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HISTORY OF USING THE TRANSLATION METHODS IN FOREING LANGUAGE TEACHING

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Actuality of the theme. September 31, 1991 is the day Independence of the Republic of Uzbekistan was officially proclaimed, and the initial point of Uzbekistan's full-scale integration in the world community. After gaining sovereignty Uzbekistan started to independently conduct its foreign policy. It was based on the following standard principles: priority of national interests and norms of international law. As our state gained its historical independence there made reforms in all shares of social and economic life. Present day development demands highly educated specialists. That's why great attention is being paid to the modernization of higher education in our republic.

At the initiative of the First President in 2012 on 10th December had been announced a new decree[1] on measures to further improvement of the system of learning foreign languages" Starting from the 2013-2014 academic year teaching foreign language in schools should begin from the first grade. It should be noted that measures are taken to enhance the teaching of foreign languages especially English language throughout the nine years of schooling.

By now, new educational standards for learning foreign languages in the system of continuous education have already been developed. The state has also accepted the international standards of the "Common European Competence for Languages Proficiency: learning, teaching, assessment" (CEFR) Among other things ensuring the quality of teaching in accordance with new standards requires retraining of foreign language teachers in secondary schools[2].

The President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Sh. M. Mirziyoyev's report in extended meeting of Ministers legal office on January 16, 2017, "The Results of socio-economic development of the country in the 2016 and the intended economic program for the most important priority areas are devoted to in 2017," was emphasized that "Education and science education in the implementation of

[1] "On measures to further improvement of the system of learning foreign languages" The decree of the President of Uzbekistan, 1875, 2012, 10 December

[2] "On measures to further improvement of the system of learning foreign languages" The decree of the President of Uzbekistan, 1875, 2012, 10 December

the state policy about the youth - new modern methods of teaching and the introduction of information technology in the education sector as well as the implementation of the tasks for the future of youth, is strategically important for society and the country's future"[3] .

In the Chapter 4.4. Development of Education and Science Strategy of Actions for the further Development of the Republic of Uzbekistan the key objectives such as "further improving the system of continuing education, increasing the guility of educational services, continuing the guality of traning higly qualified personnel in line with the modern requrements of the labor market " were determined[4].

Present research work is devoted to the problems of History of Using the Translation Methods in Foreign Language Teaching. Nowadays the English language is taught as a compulsory subject in all institutions in Uzbekistan. Teaching and learning English has some specific peculiarities and is required a special teaching program and methodology. Studying of scientific-methodological sources, analyzing of current curriculums and texts-books show that the English language plays a great role for students in being a high qualified specialist. But at present the level of teaching and learning the English language doesn't correspond to modern requirements. It is important to notice that the cause of such negative result-English teachers don't have enough professional skills and modern requirements aren't taken into account in current curriculums, text-books and methodological appliances, modern pedagogical technologies aren't used in teaching foreign languages as well .

Theoretical value of the work. The materials of the qualification work may be used in Foreign Language Teaching in secondary schools, academic lyceums, professional colleges and higher education.

[3]The President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Sh. M. Mirziyoyev's report in extended meeting of Ministers legal office on January 16, 2017. Newspaper "Xalq so'zi", Number-11, January 16, 2017, Pages-1-2-3-4.
[4] Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2017 йил 7 февралдаги "Ўзбекистон Республикасини янада ривожлантириш бўйича Ҳаракатлар стратегияси тўғрисида"ги ПФ-49-47-сон фармони// Ўзбекистон Республикаси қонун хужжтлари тўплами. -№6 (766)-70-модда. –Т.: Адолат, 2017. –Б.38.

The basic purpose of qualification paper is to learn and analysis the historical, modern methods and approaches of Foreign Language.

The novelty of our work is to determine methodological issues of the history of methods in Foreign Language Teaching, Modern teaching approaches in Foreign Language Teaching, the Appearance and usage of Translation Methods in Foreign Language Teaching in the World.

The practical value of the work is the fact that the results of the research can be used in the courses of lectures and seminars of English Language Methodology and analysis can be useful for practical courses of English Language Teaching.

The theoretical and methodological problems of the historical methods and Modern teaching approaches as well as the Translation methods of Foreign Language Teaching are the **object for our research**.

The work consists of introduction, three chapters, a conclusion and bibliography.

In Introduction we have investigated the scientific actuality of the dissertation, subject and object of the theme, aims and tasks of the work, theoretical and practical significance of the dissertation, as well as a methodological foundation and level of learning of the problem.

The first chapter of the qualification work is dedicated to such vital problems as: the History of Methods in Foreign Language Teaching, the main characteristics of the terms Approach, method and techniques in Foreign Language Teaching the natural methods in foreign language, Natural Approaches, Communicative Language Learning, Teaching Foreign Languages the Silent way, Suggestopedia, Content-based, theme-based, task-based teaching.

The second chapter is determined the problems of the Contemporary Methods and Approaches in Foreign Language, The main Characteristics of the Cognitive approaches in Foreign Language Teaching, The usage of Total Physical Respomse in Foreign Language Teaching.

The third part is dedicated to the problems of The appearance and developing Translation Methods, The Methodological basis of using Translation Methods in Foreign Language Teaching

In the conclusion we have pointed the main results of the qualification work and analyzed them.

All used literature is given in the bibliography.

We have so far looked closely at an actual English Language class, considered twelve major principles that enlighten our teaching practices, and carefully examined one of the most powerful principles of learning and teaching. With that backdrop of classroom observation and of principled applications, you can more insightfully approach a number of questions about this language teaching profession in general. In this chapter we focus on methods as the identifying characteristics of the past century of "modern" language teaching efforts. What do we mean by the term method by which we tend to characterize that history? How do methods reflect various trends of disciplinary thought? How do the twelve principles of language learning and teaching help us to distinguish, in our history, between passing fads and "the good stuff"? These are some of the questions we will address in this chapter.

In the next chapter, this historical overview is culminated in a close look at the current state of the art in language teaching. Above all, you will come to see how our profession is now more aptly characterized by a unified, comprehensive approach rather than by competing, restricted methods. That general approach will be described in detail, along with some of the current professional jargon associated with it.

In the century spanning the mid 1880s to the mid 1980s, the language teaching profession was involved in a search. That search was for what has popularly been called "methods." or ideally, a single method, generalizable across widely varying audiences that would successfully teach students a foreign language in the classroom. Historical accounts of the profession tend therefore to describe a succession of methods each of which is more or less discarded in due

course of time as a new method takes its place. We will turn to that "methodical" history of language teaching in a moment, but first, we should try to understand what we mean by method.

What is a approach? Three decades ago Edward Anthony (1963) gave us a definition that has quite admirably withstood the test of time. His concept of method was the second of three hierarchical elements, namely, approach, method, and technique. An approach, according to Anthony, is a set of assumptions dealing with the nature of language, learning, and teaching. Method is an overall plan for systematic presentation of language based upon a selected approach. Techniques are the specific activities manifested in the classroom that are consistent with a method and therefore in harmony with an approach as well.

To this day, for better or worse, Anthony's terms are still in common use among language teachers. A teacher may, for example, at the approach level, affirm the ultimate importance of learning in a relaxed state of mental awareness just above the threshold of consciousness. The method that follows might resemble, say, Suggestopedia (a description follows in this chapter). Techniques could include playing Baroque music while reading a passage in the foreign language, getting students to sit in the yoga position while listening to a list of words, learners adopting a new name in the classroom, or role-playing that new person.

A couple of decades later, Jack Richards and Theodore Rodgers (1982, 1986) proposed a reformulation of the concept of method. Anthony's approach, method, and technique were renamed, respectively, approach, design, and procedure, with a superordinate term to describe this three-step process now called method. A method, according to Richards and Rodgers, "is an umbrella term for the specification and interrelation of theory and practice." (1982:154) An approach defines assumptions, beliefs, and theories about the nature of language and language learning. Designs specify the relationship of those theories to classroom materials and activities. Procedures are the techniques and practices that are derived from one's approach and design. Through their reformulation, Richards

and Rodgers made two principal contributions to our understanding of the concept of method.

(1) First, they specified the necessary elements of language teaching "designs" that had heretofore been left somewhat vague. Their schematic representation of "method" reveals six important features of "designs": objectives, syllabus (criteria for selection and organization of linguistic and subject/matter content), activities, learner roles, teacher roles, and the role of instructional materials. The latter three features have occupied a significant proportion of our collective attention in the profession for the last decade or so. Already in this book you may have noted how, for example, learner roles (styles, individual preferences for group or individual learning, student input in determining curricular content, etc.) are important considerations in your teaching.

(2) Second, Richards and Rodgers nudged us into at last relinquishing the notion that separate, definable, discrete methods are the essential building blocks of methodology. By helping us to think in terms of an approach that under girds our language designs (curricula), which are realized by various procedures (techniques), we could see that methods, as we still use and understand the term, are too restrictive, too pre-programmed, and too "prepackaged." Virtually all language teaching methods make the oversimplified assumption that what teachers "do" in the classroom can be conventionalized into a set of procedures that fits all contexts. We are now all too aware that such is clearly not the case.

As we shall see in the next chapter, the whole concept of separate methods is no longer a central issue in language teaching practice. Instead, we currently make ample reference to "methodology" as our super ordinate umbrella term, reserving the term "method" for somewhat specific, identifiable clusters of theoretically compatible classroom techniques.

So, Richards and Rodgers' reformulation of the concept of method was soundly conceived; however, their attempt to give new meaning to an old term has not caught on in the pedagogical literature. What they would like us to call "method" is more comfortably referred to, I think, as "methodology," in order to

avoid confusion with what we will no doubt always think of as those separate entities (like Audiovisual or Suggestopedia) that are no longer at the center of our teaching philosophy.

Another terminological problem lies in the use of the term "designs"; instead, we more comfortably refer to curricula or syllabuses when we refer to design features of a language program. 'There is currently quite an intermingling of such terms as technique, task, procedure, activity, and exercise, often used in somewhat careless free variation across the profession. Of these terms, task has received the most concerted attention recently, viewed by such scholars as David Nunan (1991) as incorporating specific communicative and pedagogical principles. Tasks, according to Nunan and others, should be thought of as a special kind of technique and, in fact, may actually include more than one technique. See Chapter 5 for a full explanation.

What are we left with in this lexicographic confusion? Interestingly, the terminology of the pedagogical literature in the field appears to be more in line with Anthony's original terms, but with some important additions and refinements. Following is a set of definitions that reflect the current usage and that will be used in this book.

Methodology: The study of pedagogical practices in general (including theoretical underpinnings and related research). Whatever considerations are involved in "how to teach" are methodological.

Approach: Theoretical positions and beliefs about the nature of language, the nature of language learning, and the applicability of both to pedagogical settings.

Method: A generalized set of classroom specifications for accomplishing linguistic objectives. Methods tend to be primarily concerned with teacher and student roles and behaviors and secondarily with such features as linguistic and subject-matter objectives, sequencing, and material:-.. They are AVMost always thought of as being broadly applicable to a variety of audiences in a variety of contexts.

Curriculum/syllabus: Designs for carrying out a particular language program. Features include a primary concern with the specification of linguistic and subject-matter objectives, sequencing, and materials to meet the needs of a designated group of learners in a defined context. (The term "syllabus" is used more customarily in the United Kingdom to refer to what is called, a "curriculum" in the United States.)

Technique (also commonly referred to by other terms): a wide variety of exercises, activities, or devices used in the language classroom for realizing lesson objectives.

Some researches had been done by H.Palmer, M Uest, I.V.Rakhmanov, I.A. Zimnyya, J.J.Jalolov, J.B.Buranov, U.Q. Yusupov, A.Mamatov. M.Jusupov, E. Umarkhodjaev, T.Q.Sattarov, V.I.Andriyanova, M.Tuxtakhodjaeva, S.Saydaliev and so.

There have done some works by scientists and linguists on historical and modern methods and approaches in foreign language teaching. They were:

1. For the grammar-translation method - Rivers (1981), Higgs and Clifford (1981), Strasheim (1976);

2. **for the direct method** - linguistics Ferdinand de Saus-sure, Thorndike, H. Palmer, F.Gouin, M. Berlitz, M. Walter, B. Eggert, F. Gouin, Charles Fries;

3**. for the audio-visual method -** the Saint Cloud;

4. **for the Community Language Learning (CLL)** -Peter Hagboldt M. West;

5. **for the Cognitive learning** - Charles Curran (1976);

6. **for the the Silent way -** Stevick (1976), Gattegno, Karambelas (1971);

7. **for the Natural Approaches** - Gattegno, Karambelas (1971), Terrell (1977, 1982), Higgs and Clifford (1982), Strasheim (1976)**,** Terrell (1977), Krashen's;

8. **for the oral approach** - Charles Fries;

9. **for the Suggestive-Accelerative Learning and Teaching (SALT)** - Georgiy Lozanov (1978);

10. **for the content-based instruction** - Bancroft, (1982), Brinton;

11. **for the theme-based** - Hockman.

A glance through the past century or so of language teaching will give an interesting picture of how varied the interpretations have been of the best way to teach a foreign language. As disciplinary schools of thought—psychology, linguistics, education, for example—have come and gone, so have language teaching methods waxed and waned in popularity. Teaching methods, as "approaches in action," are of course the practical application of theoretical findings and positions. In a field such as ours that is relatively young, it should come as no surprise to discover a wide variety of these applications, some in total philosophical opposition to others, over the last hundred years.

Albert Marckwardt (1972:5) saw these "changing winds and shifting sands" as a cyclical pattern in which a new method emerged about every quarter of a century. Each new method broke from the qld but took with it some of the positive aspects of the previous practices. A good example of this cyclical nature of methods is found in the "revolutionary" Audiovisual method (AVM) (a description follows) of the mid-twentieth century. The AVM borrowed tenets from its predecessor by almost half a century, the Direct Method, while breaking away entirely from the Grammar Translation Method. Within a short time, however, AVM critics were advocating more attention to thinking, to cognition, and to rule learning, which to some smacked of a return to Grammar Translation!

What follows is a sketch of those changing winds and shifting sands of language teaching over the years.

PART I. THEORETICAL BASIS OF THE HISTORICAL METHODS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

I.1. The Appearance and developing the historical methods in Foreign language teaching

The field of foreign language teaching has undergone many fluctuations and shifts over the years. Different from physics or chemistry, in which progress is more or less steady until a major discovery causes a radical theoretical revision (Kuhn 1970), language teaching is a field in which fads and heroes have come and gone in a manner fairly consistent with the kinds of changes that occur in youth culture. I believe that one reason for the frequent swings of the pendulum that have been taking place until fairly recendy is the fact that very few language teachers have a sense of history about their profession and are thus unaware of the historical bases of the many methodological options they have at their disposal. It is hoped that this brief and necessarily oversimplified survey will encourage many language teachers to learn more about the origins of their profession. Such knowledge will ensure some perspective when teachers evaluate any so-called innovations or new approaches to methodology, which will surely continue to emerge from time to time.

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

Both the classical Greek and medieval Latin periods were characterized by an emphasis on teaching people to use foreign languages. The classical languages, first Greek and then Latin, were used as lingua francas. Higher learning was conducted primarily through these languages all over Europe. They were used widely in philosophy, religion, politics, and business. Thus the educated elite became fluent speakers, readers, and writers of the appropriate classical language. We can assume that the teachers or tutors used informal and more or less direct

approaches to convey the form and meaning of the language they were teaching and that they used aural-oral techniques with no language textbooks per se, but rather a small stock of hand-copied written manuscripts of some sort, perhaps a few texts in the target language, or crude dictionaries that listed equivalent words in two or more languages side by side.

During the Renaissance, the formal study of the grammars of Greek and Latin became popular through the mass production of books made possible by the invention of the printing press. In the case of Latin, it was discovered that the grammar of the classical texts was different from that of the Latin being used as a lingua franca-the latter subsequently being labeled vulgate Latin, i.e., Latin of the common people. Major differences had developed between the classical Latin described in the Renaissance grammars, which became the formal object of instruction in schools, and the Latin being used for everyday purposes. This occurred at about the same time that Latin began to be abandoned as a lingua franca. (No one was speaking classical Latin anymore, and various European vernaculars had begun to rise in respectability and popularity.) Thus, in retrospect, strange as it may seem, the Renaissance preoccupation with the formal study of classical Latin may have contributed to the demise of Latin as a lingua franca in Western Europe.

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

- Use imitation instead of rules to teach a language.
- Have your students repeat after you.
- Use a limited vocabulary initially.

- Help your students practice reading and speaking.
- Teach language through pictures to make it meaningful.

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

Comenius's views held sway for some time; however, by the beginning of the nineteenth century, the systematic study of the grammar of classical Latin and of classical texts had once again taken over in schools and universities throughout Europe. The analytical Grammar-Translation Approach became firmly entrenched as a method for teaching not only Latin but, by extension, modern languages as well. It was perhaps best codified in the work of Karl Ploetz, a German scholar who had a tremendous influence on the language teaching profession during his lifetime and afterwards. (He died in 1881.)

However, the swinging of the pendulum continued. By the end of the nineteenth century, the Direct Method, which once more stressed the ability to use rather than to analyze a language as the goal of language instruction, had begun to function as a viable alternative to Grammar-Translation. Frangois Gouin, a Frenchman, began to publish in 1880 concerning his work with the Direct Method. He advocated exclusive use of the target language in the classroom, having been influenced by an older friend, the German philosopher-scientist Alexander von Humboldt, who had espoused the notion that a language cannot be taught, that one can only create conditions for learning to take place (Kelly 1969).

The Direct Method became very popular in France and Germany, and has enthusiastic followers among language teachers even today (as does the Grammar Translation Approach).

In 1886, during the same period that the Direct Method first became popular in Europe, the International Phonetic Association was established by scholars such as Henry Sweet, Wilhelm Victor, and Paul Passy. They developed the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) and became part of the Reform Movement in language teaching in the 1890s. These phoneticians made some of the first truly

scientific contributions to language teaching when they advocated principles such as the following:

- the spoken form of a language is primary and should be taught first;
- the findings of phonetics should be applied to language teaching;

i language teachers must have solid training in phonetics;

- learners should be given phonetic training to establish good speech habits.

The work of these phoneticians focused on the teaching of pronunciation and oral skills, which they felt had been ignored in Grammar- Translation. Thus, although the Reform Movement is not necessarily considered a full-blown pedagogical approach to language teaching, its adherents did have an influence on future approaches, as we shall see.

Quite apart from the work of the Reform Movement, the influence of the Direct Method grew; it crossed the Atlantic in the early twentieth century when Emile de Sauze, a disciple of Gouin, came to Cleveland, Ohio, in order to see to it that all foreign language instruction in the public schools there implemented the Direct Method. De Sauze's endeavor, however, was not completely successful (in Cleveland or elsewhere) since there were too few foreign language teachers in the United States, who were fluent speakers of the language they taught. Later, the Modern Language Association of America, based on the Coleman Report (Coleman 1929), endorsed the Reading Approach to language teaching, since given the skills and limitations of most language teachers, all that one could reasonably expect was that students would come away from the study of a foreign language able to read the target language-with emphasis on some of the great works of literature and philosophy that had been produced in the language.

The Reading Approach, as reflected in the work of Michael West (1941) and others, held sway in the United States until the late 1930s and early 1940s, when World War II broke out and made it imperative for the U.S. military to quickly and efficiently teach foreign language learners how to speak and understand a language. At this time, the U.S. government hired linguists to help teach languages and develop materials: the Audiolingual Approach (Fries 1945), which drew

heavily on structural linguistics (Bloomfield 1933) and behavioral psychology (Skinner 1957), was born. In Britain the same historical pressures gave rise to the Oral or Situational Approach (e.g., Pittman 1963), which drew on Firthian Linguistics (codified in the work of Firth's best- known student, M. A. K. Halliday (1973) as well as drawing on the experience of Britain's language educators with oral approaches to foreign language teaching. Although somewhat influenced by, but less dogmatic than, its American counterpart (the Audiolingual Approach), the Oral or Situational Approach advocated organizing structures around situations that would provide the learner with maximum opportunity to practice the target language, with "practice" nonetheless often being little more than choral repetition. Some historians of language teaching (e.g., Howatt 1984) believe that the earlier Reform Movement played a role in the development of both Audiolingualism in the United States and the Oral-Situational Approach in Britain.

In addition to the Grammar-Translation Approach, the Direct Approach,[2] the Reading Approach, the Audiolingual Approach, and the Oral-Situational Approach-whose historical development I have sketched above briefly-there are four other discernible approaches to foreign language teaching that developed and were widely used during the final quarter of the twentieth century. Thus, there are nine approaches altogether that I shall be referring to:

1. Grammar-Translation
2. Direct
3. Reading
4. Audiolingualism (United States)
5. Oral-Situational (Britain)
6. Cognitive
7. Affective-Humanistic Comprehension-Based
8. Communicative

However, before listing the features of each approach, I would like to digress a moment to clarify some terminology that is crucial to this discussion. Namely, what do we mean by the terms approach, method, and technique? Are these terms

synonymous? If not, how do they differ? Anthony (1963) has provided a useful set of definitions for our purposes. An approach to language teaching is something that reflects a certain model or research paradigm-a theory, if you like. This term is the broadest of the three. A method, on the other hand, is a set of procedures, i.e., a system that spells out rather precisely how to teach a second or foreign language. It is more specific than an approach but less specific than a technique. Methods are typically compatible with one (or sometimes two) approaches. A technique is a classroom device or activity and thus represents the narrowest of the three concepts. Some techniques are widely used and found in many methods (e.g., dictation, imitation, and repetition); however, some techniques are specific to or characteristic of a given method.

The most problematic of Anthony's three terms is method. Methods proliferated in the 1970s. They were typically very specific in terms of the procedures and materials that the teacher, who required special training, was supposed to use. They were almost always developed and defined by one person. This person, in turn, trained practitioners who accepted the method as gospel and helped to spread the word. Some methods and their originators follow:

- Silent Way (Gattegno 1976)
- Community Language Learning (Curran 1976)
- Total Physical Response (Asher 1977)
- Suggestology, Suggestopedia, or Accelerated Learning (Lozanov 1978)

However, the lack of flexibility in such methods led some applied linguists (e.g., Richards 1984) to seriously question their usefulness and aroused a healthy skepticism among language educators, who argued that there is no such thing as the best "method" the complex circumstances of teaching and learning languages with different kinds of pupils, teachers, aims and objectives, approaches, methods, and materials, classroom techniques and standards of achievement-make it inconceivable that any single method could achieve optimum success in all circumstances. (Strevens 1977, p. 5).

At this point I will outline each of the nine approaches listed above. In

addition, I will note any special proficiency or role that the teacher is expected (or not expected) to fulfill.

1. **Grammar-Translation Approach** (an extension of the approach used to teach classical languages to the teaching of modern languages)

a. Instruction is given in the native language of the students.
b. There is little use of the target language for communication.
c. Focus is on grammatical parsing, i.e., the form and inflection of words.
d. There is early reading of difficult texts.
e. A typical exercise is to translate sentences from the target language into the mother tongue (or vice versa).
f. The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use the language for communication.
g. The teacher does not have to be able to speak the target language.

2. **Direct Approach** (a reaction to the Grammar-Translation Approach and its failure to produce learners who could communicate in the foreign language they had been studying)

a. No use of the mother tongue is permitted (i.e., the teacher does not need to know the students' native language).
b. Lessons begin with dialogues and anecdotes in modern conversational style.
c. Actions and pictures are used to make meanings clear.
d. Grammar is learned inductively.
e. Literary texts are read for pleasure and are not analyzed grammatically.
f. The target culture is also taught inductively.
g. The teacher must be a native speaker or have nativelike proficiency in the target language.

3. **Reading Approach** (a reaction to the problems experienced in implementing the Direct Approach; reading was viewed as the most usable skill to have in a foreign language since not many people traveled abroad at that time; also, few teachers could use their foreign language well enough to use a direct approach effectively in class)

a. Only the grammar useful for reading comprehension is taught.
b. Vocabulary is controlled at first (based on frequency and usefulness) and then expanded.
c. Translation is once more a respectable classroom procedure.
d. Reading comprehension is the only language skill emphasized.
e. The teacher does not need to have good oral proficiency in the target language.

4. Audiolingualism (a reaction to the Reading Approach and its lack of emphasis on oral-aural skills; this approach became dominant in the United States during the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s; it draws from the Reform Movement and the Direct Approach but adds features from structural linguistics (Bloomfield 1933) and behavioral psychology (Skinner 1957)

a. Lessons begin with dialogues.
b. Mimicry and memorization are used, based on the assumption that language is habit formation.
c. Grammatical structures are sequenced and rules are taught inductively.
d. Skills are sequenced: listening, speaking— reading, writing postponed.
e. Pronunciation is stressed from the beginning.
f. Vocabulary is severely limited in initial stages.
g. A great effort is made to prevent learner errors.
h. Language is often manipulated without regard to meaning or context.
i. The teacher must be proficient only in the structures, vocabulary, etc. that he or she is teaching since learning activities and materials are carefully controlled.

5. Oral-Situational Approach (a reaction to the Reading Approach and its lack of emphasis on oral-aural skills; this approach was dominant in Britain during the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s; it draws from the Reform Movement and the Direct Approach but adds features from Frisian linguistics and the emerging professional field of language pedagogy)

a. The spoken language is primary.
b. All language material is practiced orally before being presented in written form (reading and writing are taught only after an oral base in lexical and

grammatical forms has been established).

c. Only the target language should be used in the classroom. r -

d. Efforts are made to ensure that the most general and useful lexical items are presented.

e. Grammatical structures are graded from simple to complex.

f. New items (lexical and grammatical) are introduced and practiced situationally (e.g., at the post office, at the bank, at the dinner table).

6. Cognitive Approach (a reaction to the behaviorist features of the Audiolingual Approach; influenced by cognitive psychology (Neisser, 1967) and Chomskyan linguistics (Chomsky 1959, 1965)

a. Language learning is viewed as rule acquisition, not habit formation.

b. Instruction is often individualized; learners are responsible for their own learning.

c. Grammar must be taught but it can be taught deductively (rules first, practice later) and/or inductively (rules can either be stated after practice or left as implicit information for the learners to process on their own).

d. Pronunciation is de-emphasized; perfection is viewed as unrealistic and unattainable.

e. Reading and writing are once again as important as listening and speaking.

f. Vocabulary instruction is once again important, especially at intermediate and advanced levels.

g. Errors are viewed as inevitable, to be used constructively in the learning process.

h. The teacher is expected to have good general proficiency in the target language as well as an ability to analyze the target language.

7. Affective-Humanistic Approach (a reaction to the general lack of affective considerations in both Audiolingualism and the Cognitive Approach; (e.g., Moskowitz 1978 and Curran 1976).

a. Respect is emphasized for the individual (each student, the teacher) and for his or her feelings.

b. Communication that is meaningful to the learner is emphasized.

Instruction involves much work in pairs and small groups.

8. Comprehension-Based Approach (an outgrowth of research in first language acquisition that led some language methodologists to assume that second or foreign language learning is very similar to first language acquisition; e.g., Postovsky 1974; Winitz 1981; Krashen and Terrell 1983)

a. Listening comprehension is very important and is viewed as the basic skill that will allow speaking, reading, and writing to develop spontaneously over time, given the right conditions.
b. Learners should begin by listening to meaningful speech and by responding nonverbally in meaningful ways before they produce any language themselves.
c. Learners should not speak until they feel ready to do so; this results in better pronunciation than if the learner is forced to speak immediately.
d. Learners progress by being exposed to meaningful input that is just one step beyond their level of competence.
e. Rule learning may help learners monitor (or become aware of) what they do, but it will not aid their acquisition or spontaneous use of the target language.
f. Error correction is seen as unnecessary and perhaps even counterproductive; the important thing is that the learners can understand and can make themselves understood.
g. If the teacher is not a native (or near-native) speaker, appropriate materials such as audiotapes and videotapes must be available to provide the appropriate input for the learners.

9. Communicative Approach (an outgrowth of the work of anthropological linguists (e.g., Hymes 1972) and Frisian linguists (e.g., Halliday 1973), who view language first and foremost as a system for communication; see Savignon's chapter in this volume)

It is assumed that the goal of language teaching is learner ability to communicate in the target language.

It is assumed that the content of a language course will include semantic notions and social functions, not just linguistic structures.

c. Students regularly work in groups or pairs to transfer (and, if necessary, negotiate) meaning in situations in which one person has information that the other (s) lack.

c. Students often engage in role play or dramatization to adjust their use of the target language to different social contexts.

d. Classroom materials and activities are often authentic to reflect real-life situations and demands.

e. Skills are integrated from the beginning; a given activity might involve reading, speaking, listening, and also writing (this assumes the learners are educated and literate).

f. The teacher's role is primarily to facilitate communication and only secondarily to correct errors.

g. The teacher should be able to use the target language fluently and appropriately.

To sum up, we can see that certain features of several of the first five approaches arose in reaction to perceived inadequacies or impracticalities in an earlier approach or approaches. The four more recently developed approaches also do this to some extent; however, each one is grounded on a slightly different theory or view of how people learn second or foreign languages or how people use languages, and each has a central point around which everything else revolves:

Cognitive Approach: Language is rule-governed cognitive behavior (not habit formation). Affective-Humanistic Approach: Learning a foreign language is a Comprehension Approach: Language acquisition occurs if and only if the learner comprehends meaningful input.

Communicative Approach: The purpose of language (and thus the goal of language teaching) is communication.

These four more recent approaches are not necessarily in conflict or totally incompatible since it is not difficult to conceive of an integrated approach which

would include attention to rule formation, affect, comprehension, and communication and which would view the learner as someone who thinks, feels, understands, and has something to say. In fact, many teachers would find such an approach, if well conceived and well integrated, to be very attractive.

We now understand that an approach is general (e.g., Cognitive), that a method is a specific set of procedures more or less compatible with an approach (e.g., the Silent Way), and that a technique is a very specific type of learning activity used in one or more methods (e.g., using colored rods of varying lengths to cue and facilitate language practice in the Silent Way). Historically, an approach or method also tends to be used in conjunction with a syllabus, which is an inventory of objectives the learner should master; this inventory is sometimes presented in a recommended sequence and is used to design courses and teaching materials.

What sort of syllabuses have been used with the approaches discussed above? Most of them have used-implicitly or explicitly-a structural syllabus, which consists of a list of grammatical inflections and constructions that the teacher is expected to teach and the learner is expected to master. The Grammar-Translation Approach, the Direct Approach, the Audiolingual Approach, the Cognitive Approach, and even some methods following the Comprehension Approach have all employed a structural syllabus. In other words, teachers and textbook writers following these approaches have organized their language courses and language-teaching materials around grammar points, with Audiolingualism also specifying pronunciation points and the Oral- Situational Approach often specifying vocabulary objectives in additional to grammar.

In contrast to the structural syllabus, the Reading Approach is text-based; this kind of language course is process of self- realization and of relating to other people organized around texts and vocabulary items with only minor consideration given to grammar.

In the Oral-Situational Approach, there is often a dual-objective syllabus in which various situations are specified for instruction (e.g., the post office, a restaurant, a bus, the doctor's office, etc.), along with some of the structures and

the vocabulary that one might need to produce the language needed in these situations.

In the Communicative Approach, one type of syllabus is organized around notions (meanings such as spatial location, time, degree) and functions (social transactions and interactions such as asking for information or complimenting someone). In this syllabus format, grammar and vocabulary are secondary, being taught not as ends in themselves, but only insofar as they help express the notions and functions that are in focus. Many adherents of the Communicative Approach, however, reject any sort of atomistic syllabus, whether structural or notional-functional. They advocate instead a communicative syllabus (i.e., a process-based or task-based syllabus) in which real-world tasks and authentic materials are used to design language courses (Yalden 1983).

The Affective-Humanistic Approach has produced the most radical syllabus type-the learner-generated syllabus. Thus, in methods like Community Language Learning (Curran 1976) and Project Work (see Eyring's chapter in this volume), the learners decide what they want to learn and what they want to be able to do with the target language. For a fuller discussion of syllabus design, see Nunan's chapter in this volume.

What is the solution for the ESL/EFL teacher, given the abundance of past, current, and future approaches? The only way to make wise decisions is to learn more about the various approaches and methods available and to find out which practices have proved successful (see the chapter by Crookes and Chaudron in this volume). This chapter has just scratched the surface. Further information is available in the remainder of this volume and in many other books, in journal articles, at professional conferences and workshops, and on the World Wide Web.

There are also five other things the teacher should do to make good decisions concerning the choice of an approach, a method (or methods), and finally techniques and materials:

1. Assess student needs: Why should they be learning English? For what purpose?

(See Johns and Price-Machado's chapter in this volume).

2. Examine instructional constraints: time (hours per week, days per week, weeks per term); class size (nature of enrollment); materials (set syllabus and text, or completely open to teacher?); physical factors (classroom size, AV support). Then decide what can reasonably be taught.
3. Determine the attitudes and learning styles (see Oxford's chapter in this volume) of individual students to the extent that this is possible, and develop activities and materials consistent with the findings.
4. Identify the discourse genres, speech activities, and text types that the students need to learn so that you can incorporate them into materials and learning activities.
5. Specify how the students' language learning will be assessed (see Cohen's chapter in this volume.)

Having done all these, the teacher will be in a position to select the most useful techniques or principles and to design a productive course of study by drawing from available approaches, syllabus types, and existing research findings. Clifford Prator, a former professor and colleague of mine, summed up the professional ESL teacher's responsibility nicely (personal communication):

Teachers are certainly in a better position to follow Prator's advice if they are familiar with the history and the state of the art of our profession. Some suggestions for further reading are provided below to aid the reader in attaining these objectives.

In fact, all of the chapters in this volume end with discussion questions, suggested activities, suggestions for further reading, and, where relevant, useful Web sites. Section 1 of this volume discusses topics in language methodology, Section 2 focuses on teaching the individual language skills, Section 3 presents some integrated approaches to language teaching, Section 4 focuses on specific groups of learners, and Section 5 provides language teachers with background information and skills that will help them become more knowledgeable and skillful practitioners.

I.2. The methodological analysis of using The Direct methods

The Direct Method appeared as a reaction against the grammar-translation method. There was a movement in Europe that emphasized language learning by direct contact with the foreign language in meaningful situations. This movement resulted in various individual methods with various names, such as new method, natural method, and even oral method, but they can all be referred to as direct methods or the direct method. In addition to emphasizing direct contact with the foreign language, the direct method usually deemphasized or eliminated translation and the memorization of conjugations, declensions, and rules, and in some cases it introduced phonetics and phonetic transcription.

The direct method assumed that learning a foreign language is the same as learning the mother tongue, that is, that exposing the student directly to the foreign language impresses it perfectly upon his mind. This is true only up to a point, since the psychology of learning a second language differs from that of learning the first. The child is forced to learn the first language because he has no other effective way to express his wants. In learning a second language this compulsion is largely missing, since the student knows that he can communicate through his native language when necessary.

The basic premise of Direct Method was that second language learning should be more like first language learning: lots of active oral interaction, spontaneous use of the language, no translation between first and second languages, and little or no analysis of grammatical rules. We can summarize the principles of the Direct

Method:

– Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language.

– Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.

– Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and student in small, intensive classes.

– Grammar was taught inductively, i.e. the learner may discover the rules of grammar for himself after he has become acquainted with many examples.

– New teaching points were introduced orally.

– Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.

– Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.

– Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized.

The Audiolingual Method (It is also called Mimicry-memorization method) was the method developed in the Intensive Language Program. It was successful because of high motivation, intensive practice, small classes, and good models, in addition to linguistically sophisticated descriptions of the foreign language and its grammar.

Grammar is taught essentially as follows: Some basic sentences are memorized by imitation. Their meaning is given in normal expressions in the native language, and the students are not expected to translate word for word. When the basic sentences have been overlearned (completely memorized so that the student can rattle them off without effort), the student reads fairly extensive descriptive grammar statements in his native language, with examples in the target language and native language equivalents. He then listens to further conversational sentences for practice in listening. Finally, practices the dialogues using the basic sentences and combinations of their parts. When he can, he varies the dialogues within the material hr has already learned. The characteristics of ALM may be summed up in the following list:

– New material is presented in dialog form.

– There is dependence on mimicry, memorization of set phrases and overlearning.

– Structures are sequenced by means of contrastive analysis and taught one at a time.

– Structural patterns are taught using repetitive drills.

– There is a little or no grammatical explanation: grammar is taught by inductive analogy rather than deductive explanation.

– Vocabulary is strictly limited and learned in context.

– There is much use of tapes, language labs, and visual aids.

– Great importance is attached to pronunciation.

– very little use of the mother tongue by teachers is permitted.

– Successful responses are immediately reinforced.

– There is a great effort to get students to produce error-free utterances.

– There is a tendency to manipulate language and disregard content.

We shall briefly review the treatment of grammatical explanations by some of the major methods. This is not meant to be an exhaustive study of all available methods; rather it is an attempt to show the variety of ways in which different methods deal with grammar explanations and may help teachers in evaluating available materials.

Grammar translation is associated with formal rule statement. Learning proceeds, deductively, and the rule is generally stated by the teacher, in a textbook, or both. Traditional abstract grammatical terminology is used. Drills include translation into native language.

The direct method is characterized by meaningful practice and exclusion of the mother tongue. This method has had many interpretations, some of which include an analysis of structure, but generally without the use of abstract grammatical terminology.

The audio-lingual method stresses an inductive presentation with extensive pattern practice. Writing is discouraged in the early stages of learning a structure. Here again, there has bee considerable variation in the realization of this approach. In some cases, no grammatical explanation of any kind is offered. In other, the teacher might focus on a particular structure by isolating an example on the board, or through contrast. When grammatical explanation is offered it is usually done at the end of the lesson as a summary of behavior (Politzer, 1965), or in later versions

of this method the rule might be stated in the middle of the lesson and followed by additional drills.

Each method is realized in techniques. By a technique we mean an individual way in doing something, in gaining a certain goal in teaching learning process. The method and techniques the teacher should use in teaching children of the primary school is the direct method, and various techniques which can develop pupils` listening comprehension and speaking. Pupils are given various exercises, connected with the situational use of words and sentence patterns.

The direct method found ready supporters. It stimulated enormously the pupil's curiosity to learn and make progress. But there were too many difficulties in the use of the method, the main of them being the following:

1. No scientific principles were applied to selection of study material and vocabulary in particular. The only principle applied was the topical one, the material was arranged in topics. As a result of such arrangement of vocabulary, the pupil had to assimilate a great number of words. For example, in textbooks compiled according to F. Gouin’s system the vocabulary listed 8 000 words.
2. School conditions did not favour the development of a pupils' speech habits (too few periods a week, overcrowded classes, lack of visual materials, etc.).
3. In the hands of inexperienced and ill equipped teachers the direct method did not work and the teachers had to return to the old grammar-translation method.

However during the period between the two wars it became possible to revive the main principles of the direct method: (a) by careful experimentation; (b) by taking note of the new developments in the field of linguistics (Ferdinand de Saussure) and psychology (Thorndike); (c) by insisting that clear statements be made as to the aims and objectives of teaching.

Background The direct method movement, as advocated by educators such as Berlitz and Jespersen, originated in the nineteenth century. Advocates of this "active" method believed that students learn to understand a language by listening to it in large quantities. They learn to speak by speaking, especially if the speech is associated simultaneously with appropriate action. The methodology was based

essentially on the way children learn their native language: language is learned through *the direct association* of words and phrases with objects and actions, without the use of the native language as the intervening variable. Various oral and "natural" methods have evolved since the nineteenth-century version to be described next. (See, for example, Lenard's Verbal-Active Method, based on de Sauze, and Terrell's Natural Approach. These variations are treated in a separate section.)

Major characteristics The methodology advocated by Berlitz and Jespersen, among others, had the following characteristics:

1. Language learning should start with the here-and-now, utilizing classroom objects and simple actions. Eventually, when students have learned enough language, lessons move on to include common situations and settings.

2. The direct method lesson often develops around specially constructed pictures depicting life in the country where the target language is spoken. These pictures enable the teacher to avoid the use of translation, which is strictly forbidden in the classroom. Definitions of new vocabulary are given via paraphrases in the target language, or by miming the action or manipulating objects to get the meaning across.

3. From the beginning of instruction, students hear complete and meaningful sentences in simple discourse, which often takes the form of question-answer exchanges.

4. Correct pronunciation **is** an important consideration in this approach and emphasis is placed upon the development of accurate pronunciation from the beginning of instruction. Phonetic notation is often used to achieve this goal.

5. Grammar rules are not explicitly taught; rather, they are assumed to be learned through practice. Students are encouraged to form their own" generalizations about grammar through inductive methods. When grammar is explicitly taught, it is taught in the target language.

6. Reading goals are also reached via the "direct" understanding of text without the use of dictionaries or translations.

A Sample Lesson Plan The following description of a direct method class is based on one given by Rivers (1981).

9:00-9:10 The teacher comes into the classroom and immediately begins speaking in the target language, greeting students and asking about classroom objects. Students answer in the target language. The teacher continues to ask questions and occasionally gives commands. As the students obey these orders, they recount in the target language exactly what they an doing and the class then tells the teacher what has happened (using past time in their account of the actions just performed).

9:10-9:25 The lesson develops next around a picture, which the teacher uses to teach the core vocabulary. Various actions and objects are discussed in reference to the activity depicted in the picture. The teacher demonstrates those activities and concepts that are not immediately apparent through mime and waits until the class seems to understand. The students then repeat the new words and phrases and try to form their own sentence[1] in response to the teacher's questions. (This is done with little or no corrective feedback and the student's responses are often quite inaccurate).

9:25-9:45 Once the vocabulary has been taught and absorbed, the teacher asks the students to read a passage on a similar theme aloud from their text. The teacher models the sentences to be read first and the students mimic either in chorus or individually. The passage is never translated, but the teacher assures comprehension by asking questions in the target language, to which the students respond, also in the target language. If difficulties arise, the teacher might explain briefly in the target language while the students take notes.

9:45-9:50 The lesson concludes with a song. When the class ends, students leave with a sense of accomplishment, since they have been actively involved.

Proficiency Orientation Various elements of the class just described are congruent with the hypotheses presented earlier in this chapter. Students are certainly engaged in oral language use that is contextualized and, to some extent, personalized. There has been some description and narration in the lesson, although the bulk of the class is spent in responding to teacher questions. The use

of culturally oriented pictures makes students aware of some of the everyday situations they might encounter in the target community, and vocabulary is useful for coping in survival situations. The use of paraphrase to explain vocabulary encourages students to learn that skill, which is important in developing proficiency beyond the Novice Level. The affective needs of the student are addressed in group activities that allow for individual contributions without hypercorrection. Yet this lack of correction, which characterized the earliest versions of the direct method, often led to early fossilization, a problem discussed below.

Potential Drawbacks Rivers (1981) makes the following comments about the direct method, as depicted in this sample lesson plan:

At its best, the direct method provides an exciting and interesting way of learning a language through activity. If care is not taken by the teacher, however, students who are plunged too soon into expressing themselves freely in the new language in a relatively unstructured situation can develop a glib but inaccurate fluency, clothing native-language structures in foreign-language vocabulary. This "school pidgin" is often difficult to eradicate later, because it has been accepted and encouraged for so long. (p. 33)

This point of view is echoed by Higgs and Clifford, who maintain that unconstrained attempts at communication too early in the instructional sequence may lead to the phenomenon of fossilization and to terminal proficiency profiles at Level 2 or 2+**.** Rivers (1981) agrees that, in the purest form of the direct method, insufficient provision was made for systematic practice of structures in a coherent sequence. However, she points out that some modern adaptations of this methodology do use structured practice, grammatical sequences that proceed one step at a time, and grammar explanations, sometimes given in the native language. "To counteract the tendency toward inaccuracy and vagueness" (p. 35), translation is even permitted in some modern versions of the method.

The view that translation might be useful is supported by an anecdote related by a colleague who had observed a class in French taught by the direct method

about ten years ago. Seated in the back of the room, he observed the teacher trying to explain how to tell time in French. Using a clock face with moveable hands, the teacher began by repeating several times the expression What time is it?. The class dutifully repeated the expression after her model. She then proceeded to move the hands of the clock to indicate one o'clock and repeated.

The class repeated enthusiastically in chorus: Next, the hands were moved to two o'clock, and the class repeated. This activity went on for several minutes untill the students appeared to have grasped the concept. At this point, one boy in the back of the class, seated close to the observer, leaned over an whispered to his friend, "What's she saying? I don't get it." The boy's friend looked at him scornfully and replied, You dummy. It's so obvious. She's saying. This is a clock. This is a clock.

Experiences such as this have gradually led to the incorporation in some direct method classes, of short translation exercises and occasion use of native-language equivalents to clarify new vocabulary or concept being presented. Rivers calls these newer versions of the direct method examples of eclecticism. As stated earlier, most methodologies and approaches in recent years are eclectic to some extent, borrowing features of methods used in the past. One of the methods that still continues influence language teaching to a greater or lesser extent is AVM, or audio-visual methodology, described next.

I.3. The Contemporary methods in Foreign Language Teaching

All the points mentioned above are undergoing further development in contemporary Methods abroad. There are many methods of language teaching and a considerable amount of controversy as to the best way of foreign languages teaching abroad at present. However its possible to group them into (1) traditional methods which have their origin in the grammar-translation method, and) (2) audio-lingual methods which are considered to be a further development of the direct method line.

The traditional approach to foreign language teaching is characterized by (1) the use of the native language for explanation, retention and checking; (2) the deductive explanation of grammar and the use of grammar exercises; (3) the development of all the language skills i. e. hearing, speaking, reading, and writing from the beginning of the course. This approach is called traditional because it has beer prevalent in schools for a long time. The traditional methods; although they are adopting some kinds of innovation in teaching techniques and teaching materials, still retain those distinguishing characteristics which were mentioned above. Since these methods are often contrasted with audio - 1ingua1 methods, and the latter are considered to be contemporary ones, we shall dwell upon the audio-lingual methods more thoroughly. The main features of the contemporary methods are:

1. The development of audio-lingual skill first, listening comprehension and speaking, that is why the methods are called audio-lingual. The justification of the priority of spoken language in foreign language learning is found in the observation that a language is first of all a system of sounds used for social communication; writing is a secondary derivative system people use for the recording of spoken language. Children normally learn spoken language before they learn written language. Even if the learner's aim is only to read or write the language he can attain a surer mastery of the foreign language if he passes through a substantial stage of work with the spoken language. It is thought that reading and writing might, at least in the beginning, interfere with the development of audio-lingual skills, and that especially the use of writing may lead to spelling pronunciation. The amount of delay between presentation of the spoken and the written material may vary from a short time to a very long time which depends on the aim of teaching, the student's age, the organization of the course, the conditions of instruction, etc.

2. Great care in teaching speaking so that the learner could use the spoken forms as accurately as possible, that is, with native like sentence patterns and pronunciation. For this purpose the student should have some adequate model of

speech preferably in the person of a native or near native speaker of the language, or in the form of a faithfully recorded voice of such a speaker. This is now becoming possible because of modern teaching equipment such as radio, television, language laboratories, and teaching machines.

3. The rejection of translation as the main tool of instruction. All the exercises performed by the student are usually within the target language. The use of the student's native language is minimized. It is admitted to supply meaning to the student, although, even in this case the target language supported by whatever props, pictorial materials, or pantomimic gestures, is preferred.

4. Teaching grammar through pattern practice. The grammatical exercises usually take the form of drills in which the-student is asked to substitute words for other words, or to make changes in sentences e. g. from singular to plural, from past to present, from active to passive, following the model. Grammatical descriptions of patterns are taught only after the patterns are well on the way to being mastered at a purely oral level, and then only when it is felt that such descriptions will hasten the learning process or help ensure retention. Pattern practice with varying elements provides drill in the conscious application of structural elements and leads the student to the "automatic" use of the structural patterns. Such an approach to teaching grammar is justified on the basis of theories and observations as to how children learn their mother tongue, and how they use well-practised patterns of their native language.

5. Extensive use of "real-life" communication situations for stimulating the student's language activity. This is done to involve the student in the act of communication in the target language, and in this way to arouse his interest in language learning and increase his motivation. Modern teaching aids and teaching materials make such situations accessible e. g. a filmstrip with foreign language sound track can represent realistic situations and context and "engage" the student in conversations.

6. The development of reading and writing first using the linguistic material the student has learned orally, and then the material characteristic of written

language with the aim of getting information (reading) and sending information (writing). The method is known as the Saint Cloud audio-visual method. The situations and speech patterns have been carefully selected. All these are reproduced by native speakers. Students "receive" the material through audio and visual perception i. e. they see a picture (a series of pictures) on a screen or in the book and listen-to the conversation from a tape-recorder. They assimilate the material by memorizing the language and the situations in which this material can be used. The work takes the student through the following stages: (1) g e s e r t i v e stage: the student listens to the conversation 2-3 times and tries to grasp it; (2) reproductive stage: the student reproduces the phrases and sentences said by the speakers. Typically the material memorized consists of dialogues that the student can act out. The whole course includes a lot of conversations within a set of everyday situations. Students are taught reading and writing after they have acquired habits and skills in hearing and speaking. The method is popular with foreigners who come to France. The course has been created for adult learners. It is an intensive course i. e. students learn a foreign language for 3-6 months 20-25 hours a week, therefore it cannot be utilized in schools.

Fries' American English Series is a course of English as a foreign language. The material, carefully selected for easy assimilation, is distributed throughout the six textbooks. Each book is supplied with a guide book for teachers. There are many interesting exercises of a creative character which contrast favorably with H. Palmer's exercises. Palmer's exercises are known to be mechanical and they require "parrot work" on the part of the learner. Here are some of the exercises from Book One and Book Two which pupils can do after they have learned the material orally.

— Draw a picture of an animal. Colour it and write two statements about it.

— Write statements. Tell five things you do every day, and five things you did yesterday.

— Make statements about the objects that your teacher shows you.

— Plan a lunch for one day of the week.

— Write a paragraph on the blackboard about one of the pupils in your class. Write two paragraphs about yourself.

— Write a paragraph about one of these pictures

(3 pictures are displayed).

Play a guessing game with your teacher.

— Write a sentence about five people you know.

— Write as many sentences as you can about one

of the rooms.

— Tell the class what you, some members of your family or a friend did yesterday morning, yesterday afternoon and last night.

— Guess what pupils in your class were doing at a certain time.

Charles Fries called his method "the oral approach" because pupils get acquainted with language material "through the ear". He wrote, "... no matter if the final desire is only to read the foreign language, the mastery of the fundamentals of the language-the structure and the sound system with a limited vocabulary - must be through speech. Speech is the language. The written record is but a secondary representation of the language." In the oral approach reading is deliberately postponed until the structure of the new language is firmly grasped. The language of the pupil is avoided as much as possible; it is admitted when necessary, to make sure that explanations are thoroughly understood. Fries emphasizes that "in teaching by 'the oral approach' there should be, widely used every means which can be made to contribute to learning a language: the living voice, mechanical records, sound films, manuals, textbooks, written notes, written exercises. However "the oral approach" centers attention upon learning a language as a set of symbols to be spoken and understood when heard i. e. upon oral language.

There are quite a number of prominent methodologists, who have contributed to foreign language teaching, and English in particular. In conclusion, it should be said that between the grammar-translation method however modified and the direct method in various modifications there have been

mixed or in-between methods. The advocates of the latter methods try to avoid the extremes of the former. "Language Learning" by Peter Hagboldt is an example of such a method.

It is not our purpose here to analyze teaching methods and weigh their relative merits since this may be a subject for special papers and investigations. Besides there is a special book in which ail these methods are thoroughly discussed.

We have only introduced teaching methods to those who are going to become teachers of foreign languages, or already teach them in schools, so that they might learn their main characteristics and could read articles and books on foreign language teaching in the English language.

The chief tendency in the development of Methods abroad may be characterized by a scientific approach to the teaching of foreign languages, extensive use of linguistic science, psychology, psycholinguistics, and experimenting. The progress made in the sphere of phonetics, vocabulary, and grammar study has shed fresh light on the content of teaching on what to teach, what linguistic material should be used for developing audio-lingual skills and written language (reading and writing). Different approaches are followed in the selection of linguistic material for teaching speaking and reading; for the former, recorded speech should be analyzed with the aim of selecting those language units which are characteristic of spoken language and are necessary to cover the most frequently used situations; the latter, printed texts are analysed and the occurrences oi words, phrase logical units, and grammatical structures are counted in order to select those which the learner needs to read foreign texts.

The practical application of some theoretical views of American descriptive structural linguists and psychologists, such as the primacy of the spoken over the written language, has led to the oral approach to foreign language teaching; the treatment of language as a complex of habits and skills, as a form of social behavior, has been realized in teaching a foreign language as behavior, i. e., a

reaction of the organism as a whole to a social environment. The learner should know what a native speaker's response would be in a certain situation.

In his article Learning English as Behaviour M. West gives the following examples of wrong and right responses: Wrong, Right

What's this? This is a book. What's this? It's a book.

Where is the book? The book is on the table

How many books are there on How many books are there on the table? T

here are three books on the table? There are books on the table. three, (or. Three.)

He says that those who merely learn the language as a form of verbal expression cannot gain an understanding of foreign people. In order to understand the English it is not enough to know what they speak but how they speak, or rather how they converse. In a behavioural method of teaching it is necessary to combine a correct and systematic build-up, linguistic elements (structures and carefully selected vocabulary) and a vital and behavioral use of the language. This' is possible provided real and close-to-real situations are created. So situational approach in foreign language teaching is essential. "Ideally one needs television or a film so that the pupil may not merely hear how the English language is behaved but see it behaved as well."

The behaviorist stimulus-response and reinforcement theory in psychology adopted by foreign language teaching has resulted in repetitive drill of certain patterns of language, or in pattern practice; for this purpose language laboratories, programmed instruction, and other innovations have been offered. However, this has not brought the results which were promised and expected. Here is what American methodologists write on the point, "The 'New Look' proposed by theoretical linguists in the 1950's, the audio-lingual method, has not lived up -to expectations, institutes failed to stimulate major improvements in language learning, the language laboratories have not become efficient replacements for live teachers, and, as a result, a great many students — and an increasing number of administrators - are actively questioning the relevance of foreign language in

modern education. ... the opposition to the school learning of foreign languages is being generated by the failure to make language programs a meaningful, satisfactory, and successful learning experience."

In the past few years the stimulus response theory has applied to education) has begun to be strongly criticized by psychologists and by the teachers and students themselves. As a consequence of this criticism the cognitive code-learning theory has been proposed. According to the cognitive code-theory a language is more than a system of habits which can be formed through repetitive drill. It is a specific system and the learner should know how this system works in actual communication. Cognitive processes imply recognition of form, perception of meaning, relations of universals and particulars, generalization, and analogization. Since the cognitive code-learning approach is characterized by the use of exercises designed to teach grammatical understanding of the concepts being introduced; by the deductive explanation of all grammar prior to any practice with the structure and by the practice of all the language skills from the beginning of the course, it is considered a more modern and sophisticated version of the grammar-translation method. The results of scientific analysis of the contrasts between the learner's language and the target language are taken into consideration in the arrangement of the material and the pupil's activity for its retention, because the typical learner's difficulties can be identified and predicted in advance on the basis of contrastive analysis in phonology, structure, semantics, and culture.

The development of engineering has made possible the introducing of new teaching aids and teaching materials: television courses, tape lessons, audio-visual courses, programmed instruction is being introduced into foreign language teaching. Textbooks have appeared which differ greatly from those used before; each new textbook is only a part of the teaching materials designed for a particular set of pupils.

Considerable attention is given to testing in foreign language teaching, to measuring pupils' attitudes and achievements in language learning. Various tests-have been suggested for measuring pupils' knowledge of vocabulary and

structures, their comprehension of oral language and written language. Most of them are very primitive and inadequate. The problem of testing, because of the complexity of the) subject, is still far from being solved.

There is a tendency towards more intensive language teaching since the requirement for people who can use a foreign language as a means of communication is increasing from year to year.

In this connection various intensive courses (in which the total number of hours of instruction is concentrated within a short period of time, for instance, 10, 20 or 30 hours per week instead of four or five) are suggested. The idea of greater intensity of teaching than is usually accepted has been borne out as a result of experimenting at various centers. The Intensive Course is an example. The intermediate Course, for instance, provides material designed for approximately four weeks of intensive study. It is recommended that each study unit be used for four to six hours of combined classroom and language laboratory work. The course consists of thirty lessons. They are of three types: lessons that introduce new reading and dialogue materials; lessons that provide dialogue practice, as well as intonation, pronunciation, and grammar drill and two review lessons. All the materials except those marked Classroom Practice and Homework Only are recorded on tape.

In conclusion, we may say that much effort is being expended on the development of more effective methods of foreign language teaching and, although practical results are not yet encouraging, as one can judge from different publications on Methods, one can hope that a scientific approach to foreign language teaching will bring considerable improvement.

PART II. THE USE OF THE MODERN METHODS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

II.1. The Appearance of Communicative language learning in foreign language teaching

Communicative Language Teaching for the Twenty-First Century

Teachers have always been expected to set a good example for learners, to provide a model of behavior. But as the 1915 rules for teachers so clearly remind us, the model can and does change. What seems a good example in one time or place, a given context of situation, may seem quite strange or inappropriate in another time or place. And so it is with language teaching. As this volume's introductory chapter by Marianne Celce-Murcia shows, teachers have found many ways or methods for teaching languages. All have been admired models in some time or place, often to be ridiculed, perhaps, or dismissed as inappropriate in yet another. Times change, fashions change. What may once appear new and promising can subsequently seem strange and outdated.

Within the last quarter century, communicative language teaching (CLT) has been put forth around the world as the "new," or "innovative," way to teach English as a second or foreign language. Teaching materials, course descriptions, and curriculum guidelines proclaim a goal of communicative competence. For example, The Course of Study for Senior High School, guidelines published by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Science, and Culture (Mombusho) state the objectives of ELT: "To develop students' ability to understand and to express themselves in a foreign language; to foster students' positive attitude towards communicating in a foreign language, and to heighten their interest in language and culture, thus deepening international understanding" (Wada 1994, p. 1). Minoru Wada, a university professor and a senior advisor to Mombusho in promoting ELT reform in Japan, explains the significance of these guidelines:

The Mombusho Guidelines, or course of study, is one of the most important legal precepts in the Japanese educational system. It establishes national standards

for elementary and secondary schools. It also regulates content, the standard number of annual teaching hours at lower level secondary [junior high] schools, subject areas, subjects, and the standard number of required credits at upper level secondary [senior high] schools. The course of study for the teaching of English as a foreign language announced by the Ministry of Education, Science, and Culture in 1989 stands as a landmark in the history of English education in Japan. For the first time it introduced into English education at both secondary school levels the concept of communicative competence. In 1989, the Ministry of Education, Science, and Culture revised the course of study for primary as well as secondary schools on the basis of proposals made in a 1987 report by the Council on the School Curriculum, an advisory group to the Minister of Education, Science, and Culture. The basic goal of the revision was to prepare students to cope with the rapidly occurring changes toward a more global society.

The report urged Japanese teachers to place much more emphasis on the development of communicative competence in English.

Parallel efforts are underway in nearby Taiwan for similar reasons. Based on in-depth interviews of expert teacher educators, Wang (in press) reports on the progress (see also Wang 2000):

> Much has been done to meet the demand for competent English users and effective teaching in Taiwan. Current improvements, according to the teacher experts, include the change in entrance examinations, the new curriculum with a goal of teaching for communicative competence, and the island-wide implementation in 2001 of English education in the elementary schools. However, more has to be done to ensure quality teaching and learning in the classrooms. Based on the teacher experts' accounts, further improvements can be stratified into three interrelated levels related to teachers, school authorities, and the government. Each is essential to the success of the others' efforts.

This chapter looks at the phenomenon of communicative language teaching (CLT). What is CLT? How and why did it develop? What are the theoretical

underpinnings of this approach to language teaching? How has CLT been interpreted and implemented in various contexts? Keeping in mind the needs and goals of learners and the traditions of classroom teaching, what are some ways for teachers to shape a more communicative approach to ELT in the context of their own situation?

WHAT IS CLT?

Not long ago, when American structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology were the prevailing influences in language teaching methods and materials, second/foreign language teachers talked about communication in terms of four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. These skill categories were widely accepted and provided a ready-made framework for methods manuals, learner course materials, and teacher education programs. Speaking and writing were collectively described as active skills, reading and listening as passive *s*kills.

Today, listeners and readers no longer are regarded as passive. They are seen as active participants in the negotiation of meaning. Schemata, expectancies, and top-down/bottom-up processing are among the terms now used to capture the necessarily complex, interactive nature of this negotiation. Yet full and widespread understanding of communication as negotiation has been hindered by the terms that came to replace the earlier active/passive dichotomy. The skills needed to engage in speaking and writing activities were described subsequently as productive, whereas listening and reading skills were said to be receptive.

While certainly an improvement over the earlier active/passive representation, the terms “productive” and “receptive” fall short of capturing the interactive nature of communication. Lost in this productive/receptive, message sending/message receiving representation is the collaborative nature of making meaning. Meaning appears fixed, to be sent and received, not unlike a football in the hands of a team quarterback. The interest of a football game lies of course not in the football, but in the moves and strategies of the players as they punt, pass, and fake their way along the field. The interest of communication lies similarly in the moves and

strategies of the participants. The terms that best represent the collaborative nature of what goes on are interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning. The communicative competence needed for participation includes not only grammatical competence, but pragmatic competence.

The inadequacy of a four-skills model of language use is now recognized. And the shortcomings of audiolingual methodology are widely acknowledged. There is general acceptance of the complexity and interrelatedness of skills in both written and oral communication and of the need for learners to have the experience of communication, to participate in the negotiation of meaning. Newer, more comprehensive theories of language and language behavior have replaced those that looked to American structuralism and behaviorist psychology for support. The expanded, interactive view of language behavior they offer presents a number of challenges for teachers. Among them, how should form and function be integrated in an instructional sequence? What is an appropriate norm for learners? How is it determined? What is an error? And what, if anything, should be done when one occurs? How is language learning success to be measured? Acceptance of communicative criteria entails a commitment to address these admittedly complex issues.

This approach, alternatively called Community Language Learning (CLL) and Counseling-Learning, stresses the role of the affective domain in promoting cognitive learning. Developed by Charles Curran (1976), it is founded on techniques borrowed from psychological counseling. The basic theoretical premise is that the human individual needs to be understood and aided in the process of fulfilling personal values and goals. This is best done in community with others striving to attain the same goals.

Major The first principle of CLL is that the teacher serves as the "knower/counselor" whose role is essentially passive. He or she is there to provide the language necessary for students to express themselves freely and to say whatever it is they want to say. The class is comprised of six to twelve learners seated in a close circle, with one or more teachers who stand outside the circle,

ready to help. The techniques used are designed to reduce anxiety in the group to a minimum and to promote the free expression of ideas and feelings. The method provides for five learning stages:

Stage 1. Students make statements aloud in their native language, based on whatever they desire to communicate to the others in the group. The teacher, placing his or her hands on the student's shoulders, translates the utterance softly into the student's ear. The student then repeats the utterance after the teacher's model, recording it on tape. Another student, desiring to make a response, will signal this desire to the teacher, who then comes around the circle and provides a target-language equivalent for this student in the same way. Again, the response is recorded on tape, so that at the end of the conversation the whole dialogue is recorded.

This tape-recorded script is used later in the class session as a source of input for the analysis and practice of the language. This process is illustrated in the sample lesson plan given later.

Stage 2. This second stage, known as the "self-assertive stage," differs from the first in that the students try to say what they want to without constant intervention and help from the teacher.

Stage 3. In this "birth stage," students increase their independence from the teacher and speak in the new language without translation, unless another student requests it.

Stage 4. The "adolescent" or "reversal" stage is one in which the learnei has become secure enough to welcome corrective feedback from the teacher or other group members.

Stage 5. This "independent" stage is marked by free interaction between students and teacher(s): everyone offers corrections and stylistic improvements in a community spirit. By this time, the trust level is high, and no individual is threatened by this type of feedback from others in the group. At all times, the atmosphere is one of warmth, acceptance, and understanding.

A Sample Lesson The following lesson has been provided by Earl Stevick, who has a who Plan ough understanding of CLL methodology and has written thoughtfu interpretations of it in various books and articles. (See in particular Stevick 1976, and Stevick, 1980.) This particular lesson is a fictional account, written by Stevick in a personal communication a few years ago.

9:00-9:10 Students talk among themselves, first about remedies for a headache that one of the members has, then about the "Tylenol Murders." The teachei sits in the circle and takes notes, but does not participate except to give words and phrases on request and, twice, to "fail to understand" a sentence that would have caused trouble for a native speaker unaccustomed to hearing foreigners (a Level 2 criterion). Fluency varies from halting to fairly good, but all group members seem to be saying what they mea and to be absorbed in the conversation. Errors of grammar are frequent but with the exceptions already noted, the teacher does not call attention to them.

9:10-9:15 The teacher summarizes the conversation and gives brief answers to ttf questions about why he or she said something in a particular way.

9:15-9:28 Working from notes, the teacher writes on a flip chart a series of sentence based on the content of the conversation, making sure that each person contribution is represented in at least one sentence. The teacher the underlines various words or endings and the students collectively gr appropriate meanings or grammatical functions.

9:28-9:41 Using cards that the teacher has prepared based on the content of preceding session, students play "Concentration" as a means of vocabulary.

9:41-9:50 Using sentences from this and earlier sessions, students work in pairs or groups of three, forming and answering questions. The teacher moves from group to group and monitors the activity, answering questions as they arise.

Proficiency Orientation: Many elements hypothesized to contribute to the building of proficiency are present in this lesson: there is contextualized and personalized learning throughout the class hour; students are creating with the language; there is attention to accuracy without sacrificing affective concerns. In

fact, one of the major strengths of the method seems to be the warm, community, atmosphere that is created by the procedure and the provision of corrective feedback in this humanizing context. The teacher takes care to help students induce the grammatical system from their own input and isolates important and useful vocabulary that they need to review for active control.

Potential Drawbacks One area that may need attention in using CLL methodology is that of course content or context. As described, the procedure does not ensure that a variety of contexts necessary for coping in the target culture is included. Since the content is determined by the participants in the group, who may not necessarily know what to expect in encounters in the target culture, some survival skills may be neglected. This problem may be easily remedied, however, if the teacher is willing to encourage or enable students to include such content in the lesson on occasion.

Another potential drawback is that some students may feel uncomfortable with the apparent lack of structure or sequence in the introduction of grammatical and lexical items. Again, this problem can be dealt with if the teacher is willing to introduce some control in this regard.

II.2. The Methodological Characteristics the Developing and Use of Communicative language learning

The origins of contemporary CLT can be traced to concurrent developments in both Europe and North America. In Europe, the language needs of a rapidly increasing group of immigrants and guest workers, as well as a rich British linguistic tradition including social as well as linguistic context in description of language behavior led the Council of Europe to develop a syllabus for learners based on notional-functional concepts of language use. Derived from neo-Frisian systemic or functional linguistics that views language as meaning potential and maintains the centrality of context of situation in understanding language systems and how they work, a Threshold Level of language ability was described for each of the major languages of Europe in terms of what learners

should be able to do with the language. Functions were based on assessment of learner needs and specified the end result, the goal of an instructional program. The term communicative attached itself to programs that used a functional-notional syllabus based on needs assessment, and the language for specific purposes (LSP) movement was launched.

Other European developments focused on the process of communicative classroom language learning. In Germany, for example, against a backdrop of social democratic concerns for individual empowerment, articulated in the writings of the contemporary philosopher Jiirgen Habermas (1970), language teaching methodologists took the lead in the development of classroom materials that encouraged learner choice (Candlin 1978). Their systematic collection of exercise types for communicatively oriented English language teaching were used in teacher in-service courses and workshops to guide curriculum change. Exercises were designed to exploit the variety of social meanings contained within particular grammatical structures. A system of "chains" encouraged teachers and learners to define their own learning path through principled selection of relevant exercises J^Piepho 1974; Piepho and Bredella 1976). Similar exploratory projects were also initiated by Candlin at his then academic home, the University of Lancaster in England, and by Holec and his colleagues at the University of Nancy in France. Supplementary teacher resource materials promoting classroom CLT became increasingly popular during the 1970s (e.g., Maley and Duff 1978).

Meanwhile, in the United States, Hymes (1971) had reacted to Chomsky's (1965) characterization of the linguistic competence of the "ideal native speaker" and proposed the term communicative competence to represent the use of language in social context, or the observance of sociolinguistic norms of appropriacy. His concern with speech communities and the integration of language, communication, and culture was not unlike that of Halliday in the British linguistic tradition (see Halliday 1978). Hymes's communicative competence may be seen as the equivalent of Halliday's meaning potential. Similarly, his focus was not language learning, but language as social behavior. In

subsequent interpretations of the significance of Hymes's views for learners, methodologists working in the United States tended to focus on native speaker cultural norms and the difficulty, if not impossibility, of authentically representing them in a classroom of nonnative speakers. In light of this difficulty, the appropriateness of communicative competence as an instructional goal was questioned (e.g., Paulston 1974).

At the same time, in a research project at the University of Illinois, Savignon (1972) used the term "communicative competence" to characterize the ability of classroom language learners to interact with other speakers, to make meaning, as distinct from their ability to recite dialogs or perform on discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge. At a time when pattern practice and error avoidance were the rule in language teaching, this study of adult classroom acquisition of French looked at the effect of practice on the use of coping strategies as part of an instructional program. By encouraging learners to ask for information, to seek clarification, to use circumlocution and whatever other linguistic and nonlinguistic resources they could muster to negotiate meaning and stick to the communicative task at hand, teachers were invariably leading learners to take risks and speak in other than memorized patterns. The coping strategies identified in this study became the basis for subsequent identification by Canale and Swain (1980) of strategic competence which-along with grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence-appeared in their three component framework for communicative competence. (The original Canale and Swain framework with subsequent modifications is discussed below.) Test results at the end of the instructional period showed conclusively that learners who had practiced communication in lieu of laboratory pattern drills performed with no less accuracy on discrete-point tests of grammatical structure. On the other hand, their communicative competence as measured in terms of fluency, comprehensibility, effort, and amount of communication in unrehearsed oral communicative tasks significantly surpassed that of learners who had had no such practice. Learner reactions to the test formats lent further support to the view that even beginners

respond well to activities that let them focus on meaning as opposed to formal features.

A collection of role plays, games, and other communicative classroom activities were subsequently developed for inclusion in adaptating the French CREDIF materials, The accompanying guide (Savignon 1974) described their purpose as that of involving learners in the experience of communication. Teachers were encouraged to provide learners with the French equivalent of expressions that would help them to participate in the negotiation of meaning such as "What's the word for . . . ?" "Please repeat," "I don't understand." Not unlike the efforts of Candlin and his colleagues working in a European EFL context, the focus here was on classroom process and learner autonomy. The use of games, role play, pair work, and other small-group activities has gained acceptance and is now widely recommended for inclusion in language teaching programs.

CLT thus can be seen to derive from a multidisciplinary perspective that includes, at a minimum, linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology, and educational research. Its focus has been the elaboration and implementation of programs and methodologies that promote the development of functional language ability through learner participation in communicative events. Central to CLT is the understanding of language learning as both an educational and a political issue. Language teaching is inextricably tied to language policy. Viewed from a multicultural mfrrniational as well as mtemational perspective, diverse sociopolitical contexts mandate not only a diverse set of language learning goals, but a diverse set of teaching strategies. Program design and implementation depend on negotiation between policy makers, linguists, researchers, and teachers. And evaluation of program success requires a similar collaborative effort. The selection of methods and materials appropriate to both the goals and context of teaching begins with an analysis of socially defined learner needs and styles of learning.

The Classroom model shows the hypothetical integration of four components that have been advanced as comprising communicative competence (Savignon 1972, 1983,1987, in press; Canale and Swain 1980; Canale 1983a; Byram.

Adapted from the familiar “inverted pyramid” classroom model proposed by Savignon (1983), it shows how, through practice and experience in an increasingly wide range of communicative contexts and events, learners gradually expand their communicative competence, consisting of grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociocultural competence, and strategic competence. Although the relative importance of the various components depends on the overall level of communicative competence, each one is essential. Moreover, all components are interrelated. They cannot be developed or measured in isolation and one cannot go from one component to the other as one strings beads to make a necklace. Rather, an increase in one component interacts with other components to produce a corresponding increase in overall communicative competence.

Grammatical competence refers to sentence- level grammatical forms, the ability to recognize the lexical, morphological, syntactic, and phonological feature of a language and to make use of these features to interpret and form words and sentences. Grammatical competence is not linked to any single theory of grammar and does not include the ability to state rules of usage. One demonstrates grammatical competence not by stating a rule but by usings rule in the interpretation, expression, or negotiation of meaning.

Discourse competence is concerned not with isolated words or phrases but with the interconnectedness of a series of utterances, written words, and/or phrases to form a text, a meaningful whole. The text might be a poem, an e-mail message, a sportscast, a telephone conversation, or a novel. Identification of isolated sounds or words contribute to interpretation of the overall meaning of the text. This is known as bottom-up processing. On the other hand, understanding of the theme or purpose of the text helps in the interpretation of isolated sounds or words. This is known as top-down processing. Both are important in communicative competence.

Two other familiar concepts in talking about discourse competence are text coherence and cohesion. Text coherence is the relation of all sentences or utterances in a text to a single global proposition. The establishment of a global meaning, or topic, for a text is an integral part of both expression and interpretation and makes possible the interpretation of the individual sentences that

make up the text. Local connections or structural links between individual sentences provide cohesion. Halliday and Hasan (1976) are well-known for their identification of various cohesive devices used in English, and their work has influenced teacher education materials for ESL/EFL (for illustration, see Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman 1999).

Sociocultural competence extends well beyond linguistic forms and is an interdisciplinary field of inquiry having to do with the social rules of language use. Sociocultural competence requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction. Although we have yet to provide a satisfactory description of grammar, we are even further from an adequate description of sociocultural rules of appropriateness. And yet we use them to communicate successfully in many different contexts of situation.

It is of course not feasible for learners to anticipate the sociocultural aspects for every context. Moreover, English often serves as a language of communication between speakers of different primary languages. Participants in multicultural communication are sensitive not only to the cultural meanings attached to the language itself, but also to social conventions concerning language use, such as turn-taking, appropriacy of content, nonverbal language, and tone of voice. These conventions influence how messages are interpreted. Cultural awareness rather than cultural knowledge thus becomes increasingly important. Just knowing something about the culture of an English-speaking country will not suffice. What must be learned is a general empathy and openness towards other cultures. Sociocultural competence therefore includes a willingness to engage in the active negotiation of meaning along with a willingness to suspend judgement and take into consideration the possibility of cultural differences in conventions or use. Together these features might be subsumed under the term cultural flexibility or cultural awareness.

The “ideal native speaker,” someone who knows a language perfectly and uses it appropriately in all social interactions, exists in theory only. None of us knows all there is to know of English in its many manifestations, both around the world

and in our own backyards. Communicative competence is always *relative.* The coping strategies that we use in unfamiliar contexts, with constraints due to imperfect knowledge of rules or limiting factors in their application such as fatigue or distraction, are represented as strategic competence. With practice and experience, we gain in grammatical, discourse, and sociocultural competence. The relative importance of strategic competence thus decreases. However, the effective use of coping strategies is important for communicative competence in all contexts and distinguishes highly competent communicators from those who are less so.

By definition, CLT puts the focus on the learner. Learner communicative needs provide a framework for elaborating program goals in terms of functional competence. This implies global, qualitative evaluation of learner achievement as opposed to quantitative assessment of discrete linguistic features. Controversy over appropriate language testing measures persists, and many a curricular innovation has been undone by failure to make corresponding changes in evaluation. Current efforts at educational reform favor essay writing, in-class presentations, and other more holistic assessments of learner competence. Some programs have initiated portfolio assessment, the collection and evaluation of learner poems, reports, stories, videotapes, and similar projects in an effort to better represent and encourage learner achievement.

Although it now has a new name and is enjoying widespread recognition and research attention, CLT is not a new idea. Throughout the long history of language teaching, there always have been advocates of a focus on meaning, as opposed to form, and of developing learner ability to actually use the language for communication. The more immediate the communicative needs, the more readily communicative methods seem to be adopted. In her book Breaking Tradition, Musumeci (1997) provides a fascinating account of language teaching reform efforts dating back to the Middle Ages when Latin, not English, was the lingua franca. Breaking Tradition is a favorite reading of my students. They find it a refreshing and reassuring reminder that discussions of methods and goals for language teaching predate the twentieth century by far.

Depending upon their own preparation and experience, teachers themselves differ in their reactions to CLT. Some feel understandable frustration at the seeming ambiguity in discussions of communicative ability. Negotiation of meaning may be a lofty goal, but this view of language behavior lacks precision and does not provide a universal scale for assessment of individual learners. Ability is viewed as variable and highly dependent upon context and purpose as well as on the roles and attitudes of all involved. Other teachers who welcome the opportunity to select and/or develop their own materials, providing learners with a range of communicative tasks, are comfortable relying on more global, integrative judgments of learner progress.

An additional source of frustration for some teachers are second language acquisition research findings that show the route, if not the rate, of language acquisition to be largely unaffected by classroom instruction. First language cross-linguistic studies of developmental universals initiated in the 1970s were soon followed by similar second language studies. Acquisition, assessed on the basis of expression in unrehearsed, oral communicative contexts, appeared to follow a describable morph syntactic sequence regardless of learner age or context of learning. Although they served to bear out teachers' informal observations, namely that textbook presentation and drill do not ensure learner use of taught structures in learners' spontaneous expression, the findings were nonetheless disconcerting. They contradicted both grammar-translation and audiolingual precepts that placed the burden of '.earner acquisition on teacher explanation of grammar and controlled practice with insistence on learner accuracy. They were further at odds the textbooks that promise "mastery" of "basic" English, Spanish, French, etc. Teacher rejection of research findings, renewed insistence on tests of discrete grammatical structures, and even exclusive reliance in the classroom on the learners' native or first language, where possible, to be sure they "get the grammar," have been in some cases reactions to the frustration of teaching for communication.

PART III. THE METHODOLOGICAL BASIS OF USING TRANSLATION METHODS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

III.1. The Methodological analysis of the Developing of the Translation Methods

In the Western world back in the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries, foreign language learning was associated with the learning of Latin and Greek, both supposed to promote their speakers' intellectuality. At the time, it was of vital importance to focus on grammatical rules, syntactic structures, along with rote memorisation of vocabulary and translation of literary texts. There was no provision for the oral use of the languages under study; after all, both Latin and Greek were not being taught for oral communication but for the sake of their speakers' becoming "scholarly?" or creating an illusion of "erudition." Late in the nineteenth century, the Classical Method came to be known as the Grammar Translation Method, which offered very little beyond an insight into the grammatical rules attending the process of translating from the second to the native language.

It is widely recognised that the Grammar Translation Method is still one of the most popular and favourite models of language teaching, which has been rather stalwart and impervious to educational reforms, remaining a standard and sine qua non methodology. With hindsight, we could say that its contribution to language learning has been lamentably limited, since it has shifted the focus from the real language to a "dissected body" of nouns, adjectives, and prepositions, doing nothing to enhance a student's communicative ability in the foreign language.

This approach was developed initially as a reaction to the grammar-translation approach in an attempt to integrate more use of the target language in instruction.

Lessons begin with a dialogue using a modern conversational style in the target language. Material is first presented orally with actions or pictures. The mother tongue is never, never used. There is no translation. The preferred type of

exercise is a series of questions in the target language based on the dialogue or an anecdotal narrative. Questions are answered in the target language. Grammar is taught inductively--rules are generalized from the practice and experience with the target language. Verbs are used first and systematically conjugated only much later after some oral mastery of the target language. Advanced students read literature for comprehension and pleasure. Literary texts are not analyzed grammatically. The culture associated with the target language is also taught inductively. Culture is considered an important aspect of learning the language.

The grammar-translation method was widely used in teaching the classics, namely Latin, and it was transferred to the teaching of modern languages when they were introduced into schools, first as an optional and then as a compulsory subject. In teaching a foreign language by means of the grammar-translation method attention was paid to the assimilation of grammar rules of the foreign language that pupils studied. The vocabulary was "tuned up" to grammar. Translation was extensively utilized both as a means of explanation of new words, grammar forms, and structures, and as a means of mastering the foreign language, all exercises for assimilating the language material being limited to translation from the mother tongue into the foreign language and from the foreign language into the mother tongue. The distinguishing features of the grammar-translation method are (1) insistence upon grammatical analyses and (2) the assumption that grammatical categories can be defined in general terms with reference Ho meaning, the grammatical categories being the common denominator of all languages. According to the grammar-translation method the best way to say a sentence in a foreign language is to start with a sentence in the mother tongue, analyze it grammatically into such components as subject, i. e.$_{f}$ one who performs the action, predicate, that which denotes the action, object, that which receives the action, etc. If necessary pupii go on with the analyses, for example, they name tense, mood, etc. Then the pupil is told to find the corresponding forms in the foreign language. Sounds, morphemes, words are always considered peculiar to one language alone, but the syntax, the patterns of

language are thought of as universals that will allow the pupil to pass from one language to another. It is well known that many patterns of a foreign language do not conform to those of the native language, and these contrasting patterns have to be learned as "exceptions", exceptions of the one language from the! stand point of the other language.

The grammar-translation method in its orthodox form was practised in schools in the 18th and 19th centuries. The development of pedagogics, psychology and linguistics brought changes in the grammar-translation method. It was greatly modified at the end of the 19th century and in the 20th century, and, first of all, these modifications dealt with- the approach to the relationship of "two grammars". Instead of forcing the target language into the mold of the learner's native language, the "grammars" are compared with the result of better comprehension and retention in all points of difference and interference.

The grammar-translation-method is often mentioned even nowadays when one wants to emphasize a traditional approach to foreign language teaching. The textbook is the essential teaching aid. The assumption is that proficiency;, in the language can be acquired by learning a set of grammatical rules, to which the language is supposed to conform, and that by mechanically applying these rules speed and fluency will grow with the use of the language. Primary objectives are mastery of the graphic skills, i. e., reading and writing, with secondary attention to hearing and speaking. Language performance in the classroom takes the form of reading, translating, and the working out of various exercises which require the application of grammar rules to selected data.

The grammar translation method instructs students in grammar, and provides vocabulary with direct translations to memorize. It was the predominant method in Europe in the century 19. Most instructors now acknowledge that this method is ineffective by itself. It is used by many Latin teachers, because a dead language is usually only written.

This approach was historically used in teaching Greek and Latin. The approach was generalized to teaching modern languages.

Classes are taught in the students' mother tongue, with little active use of the target language. Vocabulary is taught in the form of isolated word lists. Elaborate explanations of grammar are always provided. Grammar instruction provides the rules for putting words together; instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words. Reading of difficult texts is begun early in the course of study. Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis. Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue, and vice versa. Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.

These concepts of grammar are important for two reasons:

1) Knowledge of help teachers to assess and remediate the errors and error patterns of second-language learners.

2) The points of grammar can be used as the basis for teaching sentence structure and vocabulary.

This web page includes a description of how to teach an explicit grammar lesson and grammar-based literacy teaching activities. Click here to go directly to the following topics contained in this instructional module:

- Components of grammar and syntax;
- Structure of a grammar lesson;
- Sentence transformation;
- Using sentence transformation to teach specific points of grammar;
- Sentence recombination;
- Teaching grammar in situation contexts.

Steps in Presenting Points of Grammar Using Direct Instruction in ESL and Foreign Language Instruction:

1. Motivate the teaching of structures by showing how they are needed in real-life communication.

2. State the objective of the lesson.

3. Review the familiar items, e.g. calendar, time, name of objects, auxiliary verbs in the target language that will be needed to introduce, explain, or practice the new item.

4. Use the new structure (adjective of color, for example) in a brief utterance in which all the other words are known to the students.

5. Model the utterance several times.

6. Engage in full class, half-class, group and individual repetition of the utterance.

7. Give several additional sentences in which the structure is used. Class and groups will repeat with you.

8. Write two of the sentences on the board. Underline the new structure and (where relevant) use curved arrows or diagrams to illustrate the relationship of the structure to other words and/or parts of the sentence.

9. Point to the underlined structure as you ask questions that will guide students to discover the sounds, the written form, the position in the sentence and the grammatical function of the new structure. ("What does it tell us?")

10. Help students (age 11 or older) to verbalize the important features of the structure. Use charts and other aids to relate to other familiar structures such as verb tenses.

11. Engage the students in varied guided oral practice.

12. Require students to consciously select the new grammatical item from contrasting one learned in the past.

13. Have the students use the structure with communicative expressions and familiar or new notions.

14. Where feasible, do a translation exercise (provided this will not promote interference from L1).

This full-time in ELT has been designed specifically with the aim of providing initial teacher education for those wishing to become teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) or English as a second language (ESL). The programme allows teachers to develop and reflect upon their understanding of the various theoretical and practical issues that impact upon the field of language

teaching. It places particular emphasis on the notion of informed and critical teaching and the need for teachers to mediate between theory and practice in constructing pedagogies according to specific teaching-learning contexts. In line with the most recent approaches in our field, language technology, and particularly corpus-based approaches to the study of language, feature strongly in our modules. A balance is maintained throughout the course between linguistic content, pedagogic content, and teaching-related research.

III.2. The Experience of Using the Translation Methods in Foreign Language Teaching

The grammar-translation method was widely used in teaching the classics, namely Latin, and it was transferred to the teaching of modern languages when they were introduced into schools, first as an optional and then as a compulsory subject. In teaching a foreign language by means of the grammar-translation method attention was paid to the assimilation of grammar rules of the foreign language that pupils studied. The vocabulary was "tuned up" to grammar. Translation was extensively utilized both as a means of explanation of new words, grammar forms, and structures, and as a means of mastering the foreign language, all exercises for assimilating the language material being limited to translation from the mother tongue into the foreign language and from the foreign language into the mother tongue. The distinguishing features of the grammar-translation method are (1) insistence upon grammatical analyses and (2) the assumption that grammatical categories can be defined in general terms with reference Ho meaning, the grammatical categories being the common denominator of all languages. According to the grammar-translation method the best way to say a sentence in a foreign language is to start with a sentence in the mother tongue, analyze it grammatically into such components as subject, one who performs the action, predicate, that which denotes the action, object, that which receives the action, etc. If necessary pupii go on with the analyses, for example, they name tense, mood, etc. Then the pupil is told to find the

corresponding forms in the foreign language. Sounds, morphemes, words are always considered peculiar to one language alone, but the syntax, the patterns of language are thought of as universals that will allow the pupil to pass from one language to another. It is well known that many patterns of a foreign language do not conform to those of the native language, and these contrasting patterns have to be learned as "exceptions". Exceptions of the one language from the stand point of the other language.

The grammar-translation method in its orthodox form was practised in schools in the 18th and 19th centuries. The development of pedagogics, psychology and linguistics brought changes in the grammar-translation method. It was greatly modified at the end of the 19th century and in the 20th century, and, first of all, these modifications dealt with the approach to the relationship of "two grammars". Instead of forcing the target language into the mold of the learner's native language, the "grammars" are compared with the result of better comprehension and retention in all points of difference and interference.

The grammar-translation-method is often mentioned even nowadays when one wants to emphasize a traditional approach to foreign language teaching. The textbook is the essential teaching aid. The assumption is that proficiency in the language can be acquired by learning a set of grammatical rules, to which the language is supposed to conform, and that by mechanically applying these rules speed and fluency will grow with the use of the language. Primary objectives are mastery of the graphic skills reading and writing, with secondary attention to hearing and speaking. Language performance in the classroom takes the form of reading, translating, and the working out of various exercises which require the application of grammar rules to selected data.

Background As explained in Chapter 1, the grammar-translation approach to language teaching was congruent with the view of faculty psychologists that me discipline was essential for strengthening the powers of the mind. Originally used to teach Latin and Greek, this method was applied to the| teaching of modern languages in the late nineteenth and early twentieth, centuries. Its primary purpose

was to enable students to "explore the| depths of great literature," while helping them understand their native language better through extensive analysis of the grammar of the target language and translation.

Major Characteristics The grammar-translation method, in its purest form, had the following characteristics:

1. Students first learned the rules of grammar and bivisual lists of vocabulary pertaining to the reading or readings of the lesson. Grammar was learned deductively by means of long and elaborate explanations. All rules were learned with their exceptions and irregularities explained in grammatical terms.

2. Once rules and vocabulary were learned, prescriptions for translating the exercises that followed the grammar explanations were given.

3. Comprehension of the rules and readings was tested via translation (target language to native language and vice versa). Students had learned the language if they could translate the passages well.

4. The native and target languages were constantly compared. The goal of instruction was to convert L1 into L2, and vice versa, using a dictionary if necessary.

5. There were very few opportunities for listening and speaking practice (with the exception of reading passages and sentences aloud), since the method concentrated on reading and translation exercises. Much of the class time was devoted to talking *about* the language; virtually no time was spent talking *in* the language.

A Sample Lesson Plan The lesson plan that follows is based on a description given by Rivers (1981) of a typical grammar-translation class. Before class begins, the students, seated in rows with books open, are about to begin a new section. On the page before them is a reading selection, preceded by several columns of vocabulary listed with native-language equivalents. The lesson proceeds as follows:

9:00-9:05 Short vocabulary quiz. Students write out the new words as the teacher reads the native-language translation.

9:05-9:15 Various students are asked to read aloud in the target language from the reading selection in the book. After several minutes, the teacher reads a few sentences aloud to the students and then asks them to spend a few minutes reading the rest of the passage silently.

9:15-9:25 Students begin to translate the sentences of the passage into their native language. Occasionally the teacher offers help when students stumble.

9:25-9:40 The core of the lesson now begins with the grammar explanation. On the blackboard, the teacher has placed an outline of the uses of the past tense, examples of which are drawn from the reading passage. The rule and explained in detail in the native language. If students are not familiar with the grammatical terminology used in the explanation, time is taken out, to teach it. Students copy the explanations and rules, as well as the examples and various exceptions, into their notebooks.

9:40-9:50 The rest of the lesson is spent on written tasks, such as writing out very paradigms and filling in the blanks in grammatical exercises. Some time is also spent in translating sentences, usually consisting of nonsequiture seeded with the grammar point of the lesson, from the native language to the new one. Students who do not complete these tasks before class ends are asked to complete them for homework, as well as to memorize the vocabulary list preceding the reading in the next section of the book.

Proficiency Orientation Very few, if any, of the elements hypothesized to contribute to the development of proficiency are present in this sample lesson of the grammar-translation method. Certainly, in terms of oral proficiency, this methods has little to offer. There is virtually no sign of spoken language, and the little oral practice that is in evidence consists of reading aloud. There is no personalization or contextualization of the lesson to relate to student experience, no pair or group interaction for communicative practice, I concern for the teaching of cultural awareness, at least on an everyday level. Affective concerns seem to be nonexistent, as students are clearly in a defensive learning environment where right answers are expected The only thing that can be said is that there *is* a concern for

accuracy, by this concern is so prevalent as to prevent students from creating with the language or venturing to express their own thoughts. It is only while creating with the language that students have an opportunity to build towards higher levels of proficiency. In addition, it is during creative language, practice that the most informative error-correction feedback can be given since this type of practice allows students to try out their hypotheses about the target language in a natural way. As Higgs and Clifford (1981) point out, the particular kind of concern for accuracy that characterize grammar-translation methodology is not necessarily conducive to building toward proficiency and may, in fact, be quite counterproductive.

Potential Drawbacks The lack of orientation towards proficiency goals is the most obvious drawback of this method, at least as it is traditionally described. The meticulous detail of the grammar explanations, the long written exercises the lengthy vocabulary lists, and the academic forms of language presented in the readings render language learning both strenuous and boring. Perhaps a form of grammar-translation methodology would be useful at the higher levels of proficiency, where the purpose of instruction is fine tune students' control of the target language, especially in terms in learning to use specialized vocabulary **or** developing competence in written stylistics. The method does not seem appropriate, however, for students at the Novice through Advanced Levels, even though that is where it is typically used.

CONCLUSION

In order to understand a language and express oneself correctly one must assimilate the grammar mechanism of a language. Indeed, one may know all the words in a sentence and yet fail to understand it, if one does not see the relationship between the words in the given sentence. And vice versa, a sentence may contain one, two, and more unknown words but if one has a good knowledge of the structure of the language one can easily guess the meanings of these words or at least find them in a dictionary, No speaking is possible without the knowledge of grammar, without the forming of a grammar mechanism. Children need grammar to be able to speak, and write in the target language.

Our aim is to form grammar skills and prevent children from making grammar mistakes in their speech. The aim of foreign languages in primary schools is to develop pupils' skills in order to understand speech and participate in conversation.

The method and techniques the teacher should use in teaching children of primary school is the direct method and various techniques which can develop pupils' listening comprehension and speaking.

We have examined two kinds of grammar skills: the reproductive and receptive grammar skills. The reproductive grammar skills give pupils an opportunity to make up their own sentences in oral and written forms in other words to communicate and the receptive grammar skills give them an opportunity to read texts or aud and understand it.

To master the reproductive grammar skills one should study the basic sentences or models (grammar is presented as itself in the basic sentences), to master the receptive grammar skills one should identify and analyze the grammar item. We teach children to read by means of grammar. It reveals the relationship between the words in the given sentence.

We have such a conclusion that the forming of grammar skills depends on training. Training is of great importance to realize the grammar item. We must use a lot of training exercises for the assimilation of grammar. We should provide the

motivation of learn English, encourage children to communicate and remember that the correction of errors in the early stages of a language course may foster the following negative aspects:

– children lose confidence when they have fear of making grammar mistakes

– children become reluctant to take risks: they only the say the information they know they can say

We should realize the importance of training exercises and the role of the individual approach to teaching the children. Besides, the teacher must have a clear idea of the grammar of the language, its structure and usage; everything he teaches must be based on it; he should always be conscious of introducing or practicing some point of grammar.

We shall briefly review the treatment of grammatical explanations by some of the major methods. This is not meant to be an exhaustive study of all available methods; rather it is an attempt to show the variety of ways in which different methods deal with grammar explanations and may help teachers in evaluating available materials.

Grammar translation is associated with formal rule statement. Learning proceeds, deductively, and the rule is generally stated by the teacher, in a textbook, or both. Traditional abstract grammatical terminology is used. Drills include translation into native language.

The direct method is characterized by meaningful practice and exclusion of the mother tongue. This method has had many interpretations, some of which include an analysis of structure, but generally without the use of abstract grammatical terminology.

The audio-lingual method stresses an inductive presentation with extensive pattern practice. Writing is discouraged in the early stages of learning a structure. Here again, there has bee considerable variation in the realization of this approach. In some cases, no grammatical explanation of any kind is offered. In other, the teacher might focus on a particular structure by isolating an example on the board,

or through contrast. When grammatical explanation is offered it is usually done at the end of the lesson as a summary of behavior (Politzer, 1965), or in later versions of this method the rule might be stated in the middle of the lesson and followed by additional drills.

Each method is realized in techniques. By a technique we mean an individual way in doing something, in gaining a certain goal in teaching learning process. The method and techniques the teacher should use in teaching children of the primary school is the direct method, and various techniques which can develop pupils` listening comprehension and speaking. Pupils are given various exercises, connected with the situational use of words and sentence patterns.

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