	<p>language learning research emphasis</p> <p>First and second languages. Child and adult Acquisition/ learning Erroranalysis Inter buguage studies</p>	<p>Miscellaneous</p> <p>Silent way Community language learning Suggestopedia etc.</p>
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C O M M U N I C A T I V E A P P R O A C H E S T O L A N G U A G E
T E A C H I N G

CHART 3 SHOWING CHANGE AND INNOVATION IN LANGUAGE TEACHING (1980)

From the chart 3 one may interpret that though they have different labels at different times, basically the under current was one and the same. But for minor changes one dominant method continued throughout.

Let me make my position clear here in the introduction itself. This historical account of the development of foreign language teaching methodology which is going to be basis of this thesis is a European, more specifically British, perspective on the development of language teaching/learning. Probably when we survey the audiolingual method it necessarily becomes a part of more or less Anglo-American and I am fully convinced that even this Anglo-American perspective is only a representative of instructed tradition of Northern Europe and North America.

To put it in simple form we can summarize the language teaching trends in the following lines. From the mid nineteenth century onwards some educationists started expressing their views about the pitfalls and short comings of Grammar-Translation method and they also felt that the method is incapable of satisfying the needs of a foreign language teaching class room. The collective thinking of such educationists resulted in bringing in some changes in the existing method of foreign language teaching. Some individual scholars, like C.Marcel, T.Prendergast and F.Gouin, were among

those who tried to reform the methods. Their ideas were of some interest and contributed some new life to the existing method. Later on the work of individual educationists brought out a changed climate in the language teaching arena; speaking proficiency was given more importance, though not over other proficiencies, at least on a par with them. Research articles were produced by the teachers who are actually in the field and the linguists, who were able to throw some light on the language aspect. Sweet, Vietor and Passy were some note worthy scholars of this time. Their ideas and thoughts actually encouraged other scholars in the field. The efforts of all these scholars jointly and severally created a sound base and the movement which took shape was named the 'Reform Movement'. The contribution of this movement was that it specifically outlined some principles which were the basic foundation for scientific approaches to teaching of the foreign languages. The ideas of the movement fast developed and provided a suitable atmosphere for the other offspring 'the Natural method'. In this method, grammar was given least importance and no attempts were made to explain the grammar. Pupils had to discover the rules for themselves. Another important feature of this method was that the mother tongue of the pupil was never used in any form during the instruction period. In fact, throughout language teaching history, attempts have been made to make second language teaching/learning look like first language teaching/learning.

Natural language teaching was, as a matter of fact, the real foundation for Direct Method.

The emergence of the Direct Method had this glorious history. Thus it is relevant for our discussion. Direct Method added some theoretical basis for language teaching. This method though widely accepted, simultaneously was criticised for causing confusion, error and also a waste of time. The Direct Method was given official recognition in Germany and France. It was also widely used in England. During the World War II period, the Direct Method was employed for teaching of foreign languages. The emphasis on inculcating language behaviour and avoidance of rules in the foreign language class room, was considered as most important concept of the Direct Method. Although it was successful and welcomed by school authorities, more especially the private management school, the method as such had to face a lot of criticism also. The simple but sound comment was that the natural, direct way of teaching does not suit the foreign language class room. The other draw back was that it requires the teachers to have full mastery over the language that is being taught.

After the World War II educationists and language planners besides linguists started to think how best to reform and produce better teaching methods. In 1942 special courses for the army had been designed and introduced in USA which

were known as Army Specialized Training Programme ASTP). These courses which were designed specially to suit to the needs of army personal, drew the attention of teachers who were engaged in teaching foreign languages at schools. There was a great demand for English teachers. After World War II, the USA attracted a good number of students from various parts of the world and the students after entry in the USA, were required to take a training course in English before finally settling down to study their field of specialization. The training was mandatory for the students. This was the beginning of the American approach to English as second language course. This method was designed during that time, and it has come to stay as Audio-lingualism.

It was claimed that language teaching took the form of a science instead of an art under the Audiolingualism theory. It enables the learner to achieve the language effectively and efficiently. The Audiolingual method was widely used in America and other parts of the world. Basically Audio Lingual method is woven around structural linguistics, a linguistic theory which came into being as a revolt against the traditional grammar. The most important tenet of this method is that speech is the primary requisite of language learning/teaching. All individuals in their infant stage, start acquiring spoken language first and then proceed to read and write. Hence it is a necessity that one must give

importance to speech. The pioneers of the Audiolingualism method believe in the theory that language is speech and not writing. According to them language is a set of habits. I make a detailed study of this method in chapter 5 of this thesis.

Noam Chomsky, whom we already discussed in the earlier parts of this chapter, is the linguist to come out with some definitely modern views which are opposed to the traditional structural linguists. Though it was not for him to discuss the language learning/teaching devices, in his course of arguments in favour of transformational generative grammar, Chomsky observes that the current theories of language learning were not sufficient enough to give a new approach to language learning or teaching. His ideas of innateness and views about competence and performance gave a jolt to many others in the field.

Candlin (1976) and other British linguists, drew the academic community's attention to functional and communicative aspects of language. According to them, there was a need to divert the focus to communicative proficiency rather than to the structures themselves. On the other hand, improving ties between European countries forced linguists to improve the communicative aspect of language teaching. Europe, with its multinational population, took a lead and the Council of Europe began its educational activity. The Council was given

the responsibility of organizing conferences and publishing books about language teaching.

In 1971, a group of educational specialists began to work to develop and design a course on a unit-credit system in which learning tasks were broken into units. The scholarly contributions of Wilkins, Widdowson, Candlin, Brumfit and other British language experts, in collaboration with the work of the Council of Europe provided the theoretical foundations for communicative language teaching. I wish to discuss the details pertinent to this topic in chapter 6 of this thesis.

Most of the methods developed over the past few centuries are still in use in one form or other in various parts of the world. Where two languages come into contact there is a possibility of one group learning the other's languages or one group teaching their language to the other. Methods have their own specific features and characteristics, they flourished at different times in the history for different reasons of their own.

For the purposes of this thesis I restrict myself to the methods which were in vogue in the past one hundred years. The reasons for restricting myself are simply that I am of the firm belief that in the field of language teaching/learning during the past one hundred years many

changes have taken place either for good or bad. The latest developments prove the axiom correct. 'History repeats itself' I present a brief summary and my own views in the chapters as noted below:

Grammar Translation	Chapter 2
Reform Movement	Chapter 3
Direct Method	Chapter 4
Audiolingual Method	Chapter 5
Communicative Language Teaching	Chapter 6

In the last chapter 7, I wish to present a discussion of the role of Grammar in Foreign Language teaching by comparing the views of the scholars who practised the methods as discussed above.

Chapter 2 Grammar-Translation Method

2:1. Introduction

Before we actually go into the details of this method, it is necessary to describe the Grammar method. The Grammar Method existed before the Grammar Translation method in the language teaching/learning area. In this method rules of grammar are learned along with a group of words. The words are then combined in a string fashion according to the rule, thus paving the way for practice in the application of the rule. It is to be noted that knowledge of the rule is more important than its applications. It is interesting to note that in this particular method importance is not attached to either oral practice work or teaching of pronunciation. In pedagogical terminology this method is classed as a mental discipline. The advantage of this method is that the teacher need not be a fluent speaker of the language that is being taught. It is claimed that the method and the language learnt through the method are easy to test and equally easy to control.

The Translation method consists of practice in translating texts of the language. These texts are arranged in a graded manner, so that the difficulty increases as the learner proceeds ahead with his instruction. In this method learners are expected to translate from the foreign language to their own mother tongue, and later, after sufficient

instruction is done, from their mother tongue to the foreign language.

A method slightly deviant from this method is known as inter linear translation method. In this method an inter linear word for word translation and an idiomatic one are presented. For example a full length story is divided into smaller units, into sections of lesson length, each with a series of question and answers to accompany it, followed by a number of exercises in two way translation. Though this method looks apparently as a bit second-rate, the advantages of the method are many.

An advantage of this method lies in its practical utility. Like the Grammar method which is discussed above, the translation method can be taught to classes of any size. The teachers of language through this method can afford to be a bit second rate. Teachers with an imperfect knowledge of the language and no special teaching techniques either can be successful in this. It is an easy way of teaching and cheap economically, in the sense that the number of class periods may as few or as many as administratively feasible.

The Grammar-Translation method involves the qualities of both the methods, as well as disadvantages. The grammar which was aimed to be taught through this method happens to be an outline of formal grammar. This outline is supposed to be sufficient enough to handle the language situation.

The vocabulary that is taught depends on the texts selected for teaching. Language teaching proceeds with rules of grammar, isolated vocabulary items, paradigms and translation. To begin with easy classics are given for translation vocabulary is divided into lists of words which are to be memorized. In other words these are the words which are supposed to be hard words. It is to be noted that there is hardly any relationship between vocabulary in successive lessons. The vocabulary, thus, is not introduced in a graded manner. No specific care is taken to teach pronunciation and if it is cared for at all, it is restricted to a few introductory notes. The method is perfect only when grammar rules are memorized as units, which often include illustrative sentences.

Latin and Greek dominated the school curriculum in the Middle Ages and the position continued till the end of eighteenth century. The actual purpose of language learning was to train the brain. The learning of language was considered to be an intellectual discipline. People were of the opinion that Latin and Greek languages were the repositories of ancient civilization and any effort made towards learning or teaching of these languages was considered laudable. A major part of the curriculum and time were devoted in schools only for achieving this goal of Latin/Greek learning/teaching. Pupils might have preferred those ancient

languages. Exactly at this juncture there started a new trend in the sphere of language teaching / learning. European countries came close to each other and increasing commerce amongst the countries was one of the reasons that forced educationists to teach modern/foreign languages. No individual was interested in acquiring the knowledge of ancient form of the foreign language.

Individual learners of foreign languages in the eighteenth century used the 'traditional scholastic approach' (Howatt, 1984:131) to learn a foreign language. As a first step they acquired a reading knowledge of the foreign language by studying the grammar and later applied this knowledge to the interpretation of texts with the help of dictionaries. The advantage of being educated speakers in a different language, helped learners to make use of this technique. (Probably this may be stated as the initial stages for a sort of contrastive analysis, which has spread in the later years of language teaching). However, this method was found to be of no use in the case of beginners and younger school children because they had no complete knowledge of any language. Moreover, it was not fit to be adopted as a method for group teaching in class rooms. Hence there was need for a method which can accommodate all these aspects. The Grammar-Translation method was the outcome of such an approach which attempts to adopt the traditions to the situation that obtained in the schools, and

also the requirements of the pupils. The main motto of the Grammar-Translation method was to make language learning easier. Because the concepts of 'grammar' and 'translation' were familiar to both the teachers and students, the method as such retained the basic framework unchanged. This was introduced in secondary schools as an experiment to start with. It began at the end of the eighteenth century in Prussia and Germany. The first Grammar-Translation method oriented course for the teaching of the English language was compiled in 1793 by Johann Christian Fick, and was published in South Germany.

2.2 Theory of the Method:

Merchants and other adults had communication as their main aim when they were learning foreign languages. Scholars and students began to learn modern foreign languages and their basic goal was translation from the foreign language into the native language of vice versa. Learning of foreign languages was not for the purpose of communication. Teachers of foreign languages, on the same lines of learners, never considered communication as a goal. Students were given lessons on the same lines as those of Latin and Greek. The same methods and procedures were used. Grammar rules were introduced at the beginning which were followed by a big vocabulary list. At the

end of the vocabulary list, construction of sentences was explained, followed by translation. The textbook of this particular method consisted of sections or lessons organized around grammar points. Each grammatical point was explained in detail and illustrations were given in plenty. The students were expected to memorize the rules of grammar. Because communication of thoughts was given least importance, not much importance was given to the spoken aspect. In fact spoken skill was minimized to a large extent.

Richards and Rodgers (1986:3-4) sum up the principal characteristics of the Grammar-Translation method and I take those into consideration in the following parts of this chapter.

1. *The goal of foreign language learning through the grammar-translation method was to read its literature and also to benefit from the 'mental discipline' and 'intellectual development' that are the direct results of a foreign language study. Richards and Rodgers at this point, emphasise that the language could be learnt through its grammar rules, and further, an application of these rules in translation. This in turn automatically leads one to the conclusion that language learning is nothing but simple memorization of rules*

and facts.

2. *Reading and writing (which eventually means translation) skills were given the major role to play whereas the speaking skill was paid little or no attention.*
3. *Memorization and translation were used as means of learning a language. Words, however, were taught through bilingual word lists.*
4. *The sentence as a unit was taken into consideration as a distinguishing part, in this method. The reason was simply because the grammar was illustrated through the sentence which later on was translated.*
5. *Accuracy was emphasized throughout the method and a high standard was demanded.*
6. *In this method grammar was taught through a deductive method. Rules were presented and learners were given a chance to study and practise the rules and the practice as we know was dependent more on translation exercises.*
7. *The mother tongue of the learner was used as a medium of instruction.*

After reviewing the principal characteristics of the Grammar-Translation method as observed by Richards and Rodgers (1986) I wish to look into the practical method which was employed by the practitioner of this type of teaching.

A small passage / discourse of lesson containing some grammar points was presented at the first phase. These contained not only grammar points but were explained through example sentences. The learners were asked to memorize the particular grammatical rule and apply it in construction of the sentence. Memorization of the rules on one hand and application of the construction of sentences on the other hand actually involved a particular kind of intellectual activity and it is worth noting that language teachers felt the Grammar- Translation method was an intellectual activity which involved rule learning and memorization of vocabulary. Only those pupils who could achieve this task were considered good language learners.

As a matter of fact, Latin and Greek were given more importance and it was considered as a matter of prestige to know these languages, Modern Languages, which were not considered on par with Latin or Greek, were put in the next place. Teachers of modern languages who considered themselves next to the teachers of Latin or Greek, thought of employing the teaching methods which were employed by the teachers of the 'superior' or 'classical' languages. The so called superior or classical languages like Greek and Latin were taught through the Grammar-Translation method only. Thus people imitated the same language teaching method for modern languages also. They never considered the difference between

the languages or learners' attitude and aptitude. Text books were prepared to teach modern languages on similar lines to those of Latin or Greek. Introduction of grammar in traditional categories, followed by written exercises and bilingual vocabulary lists were the order of the lesson in the text books. Teachers of these books had no choice other than following the book in detail. The teachers were supposed to complete the text book within a given time and they had to adhere to the time stipulated. Besides this, the teacher himself was trained through this method earlier in his schooling days and he was not given a chance to view the possibility of application of other methods. Because of this, teachers continued to practise this method. The material which was used for teaching languages was strictly related to the needs of Grammar-Translation method. The material controlled the method and teachers had no option to move away from the method. Rivers (1972:16) is perfectly right when she summarizes this in the following way:

This method, then, aims at inculcating an understanding of the grammar of the language, expressed in traditional terms, and training the student to write the language accurately by regular practice in translating from his native language. It aims at providing the student with a wide literary vocabulary often of an unnecessarily

detailed nature: it aims at training the student to extract the meaning from the foreign text by translation into the native language and at advanced stages, to appreciate the literary significance and value of what he has been reading.

(Rivers 1972:16)

Besides learning the foreign language, the undermentioned aims were to be achieved by a long chain of academic activities in the native language of the pupil.

1. Grammar explanation
2. Memorization of vocabulary
3. Writing of paradigms and construction of foreign language sentences.
4. Translation.

The students were able to answer the questions in the written form but were hesitant to answer the same orally. This hesitation is because they were not being proficient with speaking skills. Along with non-development of speaking skill, the faculty of listening to the foreign language was not encouraged. The students were only given the knowledge of grammar and vocabulary.

2.2.1. Pioneers of the Method

Like other methods of language teaching, the Grammar-Translation method had its own impact in the field. There were some teachers who preferred to use this method and their service in the field is worth nothing. According to evidence available to us the teaching of the grammar and translation become popular in the eighteenth century and early nineteenth century. The teachers of this particular method applied the combination of grammar and translation in their language courses and made the course more and more active, simple and effective. The grammar rules were presented and then applied in shot translation practice exercises. At this juncture it is necessary to review the contributions of some of the scholars who propagated this method.

H. G. Ollendorff

Ollendorff was born in a compromise period and he flourished through the stage when Reading and methods of equal importance ruled the language teaching field. He brought out the first example of his method and claimed it as ' a new method of learning to read, write and speak'. He was confident that one can learn a language within six months. This course

material was in German and it was designed for speakers of English and French. Ollendorff's system of acquiring a living language was based on a simple cognitive principle according to which each question almost contains the answer. The teacher explains the difference between question and answer before setting the question. It makes the student's job easy. Sentences for translation into the target language were given in the native language of the learner. Ollendorff is the first course designer who used a linguistically graded syllabus for language teaching material. His lessons were planned in such a manner that new points to be learnt were introduced in a systematic but simple way and the lesson never insisted on the learner completing the whole of a paradigm in haste. If needed, Ollendorff made two lessons to make the point clear. Howatt (1984), while discussing this point, appreciates Ollendorf. According to him,

Ollendorff's teaching courses have two original features of interest. The first is a curious and rather obscure theory of interaction on which he based all his exercises. The other, which is more substantial, is his system of linguistic grading.

(Howatt, 1984: 141)

Franz Ahn

Another educationist contemporary to Ollendorff, who ventured to work on the Grammar-Translation method was Ahn. He used this particular method in his foreign language classes. Being a school teacher in Aachen, Germany he published his language course material at the age of 30 in 1827. This scholar attempted to compile a French course for German learners. His attempt was applauded and taking a cue from this appreciation he published a Dutch course for Germans entitled '*Neue Hoelandische Sprachlehre*' within the next two years. He claimed that his method was 'a new, practical and easy method'. A French course appeared in 1834 and later other language courses such as German, English, Spanish, Italian and Russian were published. Each lesson in Ahn's course material was carefully designed for the foreign language learners/teachers. At the outset, a brief introduction to the pronunciation of new sounds, if any, was given. This pronunciation guide was followed by basic learning materials which were arranged in sections. Each section had an illustration and grammatical summary. There were at least a dozen new vocabulary items and finally there were some sentences to translate from the native language into the foreign language. It is not out of place to mention Howatt's (1984) observation about Ahn's course material and specially

the way Ahn took care to compile a Grammar section. Howatt in his tribute says,

Ahn's grammar notes require only a minimum knowledge of grammatical terminology : singular, plural, masculine, feminine etc. The vocabulary is useful on the whole, and the practice sentences are short and easy to translate.

(Howatt 1984 : 140)

Ahn and Ollendorff's practical aims were appreciated by critics. Of course there were some who criticized the presentation of Grammar in such a casual manner. According to them the students who look for standard explanation of grammar would go discontented because of ~~the~~ casual description of grammar.

Kroeh commenting on the practical method of Ollendorff and Ahn states,

Their leading idea is practice before theory and although they have been subjected to much well-deserved ridicule for the puerility of their examples, they mark an important advance in the art of teaching languages.

(quoted from Howatt, 1984: 145)

2.3. The Role of Grammar

In this method grammar was considered a basic feature of the language. For the scholars who preached this method, without grammar there is no language. The theme of this method was that one who learns a language through this method should become a master of the structure of that particular language. This was the philosophy of the Grammar-Translation method. Each lesson in the course material is designed in such a way that at least one or two new grammar rules are brought to light. Consequently at the end a learner will have a jungle of obscure rules, endless lists of gender classes and gender class exceptions etc. in his memory. Grammar was presented in two different ways. First it can be either through a graded introduction, or it may be that the whole paradigm is introduced in one lesson.

Ollendorff and Ahn included grammar rules in their text books which were graded and presented one by one in organized sequence. This was the position of Grammar in this method. This type of overemphasize on grammar was among the reasons which led scholars, educationists and learners to think of reforming the language teaching methods.

2.4. Critical Discussion

A student of modern language teaching/learning methodology will be able to notice in the history that the objectives of the Grammar-Translation method are too limited. The method as such served only highly intellectual students and it was not meant for pupil with low IQ rate. Students who were interested in abstract reasoning were required, for they would be able to understand the grammar, learn the rules and their exceptions. To memorize the paradigms and vocabulary lists, it was easy for such students. This method was too difficult for the less intellectual student who was prone to make mistakes during the learning processes. These mistakes, eventually, make student develop a negative attitude and the learning process leads the student to turn away from the class. As such the method never demands any thing from the teacher. If the teacher is tired, he can simply give a writing exercise and vanish from the class room. A large number of pupils can be taught by the techniques of Grammar-Translation method, because the students just listen to the techniques, copy the rules and write out the exercises. Teachers need not be imaginative as far as their lesson planning is concerned. While commenting on this method Rivers (1972 :17) observes,

Little stress is laid on accurate pronunciation and intonation; communication skills are neglected; there

is a great deal of stress on knowing rules and exceptions but little training in using the language actively to express one's own meaning even in writing.

In her characteristic way of dealing with the subject, she further comments that,

The language learned is mostly of a literary type, and the vocabulary is detailed and sometimes esoteric. The average student has to work hard at what he considers laborious and monotonous core vocabulary learning, translation and endless written exercises, without much feeling of progress in the mastery of the language and with very little opportunity to express himself through it.

(Rivers, 1972:18)

Ticknor, who was a professor of Modern languages at Harvard, USA, criticized the Grammar-Translation method during the course of his lectures on *The best methods of teaching the living languages*. The observations made by Ticknor in 1832, hold good even in today. Hawkins (1987; 129) mentions Ticknor who observed that,

Spoken and active methods were best: they should begin in early childhood; and grammar should not be introduced until age 13.

The very fact that in spite of vehement criticism against the method it continued over a long period as a preferable way suggests that no alternative better than the Grammar-Translation method was available to teachers. While appreciating the Grammar-Translation method Chastain observes that,

Grammar-Translation teaching had satisfied the desires of the mental faculties school of thought and the traditional humanistic orientation which placed primary emphasis on the belle - lettres of the country.

(Chastain, 1971 : 59)

In the same token in continuation he also points out the lapses in the method. He observes that,

..... it didn't prove to be entirely suitable to the world which merged from the aftermath of World War II.

(ibid : 59)

The Grammar-Translation method was ruling over the field of teaching methods, when Ploetz (1848) in Germany adopted Seidenstucker's (Who founded the sentence - based Grammar-Translation method in Germany) French text book (a book originally designed for French speakers) and laid emphasis on the practice of verb paradigms. Systematic grammar was the central theme of the course. In spite of the long standing and long ruling position in the field of language teaching methodology, the Grammar-Translation method had to face a strong criticism from educationists. It was considered as a cold and lifeless approach to language teaching. In general the entire responsibility for the failure of language teaching was attributed to this method.

Stern (1984 ; 456) explains the reasons for the failure of Grammar-Translation method and summarizes the following defects:

- (1) overemphasize of rules*
- (2) limitations of practice techniques*
- (3) sheer size of the memorization; and*
- (4) lack of coherence with language facts.*

We are aware that the first language of the learner has its influence on the second language that he is learning. Translation techniques automatically plays its role in the language learning process. Though not all, at least some of the learners of foreign language will find some interest in understanding the grammar part of the foreign language. Hence the teaching of grammar is appreciated by them. Furthermore, the practice of learning the formal features of the second/foreign language, and following it by translation, is just like a child's play with a crossword puzzle.

In the early nineteenth century notions about the view of language, language learning and language teaching, were moving ahead towards reforms. The Grammar-Translation Method underwent many changes and the Reform Movement was the result of this process. Foundations were laid for new approaches towards language teaching / learning methods. It is necessary for us to conclude this chapter by recalling the observations of Howatt (1984 : 129) He says:

The conventional picture of nineteenth century language teaching is one where the Grammar-Translation method, after a long period of domination, was challenged by the forces of reform at the end of the century and

successfully humbled by a saner, more rational and more practical approach.

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Chapter 3 The Reform Movement

3.1. Introduction

In the history of language teaching we find that before the beginning of the Roman Empire the Romans studied Greek as a second language. Their language learning was through Greek tutors and / or by engaging Greek slaves or servants in the household to help both in their language activity as well as household work. With the expansion of the Roman Empire it became necessary for other speakers to learn Latin. Latin at one stage went ahead to such an extent that it became the international language of the Western World. It was the only language of the state and church, and considered as the only language of learning, and was used as the only medium of instruction in schools. This case continued till recent times in the history of some European countries.

This brings us to the point that the first concern with the language teaching method was something that was closely related to the teaching of Latin. The methods of language teaching were tied to the limited scope of teaching Latin grammar which was primarily designed to train the clerks, artisans and such other employees of the Roman Government to acquire Latin, the language which was sole dominant tool in academic work.

The idea that dominated in the 18th century with regard to teaching or learning foreign languages was centred around one point, that is, to become master of foreign language in its written form. Academicians and people in general, considered written language as a fundamental concept of *the language*. As discussed in the earlier chapter, the Grammar-Translation method which dominated during those times enabled a foreign language learner to master the grammatical rules and by substituting the vocabulary, achieve the foreign language. A learner's knowledge of spoken language was never put to the test or in fact to begin with never practised. The main accusation directed against the Grammar-Translation method was that it ignores the nature of the child or learner of the foreign language, who is overburdened with lots of rules of grammar and vocabulary items. As a result of this opinion, the Grammar-Translation was considered an unsuitable method to teach a living language. Perhaps it is also significant to note that the first complaints about the bad method of teaching a foreign language (for example Latin) appear after the invention of printing. Greek and Latin classics were produced in the printing press and distributed throughout Europe for teaching purposes. The language that was used in Latin classics was several centuries old and it was totally different from the Latin that was spoken in the academic circles of contemporary Europe. However there were some

purists who considered that the Latin language that is used in classics is the standard, pure form and is the original form. They insisted that on this original form of the language the grammars and methods of teaching Latin as a foreign language should be based. As language changes, spoken Latin deviated from classical Latin to a greater extent and a final stage emerged where the written and spoken varieties of Latin were not comprehensible with the help of the same grammar rule. At this stage people started realising the lack of spoken language skills in foreign language learning and criticized the method itself.

At the same time approximately, there were a number of attempts to improve foreign language teaching by doing away with the learning of grammar for grammar's sake. Language teachers of those times were ridiculed by the modernists. The methods were considered as absurd and ineffective in toto. In 1878, Count Pfeil, in one of his academic contributions published in *Pedagogisches Archiv*, attacked the Grammar-Translation method in foreign language teaching. Summarising this and other points Gilbert (1953) observes this:

Critics of the Grammar-Translation method appeared quite early in the century; they became numerous after 1850, and by 1890 the movement for reform had become international.

(Gilbert, 1953 : 4,1)

When we study foreign language teaching history towards the last part of nineteenth century we come to know that the situation of modern language teaching was not so satisfactory. The picture for Europe was in many ways different from that of North America. There were even considerable differences within Europe. Studies such as those by Marechal (1972) on Belgium or by Apelt (1967) and Rülcker (1969) on Germany contribute to a better understanding of similarities and differences among European countries. It also must be borne in mind that the history of English and French as second or foreign language in Africa and Asia has again peculiar characteristics which make it different from the history of foreign language teaching in the European and North American school system. Languages were little attended to by the teachers as well as the taught, in European schools. Students did not look upon foreign languages as an important part of school curriculum. Among the various reasons for this unsatisfactory situation of modern language teaching, unsound methods of teaching and unskilled teachers also find a place.

On the other hand it was noticed that people in European countries began to travel, mainly for commercial purposes and this eventually led to more communication amongst the groups mainly through foreign languages. European commercial travellers had to acquire, though not a native like

command, a good amount of proficiency in speaking the foreign language. Educationists had to innovate in methods of foreign language teaching. There were many scholars who worked in this field and their main aim was to improve speaking proficiency rather than any other aspects of language learning skills. There were different strands of development according to countries, languages and institutions.

In Germany, England, France and other parts of Europe, new approaches to foreign language teaching were developed by individual language teaching specialists, each with a specific method for reforming the teaching of modern language.

(Richards and Rodgers, 1986:5)

An important issue to remember at this point is the total ignorance of phonetics in language learning/teaching in the public schools. The learners, because of lack of instruction with regard to the phonetic aspect of the language, could not attain correct pronunciation. As a rule, fluency in speaking was never attained at public schools. There were no cases, where the students acquired good foreign language ability at public schools. This generalization may sound as if it is far away from the truth, but the observations made by later scholars make us believe the same.

Like other parts of Europe, England also underwent the same problems. The Grammar-Translation method dominated the entire field and from 1850 onwards a good number of educational reformers began to give importance to spoken language and reading. The last decades of the nineteenth century saw a dramatic change. In 1890 a conference of modern language teachers was held in England. This conference had two important decisions to its credit. (1) phonetics should be the basis of all modern language teaching; (2) a reading book should be the centre of instruction. As noted by Hawkins (1987:125), the conference passed certain resolutions which were the basis for theoretical development in the field of language teaching. The conference recommended more oral work and reading. The conference called for a more 'concrete' study of grammar while acknowledging that grammar must be learned systematically and could not be abolished without abolishing mental discipline.

A determined effort was however flourishing long before the movement began in 1882. The efforts were directed at (1) bringing modern foreign languages into the school and university curriculum on their own terms, (2) emancipating modern language more and more from the comparison with the classics and (3) reforming methods of language teaching in a decisive way. This period of reform itself is the culmination of long standing criticism, discussions and attempts to reform

that reach back into the middle of nineteenth century and earlier. More details of this aspect can be found in Gilbert (1953, 1954, 1955). The Reform Movement involved great scholars like Sweet, Viëtor, Passy and Jespersen. It also involved some language teachers like Walter and Kinghart in Germany, Widgery and Macgowan in England. Further, promoters of language teaching as a commercial venture were also involved. (For details Gilbert, 1954). The Movement affected the school system, and led to administrative action on the part of ministries of education. There came into existence, some newly created organizations such as the International Phonetic Association and different language teachers associations and this led to an intensive debate on language teaching. Gilbert (1953) mentions that the importance of oral work and reading, direct association, phonetics, and the inductive teaching of grammar were recognized in England much earlier. The Reform Movement in other parts of Europe was late for several reasons of its own. Hawkins (1987) observes certain aspects of the society of those times and cites the attitude of learners as a reason for delaying reforms in language teaching/learning.

1.Orthodoxism: *People were not mentally prepared to accept any change in the age old traditional system.*

2. Non-existence of co-operation among universities:

Educationists were not ready to make changes in the existing system of teaching of languages.

3. Low status: *The students and teachers always gave a low status to foreign languages and both of them never looked upon the subject as an important part of the curriculum.*

4. Boring: *Learning foreign languages on the other hand was considered as a boring activity.*

3.2. Theory of the Movement:

The Reform Movement came into being because of the incapability of the Grammar-Translation method which neglected the oral aspect of the language. Many educationists and scholars were involved in this movement and as a result the aims and objectives were also multifaced^{ed} and varied. Generally the Movement emphasised oral work in the foreign language teaching class room, especially in the early stages of learning. It was mandatory for teachers to use only the

foreign language as a means of communication in the classroom. Using the native language of the students was restricted to such occasions as explaining new vocabulary and grammar points. Some scholars gave importance to the reading skill and they had no hesitation in giving precedence to reading skill over other skills in the foreign language learning/teaching. The Reform Movement is founded on three basic principles viz. (a) the primacy of speech, (b) the centrality of the connected text and (c) the absolute priority of an oral methodology in the class room. (Howatt, 1984:176)

The leading theme in *DER SPRACHUNTERRICHT MUSS UMKEHREN* compiled by Viëtor is the primacy of spoken language. He was an ardent critic of the negligence of speech in the existing language teaching classroom. He observed that if speech was taught, it was done on very bad lines because the teachers themselves had inadequate and bad pronunciation. He suggested that the Reform must provide an accurate description of speech based on the science of speech sounds, i.e. Phonetics. He suggested some adequate training for the language teachers. Viëtor follows Sweet who believed that a preliminary training in general phonetics is a must, if the system of studying modern language was ever to be reformed.

Paul Passy, a phonetics teacher at Daniel Jones's school was mainly responsible for the International Phonetic Teachers' Association to come into being (Gilbert, 1953:9,II). He joined amongst others by Vietor and Sweet. This association advocated the principles as listed below. At this point it is necessary for us to have a glimpse at the history of England.

England is a country in which certain aspects of language teaching have an unusually long history. Language description becomes a matter of practical importance to a nation when it evolves a standard or official language for itself out of the water of diverse and conflicting local usages normally found in any territory that has been settled for a considerable time, and it happens that in this respect England was, briefly, far in advance of Europe. Elsewhere, the cultural dominance of Latin, drove the contemporary languages to be mere vernaculars unworthy of serious study. When Latin lost its role and cultures began to advance along national lines in the Reform Movement, England went ahead with its 'Practical language teaching methodology'. By this term what I mean is such an activity as orthoepy (the codification and teaching of correct pronunciation), lexicography (a study of vocabulary) invention of shorthand systems, and spelling reform. Phonetic study in the modern sense was introduced by the IPA.

The principles of the Movement were:

1. *The study of spoken language.*
2. *Phonetic training in order to establish good pronunciation habits.*
3. *The use of conversation texts and dialogues to introduce conversational phrases and idioms.*
4. *An inductive approach to the teaching of grammar.*
5. *Teaching new meanings through establishing association with the target language rather than by establishing associations with the mother tongue.*

The main beliefs which dominated the Reform Movement can be summarised in the following manner:

1. *Speech is the primary goal of learning foreign languages.*
2. *Phonetics should be applied in teaching languages and in teacher training.*
3. *Listening skill should be given precedence over reading.*
4. *Words should be presented along with meaningful sentences. Words were introduced through context and discussed.*
5. *Grammar instruction is through inductive method.*

6. *The mother tongue or native language of the learner should be avoided at all places except in explaining new words.*

I take this summary by Gilbert (1953: 12,II) as a basis for Reform Movement analysis.

3:2:1. Pioneers of the MOVEMENT.

We pointed out earlier that, despite the common principles of the Reform Movement, there were differences among the people involved. In the following section, we shall consider some individuals' ideas and in particular their views of grammar teaching.

WILHELM VIETOR

The Reform Movement came into public view suddenly with the publication of Vietor's pamphlet "Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren!" (Language teaching must start afresh) in 1882. He attacked the current Grammar-Translation method, and he particularly criticized the teaching of grammar. He said that the mistaken approach based on written language does not teach a new language. Even if the teacher succeeded in stuffing the pupils' heads with the best grammar and dictionaries, they still would not know the language. So he wanted to show us the importance of oral work in the teaching of foreign language. He quoted Sayce:

Languages consist of sounds, not of letters, and until this fact is thoroughly impressed upon the

mind, it is useless to expect that languages will ever be studied aright. Language, moreover, is formed and moulded by the unconscious action of the community as a whole and like the life of the community is in a constant state of change and development. Consequently, we cannot compress the grammar of a language into a series of rigid rules, which, once laid down by the grammarians, are as unalterable as the laws of the Medes and Persians.

(quoted in Howatt, 1984:347)

He thus tried to explain to his contemporaries that grammar is not unalterable because it is created by the community which constantly changes and develops. So grammar rules are not eternal. He again quoted Sayce:

We shall never be able to speak a foreign tongue by simply committing to memory long lists of isolated words. Even if we further know all the rules of the grammarians, we shall find ourselves unable in actual practice to get very far in stringing our words together or in understanding what is said to us in return.

(quoted in Howatt, 1984:347)

After giving some evidence, he argued that the methods applied to teach the foreign language, especially pronunciation, were wrong.

In a word the pronunciation of English and French taught in our schools is gruesome. It seems we need no further evidence to show that learners fail to grasp that contemporary speech is no more than an isolated moment in the on-going process of phonetic change, and never attain any real understanding of the spoken language as it really is.

(Howatt , 1984 , :349-350)

By criticising the method of teaching grammar he said that the emphasis on written language and rules confused the pupils' minds. Talking about the exceptions in the grammar, he mentioned that pupils are not taught the actual difference between, for instance, the regular plural which is formed by adding S and ES, and irregular plurals, and the third person singular of the simple present tense. Another example is the Past tense and the Past participle which are formed in a similar manner. The verbs, strong and weak, the comparatives (ER, EST) and so on. So he suggested that these items of grammar had to be taught in a satisfactory way. He criticized the way in which the child

learns the grammatical rules by heart after memorizing the words, saying it is the wrong way to teach or learn the language. He proposes, rather, to waken ~~the~~ child's creative ability, and suggests that pupils should discover things by themselves by struggling, and by doing a lot of work. He considered it useless to present everything on a platter to the learner. He said that this way of teaching a language is pedagogically harmful arguing that the child, in this way of learning, does not take any interest. He will mechanically parrot what he needs from a book or hears from his teacher. He never understands the rule properly. He neglects his mind and use them as models for his exercises. Coming to textbook content he says that 99% of them deal with language teaching in the wrong way. These books do not contribute anything but create mental confusion, because the writers of these books just collected pieces of information, funny stories and carnival jokes, and presented them as textbooks in school. According to him it is a waste of time dealing with these books.

In his opinion if we want to learn a foreign language, we should first think in that language, we should acquire the foreign accent and sounds with living language. He agrees with Sweet that the reform of language teaching should be on the basis of preliminary training in general phonetics, pronunciation and elocution of the mother tongue.

He rejected Kuhn's idea of saying that the grammar points should be graded systematically in reading texts. He suggests a lesson plan and says that the teacher should read a short text, the pupils listen with their books closed, the teacher explains new vocabulary, the text read is again by the teacher or any volunteer from the class, the pupils follow in their books, ask questions about the content of the text - answers should be in the foreign language - then the pupils retell the story with their books closed. In part of the period some written work should be done. One important thing in his lesson plan is there is no homework at all. In answer to the question, "Where then is the grammar?" he said that the teacher should explain a specific grammar point at intervals by revising the text and it should be done very systematically so that the grammar builds up over the course of time. Giving importance to speech, he says that the foreign language should be spoken in class all the time. He starts from the axioms "Die Sprache besteht aus Lauten und nicht aus Buchstaben" (Language consists of sounds not letters). And he quotes Sayce, "Language does not consist of isolated words".

His belief that speech is sounds not letters led to the emphasis on phonetic training to improve the pronunciation of English and French. Criticizing the Grammar-Translation methods he said that a pupil makes two

mistakes when he learns grammar and the dictionary by heart. First he puts the isolated words in a proper order. By doing this he, the learner, does not take any interest in the rule: he does not realize that it is a fact of language. Second he doesn't have any practice in oral work, although sound is the basis of language and language must be learnt first through speech.

To conclude, we can say that Vietor insisted on two aims: reading with understanding and reproduction, which enable the child to think in a foreign language.

Felix Franke

Felix Franke reinforced the work of Vietor in 1884 in his book "Die Praktische Spracherlernung". Franke tried to state the fundamental principles underlying study of language. He explains two different procedures of studying a language. First "we may try to make conscious this unconscious content of the mind"...."in other words, we seek knowledge about language and this is what the grammatical method achieved". Secondly, "we may wish to achieve the power of using the language we try now to construct in our minds a similar unconsciously working speech mechanism as the vehicle of our thoughts- we now seek the language in

the forms of our thoughts." Gilbert states the practical principles arising from Franke's discussion:

1. The real word is the spoken word - therefore speech comes first reading and writing second.

2. Learn the foreign language through the foreign language so that expressions are acquired unconsciously and the foreign language is learnt as an organism of its own, i.e. within itself.

3. Try to associate the spoken word with the original idea, instead of linking the symbol of the foreign word through the eye to the word in the mother tongue.

(Gilbert , 1953:10, II)

He advocated the idea that learners should learn grammar in way they learn in their mother tongue. It should not be explained separately.

HENRY SWEET

Sweet was born in London in 1845. He was the first man who mentioned the German movement in England in his lecture on the "Practical Study Of Language" in 1884. He recommended the books of Vieter and Franke, and he quoted

two of the principles of reforms from Klinghardt:

that foreign language are to be learnt (a) by means of connected texts, the grammar being kept in the background and (b) by imitation, thinking in them and not by translation.

(Gilbert , 1953:15 ,II)

His major work "The Practical Study of Languages" appeared in 1899. This book is divided into three main sections. The first section deals with the teaching of phonetics and its practical application in pronunciation teaching, and the use of transcription starting with the spoken language. The next section contains a logical exploration of methodological principles and practices covering grammar, vocabulary, the study of texts, translation and conversation. The last section contains a series of essays on specific topics. The aim of his book was to suggest the most efficient and economical way of learning languages.

According to Sweet language learning must be based on phonetics. Explaining this he says that accurate pronunciation is acquired through phonetics, ie a system of sound notation. As Sweet sees it, successful language

learning will be obtained only through the acquisition of accurate pronunciation.

With respect to grammar, Sweet talked of inductive teaching. By this he meant that the isolated sentence will be the bridge between texts and grammar, not the vehicle for presentation of information. In the inductive approach the teacher selects examples of the new grammar from the text, presents them to the pupils and explains how they work. Finally the pupils draw conclusions with the help of the teacher. So he insists on producing a natural textbook which should not be designed on the basis of grammatical categories, suggesting four criteria for a good text: Direct, Clear, Simple, and Familiar. The process of learning the mother tongue cannot, according to Sweet, be used or reproduced in learning a foreign language.

He graded his curriculum for foreign language learning as follows. First in the Mechanical Stage, a learner should acquire good pronunciation and must know the phonetic transcription. Second in the Grammatical Stage, the learner builds his knowledge of grammar and acquires a basic vocabulary by working on the texts. In the third Idiomatic Stage, a learner develops his lexical knowledge. These three stages complete the language learning course, but stage four "Literary" and five "Archaic" are university

level and are devoted to the study of literature and philology. Howatt comments on Henry Sweet in these words:

However, with Sweet the learner is never sharply in focus. At times he appears to be the grammar-school pupil that the other reformers had in mind, but at others, he is the kind of educated adult student of English that came to Sweet for private lessons at his house in Reigate. Sweet's learner is an abstraction rather than a real person with likes and dislikes, capacities and limitations whose progress varies from lesson to lesson, the sort of individual that emerges, for example, in the writing of Jespersen. There is no doubt that Sweet's concern for his learner is genuine enough, but in the end it is rather lonely, the perfect teacher with the perfect learner in an entirely rational world.

(Howatt, 1984 : 188)

Hawkins says:

Sweet's main theme was to stress the contribution of phonetics to the new science of language teaching.

(Hawkins, 1987:126)

He stressed that sound methodological principles must be based on a scientific analysis of language. He set principles for the improvement of teaching methods.

1. *Careful selection of what is to be taught.*
2. *Imposing limits on what is to be taught.*
3. *Arranging what is to be taught in terms of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing.*
4. *Grading materials from simple to complex.*

(Richards and Rodgers, 1986:7)

W. H. WIDGERY

In the eighties, several reports on German modern language conferences arrived in English educational journals and this aroused some interest. Widgery was one of those who brought the German ideas to England. He went to Germany for six months in 1885 and studied the German reforms thoroughly. Then he wrote six articles on "The Teaching of Languages in Schools". His articles included the more important works of reformers. He claimed that the Grammar method had failed and that the study of modern languages was superior to the classics. He said that speech is acquired by practice and the use of analogy and not through grammatical

analysis. In his opinion we must first learn to think in, before we think of the language,

As long as we think in English and translate into French, we do not know French.

(quoted in Gilbert, 1953:16, II)

Language is sound, he said, and he discussed phonetics and how it should be taught. He gave importance to listening skills, and suggested avoidance of translation as much as possible in the early stages. The reason for this is he said, "it helps to form wrong language habits and attitudes." By discussing classroom method he advised that present methods should be reformed.

His colleague W.S. MacGowan worked for reform in England. He was a French master at Cheltenham college who attacked the classicists. He insisted on a change of teaching methods and said that existing methods have no educational value. He advocated a new German method which was formulated in Germany:

This new method, while it ensures a complete mastery of a language also affords as adequate a mental training as that obtainable from classical study.

(Gilbert, 1953:17, II)

Under the leadership of Wiggery, a conference was held in 1890 which can be regarded as a focal-point for the movement. At this conference the leaders of reform movement summarized the views of the reforms in Germany, France and England.

FRANCOIS GOUIN

French reformer Gouin published "L'Art d'enseigner et d'étudier les langues", in Paris in 1880. An English translation appeared in London in 1892 under the title "The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages". He gave importance to Nature's way of learning languages and explained that a child who wants to learn a foreign language must see an activity and hear the sound of that particular experience expressed in speech and then he should try to visualise that experience. Doing this he can associate directly experience and expression: a situation which he has lived through and which he can recreate. This means that experience and expression become an internal part of him. Consequently he will think in the foreign language which enables him to speak in that language. As Gouin says: "To think is to speak, speech and thought are identical". He forces the child to think and establish a connection between the seen

and the heard. He advised us to avoid the usage of the mother tongue in order to cultivate the link between the imagination and its expression. Gouin suggested avoiding written and reading aids. He says,

Never allow any child to read or write any exercise that he has not heard, not repeated, not assimilated.

(quoted in Gilbert 1953:2, III)

Criticizing the Gouinian method, Gilbert says that it is not a complete method by itself, but it is a part or instrument of a method. He rejects Gouin's idea that the child's whole experience is gained by a series of actions and that linguistic development takes place as a consequence. Moreover he doesn't hold the permanent interest of a child. As Gilbert says, the class in this method becomes imaginary because this method's basic origin is mental visualisation whose validity depends upon an unjustified assumption:

Gouin's system is limited: it neglects reading, it relies too much on pure imitation and memorisation and excludes the use of the conversational technique as a means of self-expression and linguistic practice, here differing fundamentally from the

German Reform method. His rejection of objects and pictures as a means of explanation of foreign words constitutes another difference and is an unjustifiable restriction. Gouin exaggerates the possibilities of his method when he claims that a language can be learnt in one year by devoting two hours daily to the task. He forgets that the child already possesses the complicated native speech patterns which have a constant tendency to conflict with those of the foreign language.

(Gilbert, 1953: 7, III)

Gouin participated in the Reform Movement with the following ideas: speech should be taught and learnt before writing, formal grammar should be subordinated to the use of the language and language should be learnt through activity. This in fact means that grammar rules are to be learnt next to usage rules of the language. Gouin's method was used by Betie and Swan who founded the "Central School of Foreign Tongues" in London in 1892. After its success the method was introduced quickly into a number of schools. In 1894 about 200 schools of different types were using the method, and it was reported as a success by a large number of educationists, teachers and many journals of the contemporary times appreciated the method.

MAX WALTER

Walter was among other German reformers whose method and ideas were followed by quite a large number of teachers in England. He published a pamphlet, 'Der Französische Klassenunterricht', in Marburg in 1888. He believed in using connected passages rather than isolated sentences as a basis for work. He suggested reducing the use of the mother tongue. By criticizing the Grammar-Translation method, he rejected the constant jumping from one language to another. Walter suggested avoiding translation as much as possible. He says that a child learns the foreign language in a natural way by concentrating on oral work based on connected passages and by avoiding the use of the mother tongue. He draws our attention to the repetition of the sounds to enable a pupil to acquire a good pronunciation. Walter used reading work as a basis for analytical study and intensive practice in grammar and conversation. He used a very tough and laborious method during the first year. He reads, translates, the class imitates his pronunciation, writes, the whole class reads it in chorus and finally the pupil reads it and translates it. Then Walter asks about the grammatical parts of the sentence. As a homework, the pupils have to learn the meaning and spelling. Gradually he decreases the use of translation and questions in order to improve his technique.

He suggested inductive grammar as a principle and he showed how to carry out the principle in practice. He suggested many detailed practical exercises to be used by English teachers. Although it is noticeable that his grammar syllabus lacks careful grading, his section on grammar is still valuable today. As he devised a wealth of exercises. He devoted his small (30 pages) pamphlet to detailed practical exercises.

We have been discussing the Reform Movement' pioneers' contribution to the foreign language teaching methodology. Now it is time to summarize, in the following section, the grammar teaching advocated by the Movement.

3:3. The Role of Grammar.

In 1853, C Marcel, by giving precedence to reading over the other language skills, delivered an attack on the teaching of Grammar to young children and especially on making them learn it by rote. He said:

It is downright tyranny to impose on children the irksome task of committing to memory these abstract and to them, un-intelligible rules.

(quoted in Gilbert 1953:1 ,I)

He suggested that the grammar must follow reading not precede it, so grammar must be learnt by inducing the rules from the actual language. Sayce said:

We cannot compress the grammar of a language into a series of rigid rules,

and added,

Let the pupil first saturate his mind with sentences or phrases; there will be plenty of time afterwards to analyse these into words and grammatical forms.

(Gilbert 1953:1, I)

Viator by attacking the Grammar-Translation method suggested that pupils should discover the rules by themselves, which keeps pupils' interest in work. He advocated the idea which says that the ultimate goal of reading in the foreign language class is to enable the learner to think in a foreign language. Gouin declared his view about the teaching of grammar in these words:

We shall not commence either by declining or conjugating verbs nor by the recital of abstract rules, nor by mumbling over scores of roots or columns of a vocabulary.

(Gilbert, 1953:2, III)

He presents his visualisation theory for teaching grammar as well. Howatt, explaining the inductive teaching of grammar, says:

the third implication of a text-based approach was an inductive method of teaching grammar in which the language of the text provided the data for grammatical rules rather than being used to exemplify rules previously learnt out of context. Many writers before the Reform Movement had proposed a post text role for grammar but some reformers intended a much closer relationship between text and grammar, even to the point of constructing texts specially to 'illustrate' the grammar, a technique Sweet, for example, strongly rejected .

(Howatt 1984 : 173)

3:4. Critical Discussion

Language teaching reforms were aimed at a radical change from Grammar-Translation. Different methods were tried by the scholars who were not happy with the existing methods and materials. We are reminded of Sweet (1899), who

illustrates the criticisms and radicalism of the contemporary reform movements;

.....it is significant to observe that though there is great conversation in scholastic circles___ as shown in the retention of antiquated text-books, in the prejudice against phonetics, and so on ___ there are, on the other hand, many signs of dissatisfaction with these methods. This dissatisfaction is strikingly shown by the way in which new 'methods' are run after ___ especially the more sensational ones, and such as have the good fortune to be taken up by the editor of some popular periodical.

But none of these methods retain their popularity long ___ The interest in them soon dies out. There is a constant succession of them; Ollendorf, Ahn, Prendergast, Gouin ___ to mention only a few ___ have all had their day. They have all failed to keep a permanent hold on the public mind because they have all failed to perform what they promised: after promising impossibilities they have all turned out to be on the whole no better than the older methods.

(Sweet : 1899/1964 : 2 ___ 3)

Some associations and institutions flourished during this time in the light of Reform Movement. In 1883 the Modern Language Association of America came into existence. In 1886 ~~the~~ International Phonetic Association came into being and a journal under the title "Le Maitre phonetique" saw the light of the day. In 1900 the Report of the committee of twelve, of the modern language association of America was published. The background of the committee was that in 1896 at the suggestion of the National Education Association the body came into being and they suggested a compromise solution on the method controversy.

In fact during the Movement period many trends appeared in the field. Among these the methods worth mentioning are 'Reading method', 'Phonetic method', in which mostly the direct association of foreign word was involved. A method, which is a combination of all these four methods also followed them, which is direct method. The reading method surfaced briefly and slowly it was forgotten by later instructors. The natural method ~~and~~ phonetic method were the forerunners of the direct method.

From the survey made above it is evident that the German Reform Movement provided a foundation for the English Reform Movement. Germans thoroughly made a study of new

science of speech sounds, i.e. phonetics and along with that they also looked at the history and development of language teaching methodology. At the same time general studies of natives of the language were also made. These studies later came to widen the scope under the noted label of science of language i.e. Linguistics.

The Reform Movement gained momentum with the arrival of Paul Passy, a noted French Phonetician, who first introduced the concept of good pronunciation in the language teaching/learning. Educationists, the language instructors and phoneticians took interest in this movement and they co-operated with each other on ^{an} international basis.

Towards the end of 19th century, though the Reform Movement drove people into a new era of language teaching methodology, the learners of foreign languages started feeling a bit of discomfort for the reason that they were incapable of communicating in the foreign language. Learning good pronunciation was no doubt an asset but the progress of language learning was still not fast. By the reading method students could get some language, but not to an extent that they wanted it to be. Thus, the traditional Grammar - Translation method totally vanished from the scene, and the Reform Movement produced several other methods.

At this point it is necessary for us to recapitulate the entire historical development of teaching methodology.

The Reform Movement dominated for a long period. It presented very new and valuable ideas to make language teaching better and it attracted many language teachers who adopted those new ideas with pleasure. Educationists, the specialists and phoneticians took interest in this movement and they co-operated with each other on an international basis such as Vietor in Germany, Passy in France, Jespersen in Denmark and W.H. Widgery in England.

Although this approach had some valuable fresh new ideas, it was realized that it failed to fulfil the needs of the modern language classroom, because the pupils could not fulfil their needs as they were incapable of communicating and negotiating in foreign languages. It did not enable the learner to use the foreign language fluently without hesitation.

However, the Reform Movement remains in the history of language teaching methodology as a transitional point (or bridge) between the Reading Method and Phonetic Method. The Reform Movement has definitely laid the seeds for betterment of teaching methods. One of the Movement's trends, as mentioned above, was direct association with the foreign word. This trend advocated usage of the same language which is being learnt in the classroom without

time for 'Direct Method' to emerge. Thus, we will now proceed to Direct method in language teaching methodology, which once ruled over the arena.

Chapter 4. Direct Method

Reforms in language teaching methods went ahead under different names. The very name 'Reform Method' was the first to come into existence. Natural method, psychological method, and phonetic method were some others to follow . . . the Reform Movement. To quote Stern (1984:457),

the most persistent term to describe the various features of new approaches in language teaching was the term 'direct method'.

The Direct Method is the one of the most widely known and practised language teaching methods and also, at the same time, it caused the most controversy. The method is different from other methods in several ways. The use of every day vocabulary and structure of the language are the primary need for this method. This means, the method insists on the spoken variety of the language. Unlike other methods, in the Direct Method of language teaching, grammar is introduced through a situation. In order to make the situation look natural, many new items are introduced in the same lesson. Thus language to the learner sounds natural and this naturalness in turn encourages normal conversation. Oral teaching of grammar

and vocabulary is mandatory in this method. Concrete meanings of the items are introduced through object lessons and abstract meanings are introduced through association of ideas. One important factor for the method is that grammar and grammatical knowledge is imbibed through visual presentation. Extensive listening is encouraged throughout and simultaneously imitation of the forms is encouraged until such a time when forms become automatic. Most of the work is done in the class room and it requires many class hours to be spent. As language instruction commences, right at the outset some time is devoted to pronunciation of the language and acquisition of pronunciation makes the pupil enthusiastic in the entire process. The introduction of phonetics into language pedagogy has in fact helped the Direct Method to flourish, the method had all the help of International Phonetic Association, for its aims.

By the end of the nineteenth century, educationists shared a common belief that pupils learn language by listening to it and also by speaking it. According to these beliefs, a child could acquire the foreign language in the same way as he learned his first language. Various 'oral' and 'natural' methods developed in this sense. All these methods advocated the learning of a foreign language by the direct association

of foreign words and phrases by avoiding the native language. The writings of Sweet, Vietor and Passy, besides several other Reformists, explained how linguistic principles could be put into practice at the time of teaching a foreign language in a class room situation. But unfortunately none of these proposals took a concrete shape in the form of a method. Meanwhile, taking a cue from the ideas of the Reform Movement, a specific interest in developing principles of naturalistic language teaching took a shape. This is what later came to stay as the Natural Method of language teaching.

The Natural Method of language teaching is similar to that of the Direct Method, in so far as it commences with questions on objects and pictures. The earlier part of the introduction of language course is similar in natural method and Direct Method. In the natural method new words are explained by means of already known words. The meaning is taught by inference. In the natural method, just like the Direct Method, there is no use of the first language; there is absolutely no translation; there is no mention of the second language. However, grammar is used to correct mistakes if any. In order to remember the partly forgotten words, a dictionary is used. In the natural method, the scholars who preached and practised it presented it in the order of listening, speaking, reading, writing and grammar.

As mentioned in the chapter 3 linguists attempted to make language teaching effective by adopting different situations, under different labellings. They left the Grammar-Translation method and resorted to Reform Method: Phonetic method, natural method, psychological method. The label Direct Method was apt and appropriate. It remained for describing the various features of new methods in foreign language teaching. It became generally acceptable to all the language learners who belonged to different fields of the modern world, which includes industry, international trade and travel.

The impetus to the direct method can be partly attributed to practical unconventional teaching reformers who responded to the need for better language learning in a new world of industry and international trade and travel, such as Berlitz and Gouin.

(Stern, 1984:457)

Although in the following years the basic principles of the Direct Method, i.e. to avoid translation and use foreign language in all situations, were not integrally applied, the influence of the method on theory and practice was deep rooted and widespread. In Great Britain, a compromise policy, i.e. to adopt the Direct Method's emphasis on the spoken language and some other techniques were recommended in the interwar years, (Stern, 1984:457)

On the continent the Direct Method had its influence on learning of French and English in the early stages. In the United States of America, Desouze, Director of Foreign Language Studies in Cleveland Ohio introduced the in-narrative method under the name 'Cleveland plan.' The Public schools in Cleveland introduced the plan. The use of the foreign language as a medium of instruction in the foreign language classroom, was one of the features of the plan. Translation as a technique was totally avoided under this plan.

In fact in the history of language teaching methodology, we find that many attempts have been made to make second language learning comparable to first language learning. A child who was kept away from his native language peer group and brought up in a different language group like Latin, became an expert in Latin. A German child, who is separated from his parents soon after the birth and brought up in an English household will learn English only. This in fact proved that the language environment is what is needed. Sauveur, (1860) introduced natural ways of teaching in language classes in his Boston school. His method was based on the question-answer technique. Intensive oral interaction in the target language was undertaken. The details will be discussed later.

4.2. Theory of the Direct Method

The Direct Method introduced a new vista to the foreign language learner. The focus hitherto was on the literary language and the introduction of the Direct Method in the foreign language classroom brought in the spoken language. Scholars believed that learning of a foreign language was similar to that of first language acquisition, Direct association of foreign words by connecting them with the concepts of the outside world was emphasised in the method. The method propagated the abandonment^{of} the mother tongue from the learning process.

According to the main tenets of this method, a learner is supposed to acquire the language points in the way he does at the time of gaining his first language. In the terminology of language learning/teaching, we use different nomenclatures to denote this gaining of language knowledge. The first language is gained through cognitive ability and this process is put under 'acquisition of language'. The second language is gained through behavioural ability and this is what is labelled as 'learning of language'. An infant will be in a position to acquire the grammatical patterns of his mother tongue without any instruction. This is what is described by Chomsky as

'innateness'. The knowledge of rules of language forms a part of the child's competence level. His ability to make use of this knowledge is what Chomsky defines as performance level. In the case of a foreign language, the competence is not innate in the child. He learns it through careful listening and practice. In the process of learning a foreign language through the Direct Method, attempts were made to create an artificial atmosphere where no other language other than the target language is heard by the student. An atmosphere similar to that obtained in first language acquisition was to be created. (However, the fact that mother tongue of the learner interferes with foreign language, is kept aside at this juncture.) In spite of such ^{an} atmosphere, it is felt that in certain areas of language learning the Direct Method differs from first language acquisition. The salient features of the method are listed below:

Method & Material: (1) question-answer technique

(2) use of text as a basis of learning

(3) usage of pictures and objects

(4) imitation

Procedures: (1) class room instruction was conducted
exclusively in the target language

- (2) vocabulary and sentences of regular daily routine
- (3) oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression. They were organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small but intensive classes.
- (4) Grammar was taught through the inductive method
- (5) New teaching points were to be introduced orally.
- (6) Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught through association of ideas and concepts.
- (7) Both listening comprehension and speaking comprehension were encouraged throughout
- (8) Correct pronunciation and grammatical knowledge were insisted upon.

(Richards & Rodgers, 1986:9-10)

Without naming the method, some scholars like Berlitz used the Direct Method in schools for teaching foreign languages. Whether it is called the Direct Method or not, the

teaching method that the scholars adopted had the following salient axioms:

<i>Never translate</i>	: <i>demonstrate</i>
<i>Never explain</i>	: <i>act</i>
<i>Never make a speech</i>	: <i>ask questions</i>
<i>Never imitate mistakes</i>	: <i>correct them</i>
<i>Never speak with single words</i>	: <i>use sentences</i>
<i>Never speak too much</i>	: <i>make students speak much</i>
<i>Never use the book</i>	: <i>use your lesson plan</i>
<i>Never go too fast</i>	: <i>keep the pace of the student</i>
<i>Never speak slowly</i>	: <i>speak normally</i>
<i>Never speak too quickly</i>	: <i>speak naturally</i>
<i>Never speak too loudly</i>	: <i>speak naturally</i>
<i>Never be impatient</i>	: <i>take it easy</i>

The first and second axioms are against the Grammar-Translation method. The third axiom is for the spoken language. The fourth and fifth axioms are more towards the psychological attitude of the learners. The sixth axiom is more towards creating a positive attitude. All other axioms are towards creating an aptitude favourable towards foreign language learning.

The Direct Method was first introduced in France and Germany by its supporters and later towards the end of the century it was recognised officially by the Government of Germany, France and Belgium (1900-1902). The international congress of modern language teachers was held in the year 1898 at Vienna and decided that the Direct Method should be used in all elementary teachings of the foreign languages (Hawkins, 1987 : 130). Heness, Sauveur and Berlitz (1934) introduced the Direct Method in the United State of America and the method was well received. The commercial language teaching schools which were run under their supervision established the Direct Method on a sound base. In the following sub-section of this chapter I wish to focus on the individual contribution of the scholars for the development and placement of the Direct Method.

4.2.1 Pioneers of the Direct Method:

J. S. Blackie

Blackie is the first individual who argued for the application of the 'natural method' in foreign language classroom. He worked as a professor of Latin and Greek. He based his argument on four elements of the natural language

teaching method. According to him the Direct appeal to the ear (listening comprehension and listening skill), occupies the first position. Secondly this appeal is made in circumstances where there is a direct relation, 'ipso facto' established between the sound and the thing signified. Thirdly, the listening practice is continued for a long time. Finally, the appeal is made under the circumstances which cannot fail to excite the attention. All these points Blackie (1845) mentions in his research article '*on the teaching of languages*' which was published in *Foreign quarterly review* (1845).

For a well ordered system of language study Blackie outlined as eighteen-step syllabus. According to him, in the first phase new words are introduced through their identification with objects and pupil are asked to repeat them time and again. The second phase limits itself to the practice of writing. In the third phase students are asked to listen to a short lecture the topic of which centres on some thing or object with which the students are familiar with. This phase is not only for listening comprehension but also aims at the extraction of grammar by deductive means. Finally in the fourth phase simple graded reading takes place.

Unfortunately Blackie's ideas were not well propagated. The Direct Method curriculum disappeared for a certain time. Some of his publications including the one in which he

criticises Ollendorf, were delayed in press and by the time they were placed before the public, others established their thesis in the field.

Gottlieb Heness:

Heness, a school teacher in Germany, introduced the object-lesson technique in his classes to teach German. The object-lesson advocates the use of pictures. By gesticulating actions and gestures the teacher repeats a procedure of expressing the same picture repeatedly. Heness applied this method to teach German as a foreign language to American school children. In 1866, he introduced the same method to teach French as well as German. His lessons consisted of intensive instruction. He employed Lambert Sauveur to teach French. They used to talk to students in the target language for long periods of time without using a single word of English. The subject matter of the talk was be some object which was selected for instruction. The course was designed for four and half months at the rate of two hours per day. The students at the end of the course were supposed to have had a lot of listening and speaking practice and be well aware of the target language. The informal gatherings with the teachers in the evening hours, helped the students learn the language fast without using a single English word.

The great success of this methodology encouraged Heness and Sauveur to open a school of modern languages in Boston in 1869. After spending some time in language teaching, the teachers who were encouraged by the growing response to the methodology, published their ideas about the language teaching/learning methodology. *'An introduction to the teaching of living languages without grammar or dictionary'*. The titles under which two books for French and German teaching were prepared by Sauveur and Heness were received well during their time and disappeared from the scene later.

Lambert Sauveur:

As mentioned in case of Heness above, Sauveur also published a book to teach French language without grammar or dictionary. His course was designed in such a way that it consisted of conversation for a long time without using a single word of English. The entire course material was in the form of a series of conversations. This material, however, survived in the later years, the topics of the lesson were interesting.

Here is a model of one of these interesting topics. The lesson is about parts of the body:

Revenons aux parties du corp.

Nous avons deux oreilles, un de chaque coté de la tête. L'oreille est l'organe de l'ouïe. Entendez-vous? -Oui, j'entends.- C'est un grand bonheur d'entendre. Le sourd n'entend pas, il est misérable. Est-il malheureux? - Je ne sais pas.- C'est bien. Les misérables ne sont pas nécessairement malheureux. Le vieillard entend-il?- Oui, plus ou moins; il y a des vieillards qui sont presque sourds. Il y en qui sont tout-à-fait sourds.

English translation:

Let us return to the parts of the body

We have two ears, one on each side of the head. The ear is the organ of hearing. Can you hear? Yes, I can hear. We are very fortunate to be able to hear. The deaf cannot hear, they are unfortunate. Are they unhappy? I don't know. Right, the unfortunate are not necessarily unhappy. Can old people hear? Yes, more or less: some old people are almost deaf. Others are completely deaf.)

(quoted in Howatt, 1984:199)

His first lesson contained 120-130 words which were acquired by the learners during the two-hour class period. He used gesture to convey the meaning. His students, first, did oral work for a month. Then they started the book. He did not teach the grammar at the beginning and students were not corrected while they were using the foreign language in the classroom. An admiration for his course was expressed by an eminent minister of the city. The pupils had spent about 25 hours into the course at this moment. Pupils were given the word 'God' to discuss. The pupils had a discussion for an hour with their teacher answering all questions. Then the minister said admirably:

It is admirable, it is done; how, I cannot imagine!

(quoted in Howatt, 1984:201)

If we look at his lesson it becomes clear that they contained grammatical points but they were not explained to the pupils. For example the lesson which we quoted earlier, contains: present tense, the use of 'is', 'are', singular and plural, possibility, and questions with 'can' and so on. Within a decade, Sauveur's approach emerged as a new development in language teaching in America.

MAXIMILIAN BERLITZ.

Immigrants who spoke different languages were rushing into the United States. They needed to learn the language of their adopted country in order to settle down in a new environment and to be able to cope with the problems of everyday life in a new language.

Berlitz, a German teacher who had also immigrated to America, opened a school in Providence, Rhode Island to teach German. Then he employed Nicholas Joly, a French teacher (exactly as Heness did). After his great success in his school, he opened language schools in other places. He had sixteen schools in the United States while in Europe he had thirty schools. He published two course books. Berlitz was an excellent systematizer of teaching material. In his classes, translation was strictly forbidden under any circumstances. A strong emphasis was devoted to oral work. Grammatical explanation was completely avoided until the later stage. Question-and-answer techniques were used in the class. His course was divided into two parts and each subdivided into two sections. The first section of part 1 begins with the classroom objects followed by the verb "to be" then common adjectives (big, small, thick, etc). Next vocabulary items were presented as well as prepositional

relationships. And from the lesson 5 lexical verbs appear. In lesson 8 the alphabet was introduced. The simple texts which contained everyday dialogues were introduced in the second section of part I. Question-and-answer techniques dominated in the most of the class work.

Howatt appreciates Berlitz and Sauveur for their contribution to the language teaching and says:

Without Sauveur, the Direct Method would not have happened when it did; without Berlitz, very few people would have benefited from it.

(Howatt , 1984:204)

We have been describing the contribution of the supporters of the Direct Method. We have seen how these advocated the avoidance of grammatical explanation in the early stages and abandoned the mother tongue in the classroom. In the following section we shall have a closer look at the "grammatical" aspect under the Direct Method's philosophy.



4:3. THE ROLE OF GRAMMAR.

The Direct Method advocated avoidance of grammatical explanation in the early stages. It assumed that the pupils learned the second language in the way they learned their first language. Another reason for the avoidance of grammatical explanation is that it is unlikely to be able to explain the rules of the language at the beginning without any help of the native language. Natural approaches were considered the best and ideal ones where a detailed grammatical knowledge is not essential. Supporters of the Direct Method do not give any significance to the grammar. Sauveur says:

The most beautiful lesson that I can imagine of any kind and assuredly the most interesting that there can be, is the first lesson given to a class learning a language without grammar.

(quoted in Howatt, 1984:199)

Grammar, in the Direct method, is learnt through practice. Pupils are required to derive all grammatical points from the text and to make their own structural

generalizations from what they have learnt by an inductive process. Through this way the Direct method kept the study of grammar at a functional level being limited to those areas which were being used in speech. When in the later stage grammar was taught more systematically, it was taught with the use of foreign language terminology.

4:4. CRITICAL Discussion: (Summary)

The Direct method familiarizes and accustoms the learner to think only in the target language by avoiding translation thinking. It makes the learner use the target language as native speakers. A learner uses the foreign language fluently without hesitation. The activity in the class begins by a presentation of a short text. Difficult expressions are explained in the target language or by gestures or actions and so on. To explain the meaning in a broad way, the teacher uses question-and-answer technique. Pupils are asked to discover the grammatical points by themselves. Class exercises consist of narration, free composition, dictation, etc. Much attention is devoted to pronunciation. It seems that this activity is very interesting and exciting. This method succeeded in releasing

students from the inhibitions often associated with speaking a foreign language in the early stages.

Its main drawback, however, was that it was hard to believe that the native language's learning conditions could be re-created in the classroom. The learner's native language speech habits determine the form in which he expresses himself unless he has been given systematic practice in second language structure especially where both languages are not parallel. The Direct Method does not provide such systematic practice of structure and consequently pupils do not know what they are doing. The Direct Method needs highly intelligent talented pupils to acquire the language by following its procedures. And the pupils with an average capability are left behind. It requires a native speaker teacher or at least a highly skilled one with native like fluency in the foreign language to apply the procedures and techniques recommended in the classroom. It needs a teacher with fluent capacity in the language in order to make the meaning clear in many ways without using mother tongue and he should have full command of pronunciation like native speakers to make learners pronounce in the same way as natives do. The teacher of the Direct Method is required to use most of his energy to convey the meaning without using the native language. The method was criticized for being suitable only for younger

pupils and for those whose parents could afford private tutors for their children, like Montaigne's father. The Direct Method was criticized for depending on the teacher rather than a textbook, as all teachers are not skilled enough to adhere to the Direct Method's principles. Like other language teaching methods, the Direct Method does not go far beyond the intermediate level.

Summarizing the drawbacks we may arrive at the following conclusions:

1. The main drawback would be that most of the time it is difficult to find a native speaker to teach the language. For example one may not be able to find a British native to teach English as second or foreign language. However, it is to be noted that a language teacher who imparts foreign language instruction in a class room should be able to imitate the native speaker as far as possible.
2. Generally it is believed that the Direct Method of foreign language teaching is not practicable if the number of students in the class room exceeds certain levels. In other words, it is assumed that the Direct Method is practised only in a class room where the number of students are limited. This is because

certain activities involved in the Direct Method are unlikely to be applicable to larger groups of learners. However, it is to be noted that the activity and its application to the learners group, depends not on the number of students in the group, but the creative nature of the teacher. He can divide the class and make it possible to engage all students.

3. It is assumed that because of the absence of translation in any manner, the method makes it very hard to convey the semantics or teach the grammar aspect. But this drawback is also equally refuted by some scholars stating that semantics can be conveyed by gesticulation, gestures and objects. Similarly, starting from easy to hard, grammatical pattern can be built up on the mental gradation of the learner.

As it exists, Direct Method, as I see it, is not a panacea for language teaching. What is required is some sort of adaptability and original creative thinking of the teacher combined with the Direct Method that can make the language teaching/learning a success. Some instructors at the time of making use of Direct Method in the foreign language teaching class room adopt their own innovative methods to suit the needs viz., some grammatical explanation

is given in the native language; structures are given for practice, meanings of the lexical items are given in the native language; instructions are given in the native language.

By the 1920s, non-commercial schools reduced the use of the Direct Method in a gradual manner. Some, however modified it with more grammar-based activities. Attempts and studies were made, keeping the requirements of a college student and common people in mind, to make the language teaching more interesting and better. Many methods were recommended such as Oral Method, Situational Method, Scientific Method and Reading Method. But the method which remained constantly and left its trace in language teaching history was the "Audio-Lingual" method. The following chapter will deal with it. It is necessary to note here that the Audio Lingual Method came into existence at a much later date for the reason that the method involves certain technical advancements. Electric and electronic gadgets are used for listening to the language and recording pronunciation.

Chapter 5.

5. AUDIO - LINGUAL METHOD

5:1. Introduction

During the 1920 - 1930 period the nations of the world came much closer to each other due to several social, economic and political reasons. With the growing volume of commerce, trade and international link up through radio, people started to learn and understand other cultures. People began to feel the importance of being able to speak and understand a foreign language when spoken by a native speaker. The methods available, till then, for learning foreign languages were sufficient to read a foreign language fluently and write it correctly but aural comprehension and communication were left out. Hence the learners emphasis was more on the aural-oral aspect of the language instead of reading and writing. .

Anthropologists carried out research on patterns of human behaviour in a culture. Language appeared to these scholars as an activity, learned amongst others, in the social life of the people. Language use was a set of habits acquired by reinforcement or reward in the social situation.

As the infant acquires the native language in spoken form to start with, people believed that a learner can easily acquire a foreign language if it is presented in the spoken form first.

The linguistic scientists, William Moulton and others, suggested a scientific analysis of the language should be taught which would bring out :

- 1. The appearance of the sounds (phonemes)*
- 2. The grammar (rules): inflections, constructions and sentence types etc.*
- 3. The contrast between first and second languages.*

These scholars succeeded in drawing people's attention to these principles only in the early years of World War II. It was realized by then that less attention was being paid towards foreign language teaching and learning. Oral skills in learning a foreign language had been neglected totally at schools. Consequently the American military authorities faced a dearth of interpreters who could communicate with the allies and enemy. So the U.S. government commissioned linguists and foreign language teachers to solve the problem and develop foreign language learning and teaching programs for military purposes. Rivers (1968) says,

The American authorities discovered the degree to which the study of languages had been neglected in U.S. when they were faced with a totally inadequate supply of interpreters for communication with their allies and enemy contacts. In an attempt to rectify this situation as quickly as possible ,they called for the help of the American Council of Learned Societies

(Rivers, 1968: 35)

The best known linguist to work on the "Army method" (Army program) was Leonard Bloomfield, who supplied the guideline for the organization of those courses. Bloomfield, a linguist, at Yale university, published his early work, "Introduction to the Study of Language", in 1914. The work is considered as a foundation of the intensive language program, sponsored by the Linguistic Society of America, Bloomfield, a past president of the society, produced a pamphlet called, "An Outline Guide for the Practical Study of Foreign Languages", which was published in 1942 by the society. This was considered a great contribution to the application of linguistic theories.

As a matter of fact Bloomfield and his colleagues had already been involved in the research of lesser-known languages and they were developing intensive language teaching programs. For these lesser-known languages which have no textbooks; they used the native speaker as an "informant" who provided sentences and phrases for imitation. Also, they designed some training programs as part of their linguistic research. These courses lasted only for two years and later drew the attention of scholars and students alike. There was some rethinking and planning in the foreign language teaching community. And by the mid-fifties it became the "Oral-approach" or "Aural-Oral method". Afterwards its name was changed to the "Audio-Lingual" Method by Brooks (1960) who used this term in order to avoid the distinction to indicate oral skills:

The reason to use this term was the avoidance of the rather unfortunate "Aural-Oral" distinction to indicate oral skills, as opposed to "visual-graphic" to indicate written skills; exclusively as an indication of the objectives of foreign language teaching therefore, and never as a name for method."

(Van Els - 1984-153)

The Audio-Lingual method advocated aural ability to begin with and learners are trained aurally. After this aural practice, then pronunciation training follows and this pronunciation practice is followed by speaking, reading and writing.

Charles C. Fries, Nelson Brooks and Robert Lado who were all foreign language teachers, played very important roles in the development of the Audio-Lingual method. All these linguists tried to work out the method in favour of teaching English as a foreign language.

5:2. Theory of the Method

In the past, traditional approaches had linked the study of language to philosophy and to grammar. Grammatical categories were considered to represent ideal categories in languages. A view that came to be known as 'structural linguistics' had emerged as a reaction to traditional grammar. Linguists drew people's attention to phonetics, phonology, morphology and syntax. By the 1930s a scientific approach was introduced, which attempts to analyse spoken utterances according to structural organization rather than to categories of Latin grammar. Under the theory of the Audio-Lingual Method, language is a system of structurally related elements for expressing the meaning, and units (phonemes), meaningful elements and their units (morphemes), words, structures and sentence types. The characteristics of 'structural linguistics' were as outlined here under.

- (a) *Elements of the language were produced in a structured way.*
- (b) *Language samples could be described at any structural level of description.*
- (c) *It was considered that linguistic levels were systems within systems.*

It was assumed that learning a language entails mastering the elements of the language, and learning the rules leads learners to combine the elements from phoneme to morpheme, morpheme to word, and word to phrase and phrase to sentence.

An important tenet of this theory was that speech is language. As we saw in chapter three and four, oral work was considered as a main goal of foreign language teaching: learners speak before they learn to read and write. So it had a priority in language teaching. It was argued that, 'language is primarily what is said and only secondarily what is written' (Brooks, 1960: 20).

In 1961, Moulton proclaimed the following linguistic principles on which language teaching methodology should be based.

Language is speech, not writing.

A language is a set of habits

Teach the language, not about the language.

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

Languages are different.

(Quoted in Rivers, 1964: 5)

In the meantime when the structural linguists and their ideas about language were gaining greater currency, the 'behaviourist school' dominated the field of learning psychology in the United States. Skinner claimed that language acquisition is the process from 'stimulus response conditioning'. According to him language acquisition is a matter of habit formation. Skinnerian ideas emphasised automaticity, overlearning and reinforcement.

According to Skinner, language is a behaviour not a mental phenomenon. It is learnt by a process of habit formation in which the main basic features are:

1. *IMITATION:* a child imitates his parents and his surroundings.
2. *RE-INFORCEMENT:* He is rewarded.
3. *REPETITION:* He repeats the sounds to get more rewards.
4. *CONDITIONING:* The child's verbal behaviour is conditioned. In this sense, he is introduced to a small number of actions.

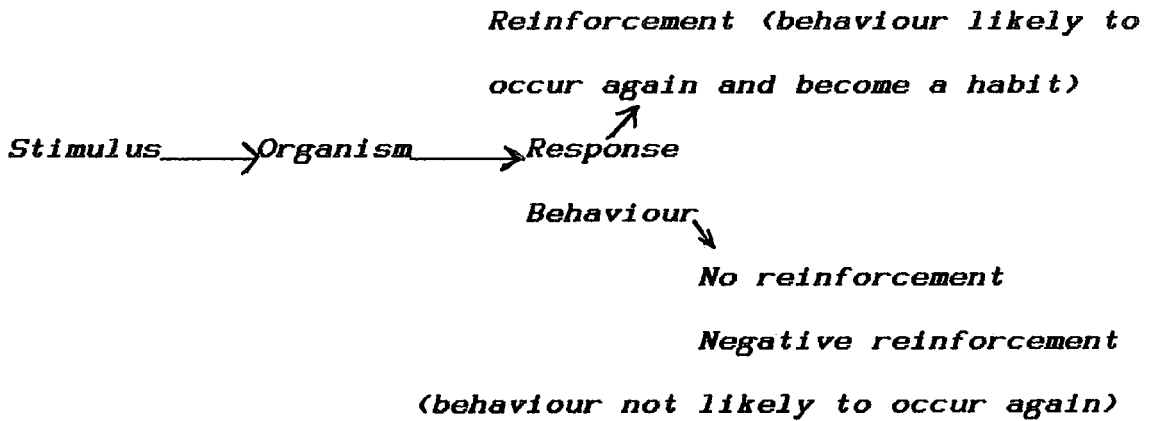
Brooks (1960) one of the pioneers of this process explains in the following words:

The process is a type of learning that involves the establishment of a set of habits that are both neural and muscular, and that must be so well learned that they function automatically.

(Brooks, 1960:21)

He suggests that in language learning the function should be formation and performance of habits, but not finding solutions to problems. According to behaviourism the human being is an organism capable of a wide repertoire of behaviours. (Richards & Rodgers, 1986:50) and this behaviour is dependent upon three elements, viz.

stimulus, which serves to elicit behaviour: a response triggered by a stimulus; and reinforcement, which serves to mark the response as being appropriate and encourages the repetition of the response in the future:



(Richards+Rodgers, 1986:50)

As we realize by this diagram, reinforcement is considered as a vital element in the learning process in order to increase the likelihood that the behaviour will occur again and eventually it will become a habit. This is summarized by Rivers as given below:

Rivers describes in considerable detail how the Audio-Lingual Method was based on the behaviourist learning theory which was current at the time. The basic assumption of the method is that L.2 learning should be viewed as a mechanistic process of habit formation. From this assumption three conclusions are drawn:

- (a) habits are strengthened by reinforcement.*
- (b) foreign language habits are formed most effectively by giving the right response, not by making mistakes.*

(c) language is behaviour and behaviour can be learned only by inducting the student to behave.

(Van Els, 1984: 153)

The fact that Van Els, (1984) summarizes the viewpoint of Rivers is worth mentioning.

As it is clear that the Audio-Lingual Method was developed under the influence of behaviourist theory of psycholinguistic analysis it is time for us to have a fresh look at **LANGUAGE LEARNING AND BEHAVIOURISM** in detail in the following section.

5.2.1. Language Learning Theory and Behaviourism.

As we pointed out in our discussion of language learning, it is customary to consider what language is. There are many definitions of language as proposed by scholars. For Joos, language is a 'a symbolic communication system, or in one word a 'code'' (quoted in Rivers, 1964:23); according to Bloomfield, language is 'the rigid system of patterns of contrastive features through which the individual speech acts of a speaker become effective substitute stimuli (signals) for a hearer. With this rigid system of patterns we can predict

the regular responses of the members of a linguistic community, when they are affectively stimulated by one of the patterns of the system'. (quoted in Rivers, 1964:24) To Trager language is 'a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which the members of a society interact in terms of their total culture.' (quoted in Rivers, 1964:24) And to the psychologists, language is a form of human behaviour. Skinner gave the name 'verbal behaviour' to the individual's use of conventional speech patterns.

Since the Audio-Lingual Method was based on this Skinnerian theory, we need to look at the assumptions concerning language learning in the method. Rivers summed them up in the following lines:

Foreign language learning is basically a mechanical process of habit formation.

Language skills are learned more effectively if items of the foreign language are presented in spoken form before written form.

Analogy provides a better foundation for foreign language learning than analysis.

The meaning which the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in a matrix of allusions to the culture of the people who speak that language.

(Rivers, 1964:19 - 22)

Language learning takes place in a process: stimulus first, followed by behaviour, then reinforcement and finally habit formation. According to the assumption, if the language skills viz., hearing/listening - speaking - reading and writing - are presented in that order and in a systematic manner, languages could be learned effectively and efficiently. A learner will understand what he hears, and he will speak what he has heard. He will be able to give a model sentence. And he will read and recognize the written symbols which he has spoken. And finally he will write what he has heard, spoken and read. Drills throughout the process have their own importance. The learner will practise and utter sentences or phrases like those he heard. It means that analogy is better than analysis, because analogy will guide him along the right linguistic path. In the fourth assumption, the culture was given significance. It is clear that the tie of language study with culture is a practical necessity. The learner should know about the culture of the native speakers: 'without understanding of that culture, the meaning of words can never be understood'. (Rivers, 1964:22)

Teaching the language without teaching the culture of the native speakers implies that the language is composed of meaningless symbols.

While discussing the basis of language learning and teaching methodology, Moulton explains that learners should learn speech first. This is somewhat similar to the theory of the Direct Method which we have already discussed in ^{the} fourth chapter. As we acquire our mother tongue (L1) in its spoken form in the initial stages of communication, we must learn foreign languages in the same way. Children acquire social habits while they grow in a particular culture. They acquire a foreign language similarly and it will be a type of habit for them. We should provide an atmosphere where a learner can hear the native speaker's voice through the techniques of the Language Laboratory while the learning process is taking place. While the learners find difficulties in the acquisition of the foreign language speech sounds, especially when they differ from the native language, audio-lingual materials provide the special exercises and oral drills, which show the contrasts between two languages (L 1 & L 2). This kind of technique makes the learning process easier. In the section dealing with contrastive analysis I will explain in more detail.

The emphasis in Audio-Lingual Method is on behaviour studied through observation of external factors. 'Frequency' is one of the important external factors in the language learning process. The child emits certain utterances in his environment and then has them reinforced by favourable reinforcement. 'Imitation' is another important factor in the learning process. Both will influence the language development of the child. Parental approval of a child's production of a grammatically correct utterance may be considered as 'reinforcement' for such an utterance. Thus the environment will encourage a learner to produce grammatically correct utterance.

Chomsky (1959) criticized these behaviourist ideas strongly in his '*REVIEW OF B.F. SKINNER'S VERBAL BEHAVIOUR*'. He said that human behaviour is more complex than animal behaviour. Language learning behaviour is specific to humans only, and cannot be explained by animal behaviour, because languages are ^a _L medium of human communication, only humans can learn verbal communication and therefore, there should be a basic distinction between animal behaviour and human behaviour. Chomsky says that human beings have an innate ability to learn languages. Their behaviour cannot be described as the results of external stimuli and concomitant responses. He says that it is very difficult to understand or describe the learning process. He further argues:

As far as acquisition of language is concerned it seems clear that re-inforcement, caused observation, and natural inquisitiveness are important factors, as is the remarkable capacity of the child to generalize, hypothesize and 'process information' in a variety of very special and apparently highly complex ways which we cannot yet describe or begin to understand, and which may be largely innate, or may develop through some sort of learning or through maturation of the nervous system.

(Chomsky in Foder, 1964: 563)

By discussing Skinner's theoretical concepts, point by point, Chomsky rejects Skinner's conclusions drawn from laboratory experiments with animals. Commenting on the Skinnerian notions: 'stimulus', 'response' and 'reinforcement' he says that Skinner's definitions appear to be narrow. The claim that the contingencies of reinforcement are necessary for language learning is false, since it is based on achievement of laboratory study but not on practical observations. He says, that if we consider Skinner's notions in their literal meaning the description doesn't cover some aspects of verbal behaviour and they do not offer any improvement over various traditional formulations if we consider them metaphorically.

In fact, Skinner's goal in his books was to provide a way to predict and control verbal behaviour by observing and manipulating the physical environment of the speaker. (Skinner, 1954) According to Skinner the experimental work which is done to study animal behaviour, can be extended to study human behaviour. But Chomsky disagrees with this and says that these claims are not justified. He argues as follows:

The pointlessness of these claims becomes clear when we consider the well-known difficulties in determining to what extent inborn structure, maturation, and learning are responsible for the particular form of a skilled or complex performance.

(Chomsky in Foder, 1964: 563)

Further he says:

It seems that there is neither empirical evidence nor any known argument to support any specific claim about the relative importance of feedback from the environment and the independent contribution of the organism in the process of language acquisition.

(Chomsky in Foder, 1964: 565)

According to Chomsky, the theory which says that the language is learnt as a set of habits, is inadequate because the basic fact about the language is its 'creativity'.

The problem between behaviourists and opponents is about whether the language learning ability is INNATE or LEARNED. Behaviourists deny the role of the learner (the child-internal factor) itself, whereas the opponents partly ignore the contributions of linguistic input and environmental role (external factor) in the learning process. They think that external factors 'trigger' language acquisition.

The fact is, as it seems to me, that external factors as well as internal factors do play an important role in the language learning process. We cannot take one of them into consideration and leave out the other. Internal and external factors should be associated with each other, so that the language learning process can take place in an efficient way.

One of the basic origins of the Audio-Lingual Method is the oral aspect of the language. As the motto of the method was '*Language is Speech*', the following section deals with the motto in detail.

5.2.2. Language and Speech

Language is speech. To many, speech has primacy over writing and other language skills. We realize this when we notice a small child who has never been to school utters so many words of the language of the community in which he has grown up. Thus speech is earlier than writing. Languages are spoken throughout the world by people who do not read or write. Some speech communities speak their languages, but they do not write. On the contrary none has ever discovered a language which is written but not spoken. Brooks is not prepared to accept the idea which says that the language is what is written and learned in schools. He clearly puts his own view as follows:

We may safely conclude that language always has occurred and always will occur chiefly in its audio-lingual form. *(Brooks, 1960:24)*

Language occurs mostly in its aural and oral form. The 'speech' is an important part of human life, just like eating and sleeping.

Many educationists have admitted that speech is the most significant aspect of the language. And since the Reform

Movement it is always considered as a general educational goal in language teaching history. In the Audio-Lingual Method, the oral aspect of the language is given priority over the other skills in order to develop the automatic speech habits. Oral drills enable the student to utter sentences integrally. A number of educationists supported the teaching of the oral skills initially because speaking comes first naturally in first language acquisition. Furthermore, there, is a general principle that learners transfer from speech to writing more easily than the other way round. But this concept should be justified only at the beginning of a syllabus. Afterwards, writing should take its position.

The proponents of the Audio-Lingual Method stressed learning to understand and speak before learning to read and write. They suggested that there should be some time-lapse between the introduction of the material orally and its presentation in written form. Consequently this emphasis on the oral aspect of the language led to a fundamental change in the type of material as a basis for teaching. However, both spoken language and written language have great influence on each other in the language teaching process. For instance, teaching materials derived from the descriptions based on the written language are being used today. On the other hand sometimes a description of speech leads to a simplification of the grammar.

The proponents of the Audio-Lingual Method believe that a perfect foundation will be laid for language skills if the language is studied in its oral form. The question arises how this learning task (oral) would be achieved and what techniques would make the learner a master of the foreign language. The following section will deal with these questions.

5.2.3. Recommended Techniques:

Since we usually learn to speak before we read or write, it was decided that speech should have priority in language teaching. How should the learning task be achieved in the Audio-Lingual Method? To answer this question, we list here the procedures which might be followed:

1. *DIALOGUES: which contain everyday expressions. Pupils learn them by mimicry-memorization. First, pupils listen to them and distinguish the sounds, then they do some repetition until they can pronounce them accurately and fluently. This process should be applied in different ways. It can be in the form of group work, chorus repetition. It can also be in smaller groups and finally in individual capacity. After the pupils have learnt dialogues, questions and answers will be exchanged between the teacher and pupils or between the groups.*
2. *ADAPTATION of the learnt dialogues in an environment and situation created by the imagination of the pupil.*
3. *DIALOGUES (in pattern drills shape) based on the structures. This should be practised orally in the*

beginning. Choral repetition followed by individual response is the way for practice.

- 4. After the pupils' achievement of a particular structure they will be asked to GENERALIZE in a wider context.*
- 5. After this oral work is done, PRINTED SCRIPT will be introduced to the pupils. The teacher will draw pupils' attention to the relationships between sounds and symbols.*
- 6. Finally, the writing component is introduced. At the first stage it will be imitative and the pupil will copy the words and dialogues from the textbook. Next the pupils will write some items of pattern-drill. And finally, a learner will express himself in certain situations after he has acquired some useful expressions.*

To teach the foreign language efficiently, Dodson (1967) distributed the activities in eight steps. He listed them in the following manner.

- 1. Imitation of basic FL. sentences (basic situation)*
- 2. Interpretation of basic sentences into FL (basic situation)*

3. *Substitution and extension of FL sentences (extend situation)*
4. *Independent speaking of FL sentences (basic and extended situation).*
5. *Reverse interpretation (optional) (basic and extended situation)*
6. *Interpretation of questions (if not in steps 1 and 3)*
7. *FL questions and answers (basic and extended situation)*
8. *Normal FL conversation (basic, extended and original situations).*

(Dodson, 1967: 132 - 133)

According to Dodson, the younger learner does not need to be told about the pattern structures, because the understanding and application of structural patterns needs logical thinking and the younger learner (child) is not prepared psychologically for this type of structural understanding. Secondly, a younger child is required to absorb more FL contacts and to express himself in that language, which enables him to utilize structural knowledge. However according to Dodson from the age of eight years upwards some structural patterns which are very carefully restricted, can be presented. Furthermore, Dodson says that the explanation of grammatical rules can be omitted, because structural pattern is not an intrinsic part of foreign language teaching in the

early stages. The pattern differences will be internalized later by the learners without the help of a teacher. And in case the teacher thinks that grammar should be taught, then the grammatical items must be treated inductively.

A thought will strike the mind of someone who goes through the teaching procedure, as detailed above, that the reading and writing have been totally neglected in the procedures. Rivers states:

Naturally, reading materials are not neglected in this method. After students have been carefully introduced to reading, it is urged that there should be provision for much reading of authentic material. Such material should be graded in linguistic difficulty and suited to the maturity of the student. So that he may, from the beginning, read directly in the foreign language without deciphering or translation.

She suggests the following argument in favour of the writing skill:

Writing the foreign language, according to the sources, should be introduced gradually and should keep strictly to what the student has heard and repeated. Eventually he should be able to write anything he can say, draw up

a simple report or summary, and write descriptions and letters.

(Rivers, 1964:17)

The language laboratory very powerfully employs the notion of immediate reinforcement. The tape provides a sequence of stimulus - response - reinforcement. It demands many repetitions of the correct answer from the students. The learner is alone in the language laboratory with the material and he has to evaluate his performance by listening to his taped response. In the meantime he can compare his own response with the original one. And *'his recognition that two pieces of language are identical provides the reinforcement that ensures that learning takes place.'* (Wilkins, 1972:166)

All of us are aware of the fact how important the language laboratory is. Although the Audio-Lingual Method has almost disappeared, the language laboratory is still being used, in some parts of India for instance, due to its necessity in foreign language teaching or learning classroom. Explaining the importance of the language laboratory Brooks (1960) observes:

*The language laboratory can be effective in learning.
The advantage of the machine over the living person for*

purposes of sustained repetition is obvious: the machine can repeat in identical fashion what was said before, and it can do so without fatigue or irritation. The machine can also record the students' response which he may judge more critically when replayed than he can as he hears himself speak. He can also compare his response with the original, often perceiving what was not clear to him while he listened and replied.

(Brooks, 1960:147)

In the Audio-Lingual Method, there was concentration of mimicry and memorization. A learner repeats the patterned sentences and phrases several times until he memorizes them. The purpose of this is to enable the learner to produce new sentences, in any situation, leading to generalization from the memorized patterns automatically.

We have been discussing the procedures and techniques recommended by the supporters of Audio-Lingual Method which make the language learning task easier. Now let us move to the GRAMMAR. We will see in the following section in what fashion and what amount of grammar is learned through this method.

5:3 The Role of Grammar

Grammar is considered to be '*the core of the language*' (Rivers, 1968:1). The Audio-Lingual Method requires the learner to obtain control over the grammar in an automatic way, by mimic-memorization of patterns. According to the theory, ironically enough students should learn and use the grammar, without it being analysed. The proponents of the Audio-Lingual Method base their theory of grammar learning upon the system in which the learner acquires his own mother tongue's grammar. Rivers mentions thus:

When we are using our native language we are not conscious of the structures we are using to convey our meaning. Audio-Lingual techniques aim to provide the student with a similar automatic control of the framework of the foreign language.

(Rivers, 1968: 39)

So the student in this method uses the practised structure patterns to familiarize himself with the structure in order to generalize and apply them to his linguistic needs, as we have seen before. One of the mottos of this method was '*Teach the language and not about the language*'. It meant not to emphasize structures of the language. At first emphasis should be only on oral use of the language. In this method, the analysis of

structure is regarded as an advanced study. The student's main aim should be to be 'able to use the language in communication'. (Rivers, 1968 : 39).

Some supporters of the method, Bloomfield, Fries, and Bloch, invented a term '*phrase structure grammar*', which differs from traditional grammar in its concentration on structural meaning. Fries (one of the linguists of earlier generations) proposed a theory where meaning is divided into three types: lexical, structural and social-cultural. Lexical meaning is dictionary meaning. This is not considered part of grammar. Social-cultural meaning concerns some specific situation of individuals in a particular cultural group and is related to traditions or customs. This is also not part of the grammar. There remains '*structural meaning*', this is specifically signalled by a complex system of contrastive patterns. This type of meaning is expressed in terms of the formal features observable within the language corpus. The Audio-Lingual Method emphasises structural rather than lexical and situational meaning and it has been basic to the technique of pattern or structural drill. In this method students practise creating new utterances in response to formal cues, rather than personal meaning.

The teacher of the Audio-Lingual Method presents a specific structure in a drill. The learner utters that phrase

or sentence many times (memorization). The learner then uses it by generalizing it as a 'model' or 'frame', to create and utter new sentences. He continues this practice until he begins automatic performance.

Grammar is thus presented first through the drilling of structures. After which a simple 'generalization' may be made about the grammatical principle involved. This generalization then describes what the student is doing instead of prescribing what he ought to do.

(Rivers, 1964: 16)

We have seen in this section that the grammar at the beginning should not be explained, so the learner derives the grammatical rules easily. Analysis of grammar was thus postponed until a later stage.

Usually a very common problem is noticed in the foreign language classroom. The learner transfers some formal grammatical features of his mother tongue while he learns foreign/second language. This is what is known as interference in language learning situation. Let us discuss this problem in brief in the following subsection.

5.3.1 Contrastive Analysis:

As noted elsewhere in the thesis, in the United States a great interest in foreign language teaching arose after the World War II. A lot of funds were earmarked and enormous efforts were devoted to finding out the most effective methods and techniques of teaching or learning languages. Educationists recognized '*contrastive studies*' as an important aspect of the foreign language teaching methodology, and a series of contrastive theses and papers began to appear as a result. They aimed to discover and predict the difficulties of foreign language learning by comparing the native language with the foreign language.

Contrastive analysis, in fact, belongs to '*Interlanguage study*,' a branch of linguistics which is interested in the emergence of the languages in learners, rather than in the finished product. In theory there are three branches of it: '*translation theory*', '*contrastive analysis*', and '*error analysis*'. We focus on '*contrastive analysis*' here. The other two branches, though of interest, are not relevant for the present work.

Giving a definition of CA (contrastive analysis) James (1980) says:

CA (contrastive analysis) is concerned with the effects exerted by the NL (native language) on the language being learnt.

He further adds:

CA (contrastive analysis) is concerned with the way in which NL (native language) affects FL (foreign language) learning in the individual.

(James, 1980:9)

The psychological foundation of contrastive analysis is transfer theory and is concerned more with teaching. The theory of CA (contrastive analysis) is that the learners of second/foreign language will tend to transfer the formal features of their first language into the foreign language. Lado (1957) argues as follows:

individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings of their native language and culture.

(quoted in James, 1980: 14)

In giving an explanation of 'error' in the second language learning process, Corder (1967) says:

One explanation (of errors) is that the learner is carrying over the habits of his mother-tongue into the second language clearly this explanation is related to a view of language as some sort of habit-structure.

(quoted in James, 1980 : 20)

Many educationists and linguists have agreed that the interference caused by the structural differences between the learner's native language and the second language is a major problem in second language learning.

For example English differs from German in the verb form. The simple present tense has only two different forms in English where as they are represented by six different forms in German.

On the other hand, the remarkable similarity in many ways between English and German (for instance) will make the teaching task a more difficult one, because the learner does not realize the difference and consequently makes errors. We have seen the differences between English and German. At the other extreme, there are a number of identical sounds between

them. For instance, the 'b' of 'bei', the 'n' of 'nein' and so on. The learner does not realize the differences, since he hears some of the similar sounds. On our part as teachers, we have to identify and try to give a considerable training to overcome those difficulties. The teacher should compare the two languages (NL) (FL) in order to avoid the difficulties in second language teaching ask.

After mentioning the phonetic dissimilarities between English and German sounds, Moulton (1962: 92-96) suggests some of the corrective drills in order to help to overcome the difficulties.

CA has been criticized in many ways by different scholars. We can mention here some of the points.

- 1. It is said that CA has not been able to meet the objectives which were set for it.*
- 2 It did not succeed in obtaining the desired results.*
- 3. It has been proved that the interference of the first language is not the only source of error as claimed under the CA's theory.*

In criticizing CA Sanders argues that :

It is said that a hierarchy of difficulties based on contrastive analysis may not be an appropriate basis for the sequencing of teaching material there are certain juxtapositions which confuse the learner.

(quoted in Fisiak 1981 : 24)

Although Contrastive Analysis cannot solve all language learning problems, it can play an important role in the foreign language classroom specially in overcoming the difficulties caused by the interference of the native language. The teacher should make a drill in order to expose the differences between the two languages to the learner.

5.4. Critical discussion

This method which came into being in the early sixties has some distinctive characteristics. It separates the skills and deals with them in a graded manner. Listening, speaking, reading and writing skills are given importance in that order. Graphic skills are given only secondary importance and audio-lingual skills enjoy the primacy. Use is made of conversations and dialogues in order to present the language to the learners. More emphasis is laid on certain practice techniques like mimicry, memorization, and pattern drills. The best use of language laboratory is made under this method. It establishes a linguistic and psychological theory as a basis for the teaching method.

The two main methods of language teaching in the first half of this century i.e. the Grammar-Translation Method and the Direct Method largely developed in the European schools and British School of thought, whereas the Audiolingual Method is the brain child of American language teachers. From the beginning, British and German scholars received the method and were critical and sceptical about its practicality, but in spite of this attitude, the method was established well in most parts of the world.

The golden era of this method was during 1959-66. From 1964 onwards Audio-Lingualism was challenged and in 1970 it was severely criticized on theoretical and pragmatic grounds.

Like the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method also tries to develop target language skills without reference to the mother tongue. The Audio-Lingual Method does not emphasize a presentation of grammatical knowledge of information. (However it does not consider the presentation of these as taboos). The use of first language is not totally prohibited as it is in Direct Method. The Direct Method was criticized by Audio-Lingualists for its lack of a linguistic basis and its failure to grade language data with sufficient scientific care.

The learning process in the Audio-Lingual Method is to be noted as one of habituation and conditioning and there is no intervention of any intellectual analysis. It needs only active and simple practice. Language learning through this method is considered as of less of a mental burden. The mimicry and pattern practice, which were the main techniques of Audio-Lingual Method, never required a strong academic background or inclination on the part of the learner.

Audio-lingual Method presents the descriptive, structural and contrastive fields of linguistics. The psychology behind ^{it} _L is mainly that of behaviourism. In spite of these, the lack of sophistication and consistency in its application of psychological and linguistic theory is repeatedly criticized. Its theoretical basis was found to be weak. Empirical research did not conclusively establish its superiority. Teachers who used the Audio-Lingual materials and method conscientiously, complained about effectiveness of the techniques. Boredom after some time engulfs the students. In spite of these criticisms one should look at its merits. They are as noted below:

1. *This is the first language teaching/learning theory which has recommended the development on linguistic and psychological principles.*
2. *The method made it easy for large numbers of learners to acquire language at the same time.*
3. *It introduced in a graded manner syntactic structures.*
4. *It gave scope to develop language skills and techniques.*
5. *It developed the separation of language skills into a pedagogical device.*

The Audio-Lingual Method became more practicable after the development of mechanical gadgets, such as tape-recorders (language laboratory), television sets, videos etc. Although this equipment costs a lot, in return, it pays a lot as well. It seems this approach is relevant to the modern age. By using this equipment and mechanical gadgets a learner can practise for long hours without the existence of a teacher. On the teacher's part, he can extend his guidance to numerous pupils without expenditure of his energy. At the same time the teacher (in a language laboratory) can hear any student and do corrections if it is needed. He can manage the whole class from his desk through that equipment. This system helps the learners to speak the language.

A main aim of Audio-Lingual instruction must therefore be to try so to feed material into the pupils from the start that, although they may only be able to chatter about trivia at first, they are at least able to chatter.

(Dulton, 1965: 115)

No one can deny the importance of Audio-Lingual Method in foreign language teaching. Yet, just as other methods showed their incapability of fulfilling the motive of learning the foreign language, the Audio-Lingual Method did not satisfy the learner either and was criticized and objected to on grounds of its theory.

According to Audio-Lingual theory, the child's acquisition of his mother tongue and our learning of L2 are similar. A child utters simple words, names things incorrectly and pronounces words in the wrong way but all this is considered attractive and clever. Usually the family rewards him on his efforts. Slowly he gets control over the language

slowly and unsteadily without any explanations he achieves control of a most complex grammatical system.

(Rivers 1964 : 102)

On the contrary, the learner in the Audio-Lingual Method learns complete sentences from the beginning. He is expected to utter very accurate and correct sentences only. The child has a desire to communicate with all his surroundings. he tries to gain others' attention. Miller and Dollard have said,

The child learns to talk because society makes that relatively effortless response supremely worthwhile.

(quoted in Rivers, 1964 : 103)

But a foreign language learner is limited to patterned sentences, and he is not able to communicate with those around him due to his lack of knowledge. So we can say that there is little similarity in ^achild's acquisition of his first language and a foreign language learner's acquisition.

As was mentioned earlier foreign language learning is considered, as a mechanical process of habit formation in Audio-Lingual Method.

The audio-lingual approach, with its roots in behaviourist psychology was based on the assumptions that foreign language learning is basically a mechanical process of habit-formation, that it is more effective if the spoken form precedes the written form, and that analogy is superior to analysis as a basis for acquiring control of linguistic structures.

(Richardson, 1983 : 54)

This way of teaching can train the students just like parrots, who can repeat the whole utterance perfectly, but are unable to understand the meaning, unable to use that kind of structure. They never create anything new. In this way of teaching, a learner's greatest problem is that he

does not know what his task is. It is assumed that learning a language is like learning anything, such as to type, to drive a car, or to carry out any of the other routines that are called habits. Pointing to the ignorance of situational language in the method, Wilkins had this to say:

As soon as the learner is given the opportunity to make his own choice of language, he is likely to commit errors. In such teaching therefore there would probably be an absence of occasions for the learner to select his language.

(Wilkins, 1972, 165)

Dulton (1965) makes the same point:

The question of carry-over from classroom to life is even less susceptible to easy answer. At its worst modern teaching can equip pupils with a repertoire of phrases learned parrot wise. The pupils who are fluent only along the lines of their training and who break|down as soon as the conversation enters unfamiliar territory.

(Dulton, 1965: 113)

Chomsky in criticizing the "behaviourist" language learning theory said in his address to the American Language Teachers Conference:

Linguists have had their share in perpetuating the myth that linguistic behaviour is "habitual" and that a fixed stock of "patterns" is acquired through practice and used as a basis for "analogy".....Language is not a "habit structure" ordinary linguistic behaviour characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and new patterns in accordance with rules of great abstraction and intricacyIt is important to bear in mind that the creation of linguistic expressions that are novel but appropriate is the normal mode of language use.

(Hawkins, 1981 : 177)

Pupils must be trained from the first period to apply in their every day life what they have memorized or practised.

Another objection has been made to this method, that the techniques of Audio-Lingualism (memorization - drills) can become boring and tedious. This happens if the

teacher who uses this method is not sensitive to pupils' reaction . The teacher should present the material in various ways and give opportunities to the learners if they desire to express themselves through what they have learnt.

A further common objection to this method is that students are expected to make generalizations of language patterns. Without having a clear idea of what they are attempting and by analogical creation, they may generalize the patterns. Consequently they are unable to understand the possibilities and limitations of the structure. Rivers suggested the isolation of structure

with a well structured sequence of dialogues and drills, there will be little need for lengthy explanations of structural relationships ... where these relationships are not clear, the teacher will need to draw the attention of the students to the crucial element in a series of drills.

(Rivers, 1968 : 47)

One of the dangers in this method is that the personal feelings of a learner are totally neglected. As we have seen, this method's way of teaching is a mechanical process. There is no room for student's feelings. He acts

just like a machine. He is expected to do actions as required (correct responses only). He is supposed to follow and to be strict with the procedure. He is unable to refuse memorization, copying, practising time and again. The pupils are not able to ask for clarification of problem. They are not told the meaning of what they are saying. There is total ignorance of learners' feelings.

A serious flaw in Skinnerian learning psychology is that its original behaviourist approach is limited strictly to the study of observable physical phenomena; it excludes from consideration abstractions such as the feelings and attitudes of learners, which cannot be subjected to objective scrutiny.

(Disick, 1975: 19)

Rivers also stressed the emotional element in foreign language learning . The relationship between teacher and a student in the foreign language learning class is very important, because the learner is more dependent on the teacher, for learning a language, than in other subjects.

*The teacher... must be conscious of the invidious ,
frustrating and insecure position in which the
student finds himself in the early stages.*

(quoted in Hawkins, 1981 : 180)

Sometimes the teacher faces a(child)learner who is nervous with poor ability in speaking and understanding the foreign language. A child of this type can read and write better than speak. He feels embarrassed and disappointed in trying to use the foreign language in the presence of other students or the teacher. Such students will not produce anything in the audiolingual classroom. To avoid this situation Rivers suggests:

there must be a relaxed and encouraging atmosphere in the language classroom in the early stages, and the teacher will need to develop skill in correcting language responses without embarrassing or humiliating the student. It would seem that the language laboratory should provide a solution to this problem, but work in an isolated booth does not associate the emotion of hope with face-to-face situation and so does not provide the complete answer.

(Rivers, 1964 : 37)

The learner is a most important factor in the foreign language class. So he or she should not be neglected in any way. Because our aim in foreign language classroom is to enable the learner to communicate in the target language if he is neglected, it is very difficult to fulfil our aim.

The Audio-Lingual Method does not emphasis a grammatical knowledge like Grammar-Translation Method but it does not reject grammar either. It rejects the isolation of paradigmatic features such as lists of pronouns or verbs forms.

By summing up some major distinctive features of Audio-Lingual method we may note here that in this method, structure and form were more important than the meaning. Memorization of dialogues was desired. The main goal was the "aural-oral" aspect of the language. In order to practise the pronunciation, drills were used. Grammar was not explained in order to avoid complications for the learner. Avoidance of native language in the class was recommended especially in the early stages. Language learning was considered a mechanical process. Error should be avoided so that only positive reinforcement is given.

The Audio-Lingual procedures were felt to be boring and unsatisfactory. It was perceived that the results were not much progressive. Students who learned the foreign language through Audio-Lingual method were found incapable to use the language in real communication outside the classroom. The Audio-Lingual Method was attacked after the change in American linguistic theory represented by Noam Chomsky in the sixties. He drew educationists' attention to the "mental properties" of the learner. He said, by arguing the theory, that sentences are "generated", not learned by imitation and repetition. According to Chomsky the components of the Audio-Lingual Method, pattern practise, drilling and memorization, do not result in competence. Chomsky's criticisms created a crisis in language teaching circles. And once again the foreign language classroom was waiting for another new method to emerge. In the next chapter we shall discuss the Chomsky theory in detail and see what changes were brought into language teaching methodology. But it is important to bear in mind that this method in spite of all critics, remained in dominance over the language teaching field for a long period.

Chapter 6.

Communicative Language Teaching

6: 1. Introduction:

As we saw earlier, up to three decades ago the use of structure-based methods in the foreign language classroom, was common. These methods had been designed to meet the requirements of existing situations. Some of these methods emphasised structure whereas others considered the pronunciation aspect of language as a main goal of foreign language learning. Consequently pupils who came out of these classes were masters of structure or were like native speakers in terms of accent. The communicative potential of the language was mostly neglected in these methods. The 'form' rather than 'meaning' dominated.

By the end of the sixties, many impetuses emerged to make language teaching more effective and more accomplished within the existing circumstances. The procedural details of the Audio-Lingual Method, discussed earlier, and its incapability to qualify the learner to meet the existing requirements, was one important impetus. On the other hand, in Europe, educational realities were passing through many changes. Close relations between the European countries persuaded its

nationals of the importance of learning the major languages of the European Common Market. The Council of Europe, through its cultural and educational activities, began its efforts to make language teaching better and more interesting. The Council persuaded educationists to find better ways of teaching foreign languages. It also published books about language teaching and sponsored international conferences in this regard.

Meanwhile, as we saw in an earlier chapter, Noam Chomsky criticized the behaviourist theory of language learning. According to Chomsky, that kind of theory was incapable of accounting for the fundamental characteristics of language.

Another impetus was the change in people's attitudes to language learning due to the interdependence of European countries and changes in their social demands, such as travelling to other countries, job opportunities in foreign countries and having friends from European countries. The economic and political changes in European countries were the main reasons for these changes.

As mentioned in an earlier chapter Candlin, Widdowson and Wilkins besides other British linguists were carrying out individual efforts to reform language

teaching. They emphasised the functional and communicative aspect of language. The earlier teaching methods did not emphasise the meaning as they were supposed to. They simply dealt with the grammar and dictionary. So the need was to teach pupils how language is used rather than how it is structured. In other words, the need was that pupils should be taught a knowledge of appropriate situated language use. An international group of scholars began to design language courses on a 'unit-credit' system keeping in mind the needs of European^a language learners. Wilkins, (1977) prepared a preliminary document proposing a communicative definition of language, which was considered a basis for designing the communicative syllabus for language teaching. Wilkins, in describing types of meaning, divided them into "Notional and Functional" categories. Later in 1975, he published his work under the title: 'Notional Syllabus', which left a significant trace on the development of Communicative Language Teaching.

For communicative language teaching the work of Wilkins and other British linguists and the work of the Council of Europe provided the theoretical basis. The application of these ideas was reflected in the text books.

In fact the adoption of the Communicative Approach led to the replacement of existing structural theory. Learners' motives were also focused on improving their spoken capacity as well as other practical skills. This new trend, with more emphasis on language use rather than form, provided opportunities for Communicative Language Teaching to spread all over the language teaching world.

In the following sections we will see how this new method took its place and what was the basis for this new approach.

Communicative Competence

Linguistic theory has two parts viz., linguistic competence and linguistic performance. Linguistic competence is understood as the tacit knowledge of language structure, that is, knowledge that is commonly not conscious or available for spontaneous report, but necessarily implicit in what the (ideal) speaker-listener can say, (Hymes, 1971:8).

The theory of competence and performance was suggested by Chomsky (1965) and much earlier in 1915, Ferdinand de Saussure also suggested a similar dichotomy under the labels '*la langue*' and '*la parole*'. Hymes went further and suggested that the goal of language teaching should be communicative competence. Through his innovation Hymes deviates from Chomsky's theory to a certain extent. Chomsky is interested in a learner's ability to abstract grammatical knowledge from language, to which he gave the name competence. To Chomsky an ideal speaker-listener is one who knows how language is structured, and can produce a grammatically correct sentence. Performance for Chomsky is that capacity of the learner whereby he produces actual examples of language, using the system. Hymes, on the other hand, is of the opinion that a learner who acquires a knowledge of the language and is able to use it in appropriate situations, is communicatively competent.

In 1965, a group of linguists, sociologists and educationists including Joshua Fishman, John, J. Gumperz and Dell Hymes, held a seminar in order to formulate guidelines for the United States Office of Education for the study of the relationship between language and child success at the school. While addressing a group of scholars Hymes stated that competence and performance as suggested by Chomsky should be redefined. He contrasts the 'actual' (use of language appropriately) and 'the underlying' (knowledge for language use). This contrast resulted in the emergence of a more general concept of 'competence' than is found in Chomsky. For Hymes 'competence' is the actual use of language in a concrete situation. To Hymes there are rules of use and without them, the rules of grammar would be useless. A speaker could be considered deranged if he produces grammatical sentences irrelevant to the situation. Thus it was pointed out that the ability to compose (grammatically) correct sentence will not be considered 'knowing' a language till the learner becomes capable of using that sentence appropriately and communicatively. Consider, for instance:

A: Would you tell me the way to the police station please?

B: It is raining.

We consider that the producer of these sentences are grammatically competent, since both sentences are grammatically correct. But the speaker of the 2nd sentence is not communicatively competent, for the reason that the reply is inappropriate to the first sentence which is an interrogative statement. However it could be considered communicatively competent if the situation differs. As has been cited above, 'competence' includes underlying linguistic competence with the ability of language use; it includes the concepts of appropriateness and acceptability. The study of competence entails consideration of a number of sociocultural factors. Hymes (1974) in explaining his point of view on linguistic theory, lists four sectors of communicative competence:

- 1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;*
- 2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available.*
- 3. Whether (and to what degree) something is*

*appropriate (adequate, happy, successful)
in relation to a context in which it is used and
evaluated.*

*4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact
done, actually performed, and what its doing
entails.*

(quoted in Brumfit 1979:19)

In short, to Hymes a better knowledge of how language is used with the knowledge of how language is structured is 'communicative competence'. This theory of competence found a wide acceptance in many places in the United States.

This term can be considered as an extension of the 'linguistic competence' of Chomsky in order to include the ability of language usage situationally, together with the capability of language use structurally. It is noteworthy that 'linguistic competence' is a part of 'communicative competence'. The purpose of this 'communicative competence' is to enable learners to use the language effectively. It will be inadequate if learners are taught only rules of grammar.

To assess a person's 'communicative competence' he has to attain the following level:

1. attain a high degree of linguistic competence
2. distinguish between the forms and the communicative expressions (He should understand the linguistic system as well as the communicative system)
3. develop skills and strategies to communicate
4. become aware of the social meaning of language forms.

(Littlewood, 1981: 6)

Canale and Swain explained the following four dimensions of 'communicative competence' in their analysis:

1. Grammatical competence: the field of grammatical and lexical capacity.
2. Sociolinguistic competence: understanding of the social context, role relationship, the shared information of the participants and the communicative purpose of instruction.
3. Discourse competence: to know how meaning is presented
4. Strategic competence: coping strategies that communicators use to initiate, maintain, repair and redirect the communication.

(Richards & Rodgers, 1986:71)

Halliday, on the other hand, supplied his theory of the functions of language as a complement to Hymes theory. He described the following basic language functions:

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

(quoted in Richards & Rodgers, 1986:70)

Communicative competence was the base for the start of Communicative Language Teaching. In the following

section we will devote our attention to a discussion of theory of Communicative Language Teaching.

6:2. Theory of Communicative Language Teaching:.

The proponents of Communicative Language Teaching believed that acquisition of the linguistic means to perform the functions of the language is the goal of language learning .

Another theorist of communicative language teaching, Widdowson, by analysing the relation between linguistic system and its communicative values, emphasised the communicative acts which underlie the learner's ability to use language in different situations for different purposes. Widdowson distinguished between two kinds of meaning: '*signification*' the combination of meaningful words into structures which are grammatically perfect; 'value' and the use of these words (sentence) for communicative purposes. Widdowson's following examples explain this in more detail.

***A: Could you tell me the way to the railway station,
please?***

B: The rain destroyed the crops.

Although B's odd reply has signification as a sentence, it has no value as an instance of use. One cannot make any sense of it as an answer to A's question. Thus he suggests the following:

If it is the case that knowing a language means both knowing what signification sentences have as instances of usage and what value they take on as instances of use, it seems clear that the teacher of language should be concerned with the teaching of both kinds of knowledge.

(Widdowson, 1979:19)

A common belief which all Communicative Language Teaching theorists share is that a learner should learn the communicative use of the language as well as the grammatical use of it. The following points may be considered as the main characteristics of Communicative Language Teaching:

- 1. Language is a system for the expression of meaning.*
- 2. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.*
- 3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.*

4. *The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.*

(Richards & Rodgers, 1986:71)

From the above discussion, it is obvious that communicative activity is the heart of Communicative Language Teaching. In order to get a clear idea of communicative ability we shall provide a brief description.

Communication is a two-sided process between speaker/writer and a hearer/reader. The speaker/writer chooses the language, taking account of shared knowledge between them, to convey a certain message and the hearer/reader, on his part, receives it. As we pointed out earlier, the preceding methods emphasised form rather than function in language. But, here, in communicative language teaching, the functions of language (communication) are emphasised. The difference between these two trends is that the 'structural' system of language describes the order of words grammatically. It explains to the learner that 'passive' is different from the 'active'. It shows that 'The girl chased the boy' is different from 'The boy

is chased by the girl'. This 'structural' system enables the learner to build his 'linguistic competence', and with the help of this, he produces an utterance 'structurally' to express himself.

On the other hand, in the 'functional' aspect of language, meaning will be the central focus. A single sentence may express a number of functions depending on the situation. For example, 'Why don't you open the window?', from the structural point of view is an interrogative, but from a functional viewpoint it may be a question, command, intention or a suggestion. So it is possible to say that when the sentence structure is stable, its communicative function may be variable. The relationship between 'forms' and 'functions' is variable. But there is a combination of 'structure' and 'function' in Communicative Language Teaching. Littlewood explains that

One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language combining these into a more fully communicative view.

(Littlewood, 1981:1)

The important point is that the learner of a foreign language should be able to use the language communicatively by expressing himself in any situation, he is facing, and convey the message by choosing the words and placing them in correct order.

The most efficient communicator in a foreign language is not always the person who is best at manipulating its structure. It is often the person who is most skilled at processing the complete situation involving himself and his hearer, taking account of what knowledge is already shared between them and selecting items which will communicate messages effectively.

(Littlewood, 1981: 4)

We have seen in the previous chapters that the psychological processes of language learning in foreign language classroom was a disputed subject. There were different opinions. In the next section we shall discuss the language learning theory in Communicative Language Teaching.

6:2:1. Language Learning theory.

We have pointed out earlier that the objective of communicative language teaching is to make learners 'communicatively competent'. But a question arises as to how the learning takes place?

Throughout foreign language teaching history, first language acquisition theories have influenced the study of second language learning. Before the 1960s the behaviourist (Skinnerian) theory dominated the study of child language. To Skinner, as we have seen earlier language is a behaviour, learnt by the habit-formation process. Imitation, reinforcement and repetition of behaviour are the main components of this process.

But in the sixties, Chomsky's most forceful assault on behaviourism provided the ground for cognitive theories to grow up. The difference between the behaviourist and cognitive theories is that in behaviourist theory external forces influence a child's learning by providing him with a model for imitation and rewarding him, whereas in cognitive theory internal processes determine a child's learning.

Although habit-formation processes do not completely explain a child's acquisition of the first language, they play an important role in his first language acquisition. According to Littlewood, "*the role of imitation in the acquisition process is not clear*", and he adds:

These findings would suggest that imitation plays a secondary, consolidating role, with the primary role being played by more creating, rule-forming processes.

(Littlewood, 1984:16)

By showing the inadequacies of behaviourism, as already noted in the earlier chapters, the supporters of linguistic and cognitive theories argue that:

- 1. The child's creative ability, which is attained by internalisation of the underlying system of rules which enable learners to create a number of sentences which they have never encountered before, cannot be analysed as verbal behaviour.*

2. *The learner's ability to abstract the rules from the examples cannot be a process of habit-formation.*
3. *Moreover, children's internalisation of the basic structures of their language which they complete between three-and-a-half and five cannot be counted as habit-formation.*
4. *It is likely that children have their own creatively constructed language beside the language shaped by external forces.*

Thus many theorists share a belief that children are born with an innate capacity for language acquisition.

Second language learning until the mid-sixties was dominated by the same theory (behaviourism) which had dominated first language learning. As far as language habits are concerned, some of them will help the learner in learning a second language and others will hinder his learning process. When first language habits pave a way to acquire second language, it is to be noted as positive transfer:

Negative transfer and difference between two languages (L1 & L2) leads to 'interference'. So, according to the behaviourists second language learning consists of overcoming all the differences between the first and

second language systems. In teaching the second language we should concentrate on these differences. Littlewood mentions the following procedure which is suggested to be followed in the second language classroom to overcome these differences:

- 1. Contrastive analysis.*
- 2. Contrastive analysis hypothesis*
- 3. Special treatment and attention to difficult items.*
- 4. Intensive techniques to overcome the difficulties.*

These were already discussed in detail in the previous chapter.

On the other hand, it has been proved that interference is not the only source of error. Dulay and Burt (1982) (who studied how children performed with six structures which differ in English and Spanish) attacked the role of habit-formation and interference in second language learning. According to their study, only three per cent of the errors could be classified as interference errors. So it seems that the 'creative construction' processes are more powerful than habit-formation in first language acquisition. According to Dulay and Burt, second

language learning takes place through the 'creative construction' process too.

We have been discussing first language learning theory and its impact on the second language learning in general. In the following lines we shall devote our attention to language learning theories which underlie Communicative Language Teaching in particular..

It seems that the process of language learning was not discussed nor assessed as much as communicative dimensions of language were described by proponents of Communicative Language Teaching. Brumfit admits in the following lines.

our understanding of the language learning process is still too unclear for us to be able to control it fully, or to be sure what the effects of our interventions are on the learner.

(Brumfit, 1979 : 187)

But it is possible to discern some elements of language learning theory which underlie Communicative Language Teaching, for example:

1. *Real communicative activities promote learning.*
2. *Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning.*
3. *Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process.*

(Richards & Rodgers, 1986-72)

However there are two models of second language learning according to Littlewood. One is known as a process of 'creative construction' mentioned above in the context of first language acquisition. According to this model, natural processing strategies motivate the learner to 'construct' a series of internal representations of the second language system, which is a result of natural processing strategies and exposure to the second language in communicative situations. This exposure causes the gradual development of the learner's internal representations which eventually lead the learner to a native speaker competence. Littlewood explains this diagrammatically as follows:

<i>Second language</i>	<i>Natural processing</i>	<i>Temporary</i>	<i>Utterances</i>
<i>exposure</i>	<i>strategies</i>	<i>representation</i>	
		<i>of the system</i>	

(Littlewood, 1984:69)

One of the important features of this model is that learning occurs as a result of the operation of the internal processing mechanisms on input from the language environment. It is not dependent on the learner's attempts to utter the language. It means that the learner's utterances appear naturally.

The 'creative construction' theory emphasises the cognitive processing strategies which develop internal representations of the second language. According to this theory, it is likely that a person can learn a language without having used it productively. Productive skills are considered as external expression of the system which has already been internalised by the learner.

Most of the current approaches to second language teaching are based on the assumption that if we ask pupils to produce predetermined utterances, this productive activity will lead them to internalise the system to the point where they can operate the system unconsciously. Littlewood (1981) diagrammatically explains that as follows:

Creative construction model:

Input from → *Internal* → *System constructed* → *Spontaneous*
exposure *processing* *by learners* *utterances*

Model underlying most teaching:

Input from *Productive* *System assimilated* *Spontaneous*
 → → →
instruction *activity* *by learners* *utterances*

On the other hand, according to 'Skill-Learning' theory the use of the second language is a performance skill, which has 'cognitive' and 'behavioural' aspects. The cognitive aspect includes the internalisation of plans in order to create appropriate behaviour. These plans, derived from the language system, include grammatical rules, procedures of vocabulary selection and social conventions. The 'behavioural' aspect automates these plans in order to convert them into fluent performance in real situations. The conversion of plans into performance takes place through practice.

Both these theories of learning assume that the learner eventually should possess a set of cognitive plans through which he can create language in response to the real situation, but they design different routes to achieve this goal. In 'creative construction', learning involves global elaboration of an internal system whose

individual parts are incorporated with each other from the outset. This development takes place spontaneously and subconsciously. On the contrary in 'Skill-Learning' theory, learning occurs stage-by-stage which become incorporated, eventually, with each other consciously.

Thus there are two different kinds of language learning. It takes place consciously and subconsciously. The distinction between these two is like that between 'informal' and 'formal' learning, 'spontaneous' and 'controlled' learning or 'natural' and 'didactic' learning environments. Linguists have developed strong interest in sub conscious learning of the language. Often, the term 'acquisition' is used for the subconscious learning, while 'learning' is used for 'conscious' learning.

Krashen has discussed this distinction between language acquisition and language learning. To him:

Language acquisition is considered to be implicit, subconscious learning that develops from natural communication.

(Rivers, 1983:159)

And this acquired language may be self-controlled when the speaker 'feels' the error. On the other hand, the language learning which takes place consciously gets corrected by explicit 'rules'. He suggests that conscious learning only takes place through a 'monitor' which helps the learner to improve accuracy by self-correction. This 'monitor' governs the language learning process. Zettersten describes it as follows:

The monitor operates successfully only under optional and rather artificial conditions such as classroom situations and examinations.

(Zettersten, 1986:17)

'Acquisition' according to Krashen is a 'subconscious' learning which enables learners to store information in their minds without being corrected and allows them to use it whenever the situation is found and the need is felt.

Criticizing Krashen's theory of 'conscious learning', Rivers (1981) says that it is unnecessary for most language learners, because the 'monitor' needs time to be operated which is not possible in normal communication. His theory of self-correction by 'feel' and

self correction by 'rule' is criticized due to a lack of distinction between them. Rivers states:

From the psychological point of view it is difficult to distinguish between self-correction by 'feel' and self-correction by 'rule' in the sense in which Krashen uses these terms.

Rivers adds:

Until we can find psychological support for these basic elements of the theory, it remains an interesting, carefully elaborated metaphor of limited scope.

(Rivers, 1983:160)

When learning takes place, the question of evaluation arises. In what sense the learner ^{can} be labelled as 'accurate' and 'fluent' in a foreign language is to be explained here. This is what we are going to discuss in the following section, as it relates directly to the issue of grammatical ^{et} competence and the teaching of grammar.

6:2:2. Accuracy and Fluency in CLT

'Accuracy' and 'Fluency' are considered most important issues in Communicative Language Teaching as they play a role in evaluation of the teaching and learning of a language .

The balance between accuracy and fluency has been discussed by many linguists like Brumfit (1980), Roberts (1964) and Van Ek (1975). We shall devote our attention to Brumfit's discussion in the following lines.

Linguists have shown the contrast between accuracy and fluency by using various concepts for both. To Brumfit, the distinction between them is a methodological distinction, but not a psychological or linguistic one. He says:

Its value in communicative language teaching will be technological rather than theoretical.

(Brumfit, 1985:52)

According to Brumfit 'accuracy' refers to the 'usage' of the language. He says that it is not necessary

that every fluent use of a language be an accurate one. The distinction between accuracy and fluency is not a matter of good or bad, but there is a definite role for accuracy although it differs functionally from fluency. Accuracy can be referred to with regard to language activities like listening, reading, speaking, and writing. Extensive reading is recommended for fluency whereas much intensive reading is aimed at accuracy. Free and situational writing requires a fluency; on the other hand, controlled and guided writing is required for accuracy. He suggests that teachers should not prevent pupils from combining a concern with language use with worry about accuracy in language items.

To Brumfit, fluency should be regarded as natural language use. By responding to the question, what distinguishes natural language use from traditional classroom activity, he draws our attention to these aspects:

- 1. Language produced should have been processed by the speaker or comprehension should have been constructed by the reader or listener without being received verbatim from an intermediary.*

2. *The content should be determined by the speaker or writer.*
3. *Normal processes of adjustment to the demands of a changing situation will be necessary.*
4. *The objective of the activity should be quite distinct from the formation of appropriate or correct language.*
5. *Students should not normally be aware of intervention by the teacher as teacher rather than as communicator during the performance of the activity.*

(Brumfit, 1985, 55:56)

Then 'fluency' can be realized as an effective operation of the language system. Learners should be required to use the language as fluently as possible in a situation where they are forced to do so.

It is obvious that most traditional methods emphasised 'accuracy'. Those methods advocated an accurate construction of the target language. An accuracy-based syllabus usually leads to certain disadvantages; such as written forms dominating spoken forms; adaptability and the ability to improvise being neglected; and so on.

Thus by using a 'fluency'-based syllabus we can overcome those disadvantages. This will lead us to focus on how the language is used rather than on the form of the language. In the 'fluency-based' curriculum, the learner would be a central figure in language teaching methodology. To Brumfit an accuracy-based curriculum is a deficient curriculum, because its starting point is the descriptive linguist's model. It does not start from what the student does; Brumfit says:

A course which was based on what the student could do himself most naturally would simultaneously indicate to the teacher what his next moves should be, and to the student where he needed to adjust his intuitions and where, therefore, he required help most. At the same time, the student will be expected to grope and paraphrase, and thus to learn the strategies for communication which all language users possess in their mother tongues, and which all need to develop in foreign languages. The emphasis is thus on the use, not the possession of the target language.

(Brumfit, 1979 : 188)

Continuing his observation further, Brumfit opines that although 'accuracy' and 'fluency' are always of much

concern in language classrooms there are some problems. The emphasis on 'fluency' will lead one 'to consider a number of old questions in new terms, and to give discussion of communicative teaching a very simple contrast to use in examining methodology.'

(Brumfit-1979 : 188)

As mentioned earlier, Communicative Language Teaching differs from its predecessors in emphasising more the communicative aspect of the language rather than structural aspect. In that case, what about grammar? Where does it stand in Communicative Language Teaching? The following section will deal with this aspect in detail.

6.3. The Role of Grammar

As we have seen earlier in our discussion of 'communicative competence', Communicative Language Teaching emphasises two types of learning. Students are required to learn how language is used as well how language is structured. Two learning views are realized in the Communicative Language Teaching classroom:

Structural view: Combining linguistic items in the correct order, which should be grammatically correct

Functional view: Enabling a learner to produce a sentence to match the meaning that he wants to express.

Brumfit in clarifying 'Communicative Competence' says:

What is certainly clear is that simply teaching the rules of grammar on their own is inadequate. Under the heading of 'communicative competence' two sorts of knowledge can be included. The first, the traditional competence, is the knowledge of the structure and

formal properties of language including referential meaning, while the second includes all types of knowledge necessary for the use of language effectively in the real world.

(Brumfit, 1982: 113)

This combination of two kinds of knowledge with more emphasis on learning the 'rules of use' resulted, as we saw above, in the emergence of the concepts 'Function' and 'Notion'. In the following section we will consider the relationship between 'grammar' and 'Functions' and 'Notions'.

6:3:1. Functions and Notions and their relation to Grammar.

In 1971, the Council for Cultural Co-operation, of the Council of Europe, organized a symposium in Ruschlikon, Switzerland, in order to determine what could be done to improve foreign language teaching. The 'Unit-Credit system' where tasks of learning are divided into units or portions and are related to each other systematically, was suggested in order to develop a general European foreign language teaching system, especially for adults. Then a committee

consisting of Trim, Van Ek, Richterich and Wilkins was formed to investigate how far a European 'Unit-Credit' system was feasible. In 1975 Van Ek published a report with an appendix by Alexander in which they described a level of linguistic proficiency through the term 'Threshold Level'. They specified the objectives of foreign language teaching:

1. The learner should be able to use the foreign language in any situation dealing with the topics which may occur in those situations. In addition to the topics, the situational components: the settings (e.g, Hotel, camp site), the social roles and the psychological roles are distinguished by him.
2. The learner should be able to participate in conversations about the topics specified by having command of language skills. He or she is required to be proficient in listening and speaking much more than reading and writing.
3. The learner will be able to fulfil the language functions: giving information, expressing dislikes etc.
4. The learner should be able to supply the information about topics specified.

5. The learner will be able to use and refer to general notions.
6. The learner will be able to use language forms with respect to the specified language functions and general and specific notions
7. The learner will be able to handle the specific notions which relate to the topics specified.
8. The learner will be able to communicate in the foreign language: As a speaker he should be understood by native speakers. As a listener he should understand what is being said to him in the target language.

Having these objectives in view, linguists started to design communicative syllabuses for foreign language teaching. Wilkins, as we have mentioned earlier, played an important role in specification of the above-mentioned objectives for foreign language teaching. He designed a 'functional-notional' syllabus, which became well known under the term 'Notional Syllabus'.

Before we move to 'Functions' and 'Notions' and their definitions, we need to consider three types of

'functional-notional' categories. Wilkins recognizes them as follows:

1. *Semantic-grammatical categories, relating to our perceptions of events, processes, states and abstractions includes: past-future-locations etc*
2. *Categories of modal meaning, relating to the way in which a language user expresses his own attitude towards what he is saying (or writing). (includes: possibility, necessity, obligation and so on)*
3. *Categories of communicative function, used to indicate what to do through language, as opposed to 'what we report by means of language.' (includes: questions, making requests, expressing agreements and disagreements and so on.)*

(Van, Els, 1984:232)

6.3.1. Functions and Notions:

As we saw earlier, the term 'Functions', refers to when we want something done through language. In other words we use the utterances (sentences) in order to

express something which has to be done, such as a request, question and command etc.

'Notions' are what we refer to, or use, in performing the functions. Consider the following examples: we want to know about U.S.A. and for that purpose we put a sort of questionnaire into practice:

1. Where is the U.S.A. exactly?
2. What is the area of the U.S.A?
3. John! Do you know what is the capital of the U.S.A?
4. How far is it from here?

In the above, four interrogative sentences are used to collect the information and this inquiry or questioning is called a 'function'. I wanted to know the 'location' in the first question. In question 2, I wanted to know the 'dimension' and in the last question I inquired about 'distance', when we express an idea that is 'notion'. Van Ek explains 'functions' and 'notions' in the following words:

What people do by means of language can be described as 'functions', such as question and command....

In performing such functions people express, refer to or 'handle' certain 'notions'

(Van Ek, 1979, 4-5)

We will devote our attention, in the following lines, to a discussion of the **Notional Syllabus**.

The syllabus designed by Wilkins is aimed to set up a certain minimum level of communicative ability in the target language. The learner will be taught, in this syllabus, the different types of meaning to express himself in any situation. The grammatical structure will be determined by the sociolinguistic conditions under which communication is taking place. But the communicative competence holds first position in this syllabus not the grammatical structure. The most important thing in a notional syllabus is, as Wilkins says, the learner is forced to consider the communicative value of everything that is being taught. Those items are not being taught simply because they exist but the aim is to expand his communicative competence. Wilkins declares the goal of the notional syllabus and expresses his opinion about a course design. A notional syllabus according to Wilkins (1977) is:

given, as an objective, the capacity to express a number of concepts and functions, and the a course is designed to expand the semantic repertoire of a learner in a progressive manner.

(Wilkins, 1977:59)

When we consider the 'functions' and 'notions' of the language, we notice that people's actions through language are considered more important than their mastery of the language structurally. But grammar is not neglected completely. According to Wilkins, a 'notional syllabus' seeks to ensure that the grammatical system is properly digested by the learner. This syllabus is designed in a cyclical rather than a linear way. According to this syllabus, a learner should be supplied with the simplest of each of the functional-notional categories, then by the time he reaches the advanced level of his learning he should be taught the same categories in a wide range and more complex structure. The same language units continue to provide increasing expressive range. In this way the learner recycles those units with wider rhetorical range in similar categories. In other words this course expands the learner's semantic knowledge progressively.

Wilkins explains that his intention in demonstrating functions and notions is that they will be used in the construction of the syllabus as a tool. They will not constitute the syllabus itself.

An actual notional syllabus would involve a process of selection and ordering from this larger inventory.

Wilkins, 1977:24)

However, the notional syllabus emphasises communicative competence including grammatical and situational factors. It will sustain the learner's motivation by emphasising communicative competence and evident concern with the use of language. A notional syllabus is considered to be superior to both grammatical and situational syllabuses. It is concerned with the use of language which sustains the learners' motivation and it helps in the emergence of communicative competence. Also it includes all important grammatical forms as well as all kinds of language functions. The application of this syllabus in foreign language classrooms will enable the learner to know how to use the language in a situation. He will obtain a command of language functions by practice and generalization. Although the learner is required mostly to

memorize those functions and notions, it is practical because it teaches communicative competence and the structure of the language at the same time with more emphasis, of course, on communication.

On the other hand this syllabus does not include grammatical structure explanation. The learner is left without knowing why he has used 's' with a verb in simple present tense with the third person. Memorization and then generalization could be considered as trouble maker for the learner. Usually generalization becomes difficult for the learner. We cannot expect the learner to use, on his own, "does /do" in the negative form if he is not given an explanation rather than left to derive it for himself. The main defect is that these 'functions' and 'notions' were not designed in grades: how they should be presented and at what stage should a learner learn them. It is difficult to teach the beginner the difference between a simple sentence and a complex one, direct speech and indirect speech and so on. This is the point which Van Els explains in the following lines.

Piepho and Harlow, for instance, apparently assume that if one formulates one's objectives in functional-

notional terms, one has to order the material to be learned on a functional notional basis.

(Van Els, 1984:234)

In an argument about the notional syllabus, Widdowson comments that the notional syllabus was presented as an alternative to the structural syllabus, where the language was defined in formal terms, whereas it is defined in functional terms in a notional syllabus. In the structural syllabus a learner is trained in linguistic competence by which he will be provided with the essential basis for communicative behaviour. The structural syllabus enables a learner to learn basic knowledge of grammatical forms constituting a core linguistic competence which will help him to communicate in a situation. In other words a knowledge of the language system should be taught in the foreign language classroom and its exploitation communicatively should be left to the learner. But in the 'Notional Syllabus', the learner should be taught communicative competence during the course and he should not be left to his own devices to develop the ability of communication. Widdowson says that the goal which is recognized in notional and grammatical syllabuses is an ability to communicate, but they differ in method. He adds

that this 'notional syllabus' does not differ essentially from the structural syllabus which deals with items and components. The attention in a notional syllabus is focused on items not strategies, on components of discourse, not the process of its creation. They differ most obviously in the manner in which the language content is defined. It is claimed that a notional syllabus enables the learner to acquire communicative competence within the syllabus (course) itself. Widdowson critically says:

This is a delusion because the notional syllabus presents language as an inventory of units, of items for accumulation and storage. They are notional rather structural isolates, but they are isolates all the same. What such a syllabus does not do or has not done to date (an important proviso)- is to present language as discourse, and since it does not, it cannot possibly in its present form account for communicative competence because communicative competence is not a compilation of items in memory, but a set of strategies or creative procedures for realizing the value of linguistic elements in contexts of use, an ability to make sense as a participant in discourse, whether spoken or written, by the skilful deployment of shared knowledge of code resources and rules of language use. (Widdowson, 1979 : 248)

So it becomes clear that the 'Notional Syllabus' like other syllabuses has weak points. It makes learners store a list of notions and functions in their minds which results in their being incapable to form sentences. From a list of functions and notions, they do not have an understanding of how sentences are constructed. They do not have a communicative competence. The learner should be taught both how the language is structured and how it is used appropriately.

Furthermore Morrow (1979) comments on the 'notional syllabus' from an educational perspective. He draws our attention to the necessity to go beyond a consideration of the purely 'instrumental' and to look in broader terms at the aims of language teaching. Morrow termed the selected items in *The Threshold Level* as an 'instrumental' need, as it is designed for European learners by setting out certain categories of communicative functions, certain topics and certain notions. It is only an ideal for a person paying a business or pleasure visit to a foreign country. Furthermore, according to Morrow, the view which insists that language learning at school level must be 'instrumental' is a false and misguided view. The needs of learners at school are many and varied and usually far beyond the instrumental. Learning a foreign language is

considered a mental exercise, a means of broadening general cultural horizons through acquaintance with foreign literature or civilisation or a means of social advancement. He suggests that there should be a psychological motivation for learning a foreign language. And working on what is 'useful' may be a first job which must be done in the classroom. He says:

I am thus suggesting that a wider view of 'useful' than simply short term, immediate instrumental need may often be appropriate. But at the same time I do not want to give the impression that there is no chance of making 'general' teaching relevant to practical ends. What is necessary is to consider these ends in terms of higher order goals than is commonly done at present.

(Morrow, 1979, :54)

Unfortunately, grammar has not become ⁱⁿ any way easier to learn since the revolution of communicative methodology came into existence. Let me explain this point in detail at this juncture. For example, if we want to teach the notion of relative degree, we face difficulty for the following two reasons. Firstly, the main syntactic

patterns involved are complex: *as...as*, *...er than*, *less ... than*, etc. Pupils try to mix them up if we present them all together. And secondly, a learner does not know how to form the comparatives of English adjectives as he is not familiar and the rules are complicated. Some grammatical points are difficult to learn with a notional syllabus. They need to be taught separately in isolation. So in many cases we cannot integrate the teaching of structure and meaning. Thus it would be better if we teach grammatical points before the pupils learn functions and notions. The less problematic points of grammar can be taught simultaneously along with work on the relevant notion or function. In second language acquisition both meaning and grammar are to be dealt with in a systematic way. Neither of these can be left out.

Brumfit points out that the teaching of functions and notions cannot replace the teaching of grammar.

The point about the grammatical system is that a limited and describable number of rules enable the learner to generate an enormous range of utterances which are usable, in combination with paralinguistic and semiotic systems, to express any function. To ask learners to learn a list instead of a system goes against everything we know about learning theory.

(quoted in Swan, 1985: 287)

6:4. Critical Discussion

After this discussion of Communicative Language Teaching method it is obvious now that the communicative approach encourages the learner to go beyond the grammar and take account of other aspects of communication. Languages carry not only functional meaning, they also carry social meaning. The foreign language learner focuses on linguistic forms and on the meaning to be conveyed. It has been emphasised through communicative language teaching that language can be used for different purposes.

Systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language is paid in communicative language teaching. Some major distinctive features of Communicative Language Teaching have been pointed out as follows:

Dialogues are not memorized.

Contextualization is very important.

Meaning is the central theme.

Communicative ability is a desired goal.

Translation and native language may be used.

The grammatical items can be learnt through

communication

Teachers help learners to communicate.

Students may interact with each other (either in groups or pairs)

Communicative ability was always one of the goals of foreign language teaching, but for two decades or more, it has become the basic and main aim of foreign language teaching. The Communicative approach decides that the communicative function is the most important aspect and the basic aim of foreign language teaching and meantime, it does not ignore the 'structural' dimension of the language learning. It suggests that we should not teach the learners how to manipulate the structures of the language only, but we must teach them how to develop strategies for relating those structures to their communicative functions in real situations too. The students should be provided with opportunities to use the foreign language for communicative purposes. Now we are able to give our pupils a better and more complete picture than before, of how language is used. The theoretical base of CLT is accepted by one and all in the field.

At the level of language theory, communicative language teaching has a rich, if somewhat eclectic, theoretical base.

(Richards & Rodgers, 1986:71)

On the other hand it could be argued that the **Communicative** approach in practice has focused only on communicative fluency and ignored other aspects of language especially grammatical accuracy.

One of the important drawbacks that we mention here in our discussion of Communicative Language Teaching is with special attention to the textbook. We said in our discussion of the notional syllabus that to develop a syllabus or a text as the Communicative approach proposes is difficult and in a way it is impossible. Today in schools there are some courses, which are being applied, and which claim that they belong to Communicative approach. But unfortunately, they are not exactly what they should be. For instance, the Crescent English Course (Which is being applied in some parts of the Arabian Gulf) has been designed as a Communicative approach course (so it is claimed) and has neglected the 'structural' side by over-emphasising the communicative aspect orally. So we may note that the application of the communicative approach properly needs a highly skilled and well qualified teacher who will make pupils learn the foreign language effectively and efficiently. The teacher is required to present the material, in the class, in a proper way, make pupils achieve the target and interact with each other.

One of the strong arguments about *Communicative Language Teaching* is that it should involve a profound change in language teaching methodology not simply be a matter of the specification of the elements in a syllabus, and this implies substantial teacher training - which has not always been provided.

However *Communicative Language Teaching* as a method is useful. We would , by its application in the language classes, overcome a number of problems. Communicative ability was one of the aims of predecessors, but in *Communicative Language Teaching Method* the implications of this goal have been explored more thoroughly than before. It is a fact that meanings, always, are more important than forms. We in our everyday life usually pay attention to the meaning rather than the linguistic form. We remember the meaning that has been conveyed to us, not the exact sentence with its full form.

Chapter 7. Conclusion.

An exchange or transmission of message(s) between two or more parties is one kind of communication. Under this definition a communication situation in which the learner listens to or reads the target language but does not respond in any way, is known as one-way communication. An exchange in which messages directed to the learner are in the target language, but the learner responds in his or her first language or gestures is known as restricted two-way communication. A verbal exchange in which the learner listens to someone speaking the target language and responds in the target language, is known as full two-way communication. A communication situation in which people focus on the ideas being discussed rather than on their grammatical structure is what is known as natural communication. All the methods of language teaching and all the material compiled for this purpose aim at one or the other sorts of above mentioned communication. My aim in this final part of this thesis is to summarize what has been discussed in the earlier parts, in particular the role of grammar in foreign language teaching.

Human aptitudes relating to the mind, covering the capacity to perceive, learn, think and make judgements, are known as cognitive abilities. There is considerable

disagreement as to whether general cognitive abilities account for language. Human beings undoubtedly use general cognitive abilities when they speak in order to make sense, but the ability to handle language structure may be separate. The gradual unfolding of a child's ability to perceive, learn, think and make judgements is what is known as cognitive development. Researchers argue about the extent to which it depends on an independent language component within the mind, which is innately endowed with a knowledge of linguistic principles. Language acquisition is a gradual process that can take anywhere from several months to several years.

Language educators have attempted to solve the problems of language teaching by focusing attention almost exclusively on teaching method. The distinction between theoretical assumptions can be called approaches and teaching strategies labelled as methods. Specific classroom activities are known as techniques. Thus, the form, approach, methods and techniques, though synonymous in nature, structure the language teaching field.

In the context of above definitions, we observe that foreign language teaching entered the school curriculum in the form of the *Grammar-Translation Method*, which was being used to teach Latin and Greek. The philosophy of the method was that the language could be learnt through its grammar rules and their application. Translation was the technique adopted, learners were introduced to the grammar rules, vocabulary lists, and were trained in construction of sentences and translation. Reading and writing were emphasised more than oral skills.

Learners were required to obtain a high standard of accuracy in the foreign language. The most important feature of this method was the use of the mother tongue as a medium of instruction. Grammar was considered as a basic feature of the language. The purpose of foreign language learning was to become the master of its structure.

As a result of this over-emphasised teaching of grammar and translation, learners could master the structures, but they could hardly use the foreign language as a means of communication. In the nineteenth century, because of the above, language learning/teaching needed a thorough shake up. The view of the language, and the technique of *Grammar-Translation Method* underwent a change and the *Reform Movement* was the need of the hour.

When learners and teachers realized that the *Grammar-Translation method* was not capable of meeting the requirements, they demanded a change in approaches, methods and techniques. Many researchers worked on this and one amongst them, *Vietor*, a German scholar, published a paper under the title '*Der Sprachunterricht muss Umkehren*' (Language must start afresh). This note provided a sound base for the *Reform Movement* to appear. This *Movement* advocated and adopted the techniques of oral work in the classroom. Reading was encouraged. *The International Phonetic Association*, which was founded by *Paul Passy*, recommended a certain methodological orientation.

1. *The study of spoken language*
2. *Phonetic training in order to obtain good pronunciation.*
3. *The use of conversation texts and dialogues*
4. *Inductive teaching of grammar*
5. *Teaching vocabulary by associating with the target language avoiding mother tongue*
6. *Speech as a primary goal of foreign language learning and finally,*
7. *Reading should be taken up after mastering the listening skill.*

One noteworthy feature is that explanation of grammar is altogether avoided. The **Movement** and its followers were of the opinion that the learner should find out the rules of grammar in an inductive way.

After the application of the ideas of the **Reform Movement**, and its philosophy for a long time, people realized that learners were not as fluent as they ought to be. In order to rectify the lack of fluency in the target language, the **Direct Method** was introduced.

The **Direct Method** involves the learner in using and learning meaningful utterances and contexts. It shifted the learning of foreign language from the literary aspect to the spoken aspect. The main characteristic feature of this method is that the target language itself is used as a means of instruction and communication in the classroom. First language was avoided and translation as a technique in the classroom was prohibited. Text materials was presented in the classroom. Text is generally some target language material which is specially compiled for use in class. Difficult expressions are explained in the target

language by making use of teaching aids. A sort of question and answer session usually follows this for the reason that students practice the pattern and vocabulary. Students read the text aloud for practice. Grammatical observations are derived from the text and students are encouraged to derive the grammatical principle involved.

The learning of second language was compared to first language acquisition. The following principles were the salient ones in the *Direct Method*:

1. *Target language is the medium of instruction*
2. *Oral communication skills are built up*
3. *Grammar is taught inductively*
4. *New teaching points are introduced orally.*

Grammar rules were not taught at the beginning stage. A lesson of text material without explicit grammar was considered as the best material. Students were advised to abstract the rules and make their own generalizations from their knowledge. The *Direct Method* was attacked because the method believed in the theory that second language learning is similar to first language acquisition. It was argued that first language acquisition conditions could hardly be recreated in the classroom. The

method also presupposes native speakers as teachers and intelligent learners to participate.

The *Audio-Lingual Method* came into existence with the ideas of *Reform Movement* and *Direct Method* put together. Speech is given primacy over other skills.

The Audio-Lingual method was based on a linguistic theory which advocated these principles:

- 1. Language is speech.*
- 2. A language is a set of habits.*
- 3. Teach the language not about the language.*
- 4. Languages are different and need to be contrasted.*

Skinnerian behaviourist theory dominated the Audio-Lingual method. The behaviourist theory of language learning claimed that learning takes place as a result of:

imitation - re-inforcement - repetition - conditioning

Grammar was not taught explicitly. Pupils were required to acquire the control of grammar rules in an automatic way. It was believed that the learners should learn grammar as they do in their mother tongue. To overcome the difficulties of first language interference

in second language learning, *Contrastive Analysis* was recommended.

But criticism was directed at the Audio-Lingual method. Pupils were expected to utter accurate and correct sentences without mistakes. They were restricted to some patterned sentences and due to their lack of knowledge they were incapable of communicating beyond what they had learnt. Pupils became parrots and were incapable of acting in an unexpected situation. Pupils' feelings were totally neglected as the Audio-Lingual method followed a purely mechanical process.

Due to these criticisms, and above all Chomsky's strong criticism of the '*behaviourism*' theory of language learning, a place was provided for *Communicative Language Teaching* to come forward in recent teaching approaches.

As has been discussed earlier, the communicative potential of the language was mostly neglected in the previous methods. The 'form' rather than 'meaning' dominated. So the confirmation of the preceding method's (Audio-Lingual) incapability to qualify the learner to react to new linguistic demands was one of the important impetuses.

As we discussed in the sixth chapter, this communicative approach related structure with the function of the language. Learners in this method of teaching are asked to learn the communicative use of the language as well as grammatical use. They are required to acquire a '*communicative competence*', which involves both knowledge of *structural knowledge, and of rules of language use.*

Two learning theories are implicit in *Communicative Language Teaching*. '*Creative construction*' which emphasises the cognitive processing strategies which develop internal representations of the second language. Skill-learning involves cognitive and behavioural aspects. Both accuracy and fluency are considered important issues in second language learning.

The following points are considered as the Communicative approach's major distinctive features:

1. *Contextualization is important.*
2. *Meaning is the central theme.*
3. *Communicative ability is a desired goal.*

4. *Translation and the native language may be used in the class.*
5. *Grammatical items can be learnt through communication.*
6. *Pair-group work is an important technique.*

Although Communicative Language Teaching has focussed to a large extent on communicative fluency other aspects of language and especially grammatical accuracy is given some importance. The implication of this goal was explored more thoroughly than before.

Grammar teaching

We have summarized the teaching methods which dominated foreign language teaching classrooms during the last hundred years. The second part of this chapter is devoted to a discussion of the common idea which underlay all methods and their theory of teaching grammar.

We might discern the following points which are implicit in the methods:

1. Grammar-Translation Method was used for teaching the language whereby the learners derive pleasure in fulfilling their literacy needs. The Direct Method was aimed at acquiring spoken language and the Audio-Lingual Method aims at good pronunciation besides good ability to listen and reproduce. Communicative Language Teaching aims at some sort of expressions that are intelligible to the native speakers. Thus each method had its own approach, and technique.

2. Grammar teaching was supported by all schools of thought but they differ in their techniques and quantities.

Some methods like the Direct Method and the Audio-Lingual Method consider learning second languages to be similar to first language acquisition. For this reason they advocated the avoidance of grammatical explanation in the early stages. Learners are expected to learn the grammatical points through practice. They are supposed to derive the grammatical items from the text and make their generalization, whereas the Grammar-Translation method considered the grammar and grammatical explanation a basic feature of the language. It was the theme of the method.

Each lesson in this method presented one or two new grammatical points. But in **Communicative Language Teaching** there is the combination of kinds of knowledge with more emphasis on the communicative aspect.

Grammar teaching has been the most controversial issue in the methods. We have seen that grammar was considered, in Grammar-Translation method, a basic feature of the language, and becoming the master of structure was the theme of this method. Thus it was believed that a language could be learnt through its grammar. But in the Reform Movement and Direct method, grammar was taught deductively, where the teacher should collect the examples of new grammar from the text, show and explain how they worked and help pupils to draw their conclusions, whereas in the Audio-Lingual method, learners were required to acquire their control of grammar in an automatic way. Pupils were expected to learn grammar and use it without being analysed, as they learn their first language's grammar. In **Communicative Language Teaching**, grammatical explanation is not avoided and any device which helps the pupils is accepted. Learners are required to learn how language items are used as well as how they are structured.

In short, 'grammar' has been always, an important issue throughout language teaching history. Sometimes it was taught deductively and sometimes inductively. Sometimes its explanation was delayed until the later stages and sometimes it was taught from the beginning. But one thing is clear that 'grammar' should be taught. This is the point on which there is agreement, but the quantity and timing of introducing grammar is different for each method.

One conclusion might be that the question of quantity and timing of grammar in language teaching should be left to the syllabus designer so as to decide clearly. He will be aware of the kind of learners, the place (country), the existing circumstances, which include their political, financial and social background. We cannot design a syllabus without such knowledge and impose it on a particular geographical area or society.

Under Communicative Language Teaching philosophy, language teaching has made great progress. For instance, the boredom which was common in precedent methods disappeared, pupils are given a better and more complete picture than before of how language is used, and the mechanical type of exercises were changed to exciting and

engaging practice activities. But in spite all of this, the Communicative Language Teaching doctrine remains a confused theory. We are not told by the proponents of CLT what is their theory of language learning exactly. This confusion leads to pupils' incapability to express themselves, and negotiate successfully in appropriate situations. I think the Crescent course is a good example of that. In fact it does not clarify exactly what it intends to teach pupils.

Thus I suggest the grammatical points should be presented with language items in graded order in a well organized way, so that pupils can digest these structural items. And the problematic grammatical points should be taught separately and before notions and functions.

Grammatical items should be taught from easy to complicated ones. The construction of language grammatically should be given the same importance as language use. The learners should be given exercises where they can practise on both grammatical and functional /notional aspects of language in order to gain communicative competence.

At the end of this thesis I would like to say that foreign language teaching has not settled down yet. So many methods have been used in the foreign language classroom and after a while forgotten. Does this happen because we are not sure about how languages are taught and learnt? It seems that we just rely on speculation, and prefer to experiment with the approaches, methods and techniques suitable to that particular time and need.

We shift from one method to another due to the lack of a solid empirical anchor of established knowledge of how languages are taught. There is as yet no method suitable for all types of learners with their varied needs. There is need for group specific, learner specific and time specific methods and techniques through which a language can be taught with fewer problems.

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