Chapter 4

Current approaches and teaching methods. Bilingual programmes.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The pedagogical tendencies which have characterized second and foreign language teaching have been profuse and varied. As Stern (1983: 453) phrases it, "The conceptualization of language teaching has a long, fascinating, but rather tortuous history", which Brown (1994: 52) portrays as the "changing winds and shifting sands of language teaching". This history has been formulated mainly in terms of diverse teaching methods, each of which has attempted to find more effective and efficient ways of teaching languages and each of which has been based on different views of what languages are and of how they are best taught. And the aim of this chapter is precisely to review such a methodological history of language teaching; framing recent approaches to language teaching against the backdrop of a general historical overview which evolves from the Grammar-Translation Method to the post-communicative period.

Behind any teaching enterprise there always exist some theoretical assumptions. We may refer to them as guiding lines or principles. Sometimes not even teachers can state them as such explicit foundations. But these principles do work and influence their everyday teaching activity. As Stern (1983: 24-5) puts it, "A language teacher can express his theoretical conviction through classroom activities as much as (or indeed, better than) through the opinions he voices in discussions at professional meetings".

The idea of how to teach a foreign language affects not just teaching development, but also its results. There are many circumstances and factors which determine or modify the teaching process, but a good theoretical body is fundamental in order to moderate every factor and to achieve the general goal. We should analyse our own beliefs on

how to teach the FL and adapt them, if it is the case, to more rigorous and contrasted assumptions. History shows different trends or models which evince how a variety of choices and options have been followed (Howatt, 1984). Throughout time, FL teaching has changed and it is interesting to discover our own contradictions or quests about the issue in parallel to historical development so that a solid conclusion is drawn. Some may think that all traditional methods are similar and, thus, obsolete. Or, what is worse, some may think that new technologies are a genuine panacea to solve methodological problems of any type. An open and receptive attitude to analyse our own teaching conceptions upon the best methodology to follow is the key to construct solid foundations.

The aim of this chapter is to help Secondary teachers to study the different trends and to draw valid conclusions about an effective FL teaching methodology. It is not enough to know the FL, but to combine that knowledge with a conscious reflection on how to carry out a successful teaching experience. All this will lead us to establish a new theoretical set of foundations. As many factors come into play, certain criteria to develop them must be present. Below are the criteria which Stern considers are "particularly relevant to theory development in language teaching", (1983: 27-31):

Usefulness and applicability: Practical effects on FL learning
Explicitness: Principal assumptions stated and defined
Coherence and consistency: Elements ordered and organized within a system
Comprehensiveness: Capacity to accept other special theories
Explanatory power and verifiability: Capacity to predict events and admit research
Simplicity and clarity: Easy to understand and direct

These are the main ideas:

1. All teachers follow theoretical principles though they are not explicitly stated
2. Beliefs and convictions on the most effective teaching method must be reviewed and tested
3. As many factors influence the FL teaching process, a global theory is required
4. Throughout history, controversial trends on methods have been used. All may have a positive contribution.
5. A good theory is most of all practical
6. Research and reflection improve the consistency of a good teaching method

2. TERMINOLOGICAL INTRODUCTION

Perhaps the first step in order to fully understand this historical overview is to establish a set of clear-cut definitions of key terms in this area.

Applied linguistics: The term refers to linguistic studies and theories which support a language teaching method -in the British tradition-. Within a broader perspective, those linguistic studies which affect other domains, such as First and Second Language Acquisition, FL teaching, Language for Specific Purposes, Sociolinguistics and Pragmatics, Discourse Analysis, Psycholinguistics,

Corpus and Computational Linguistics, Lexicology and Lexicography, and Translation, to mention the most relevant. Though they are theoretical, a practical conclusion or application can be drawn.

Approach: Within the teaching *method* framework, the approach is constituted by those theoretical principles on which the curricular design is based (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Thus, an approach is usually understood as the body of linguistic, psychological and pedagogical theories which inspire the teaching practice. Stern (1983: 43-50) refers to *foundations/theoretical assumptions* and to a level -*interlevel*- between theory and practice where the *educational linguistics theory* and *research* take place.

Curricular design: A new term which substitutes both *programme* and *syllabus* as old limited references to *contents* and *bibliography*. Within Richards and Rodgers' outline (1986), the *design* includes objectives, linguistic content, activities, learner roles, teacher roles, and the role of instructional materials. According to Stern (1983: 43-50), the practice level of a "general model for second language teaching" includes *methodology* -objectives, content, procedures, materials and evaluation of outcome- and *organization*; thus, the term *methodology* includes *design* and *procedures*.

Curriculum: As defined by Nunan (1988), it comprises the principles and procedures for the planning, implementation, evaluation and management of an educational programme.

Method: This general term includes the *approach, design* and *procedures* in Richards and Rodgers' model.

Methodics and **Method analysis**: Terms used by Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964) and Mackey (1965), respectively, in order to consider the whole teaching processes. Special emphasis is placed on *selection, grading, presentation, repetition* and *testing*.

Methodology: Stern's (1983) concept of *methodology* can be identified with *design*, according to Richards and Rodgers (1986). It involves *content, objectives, materials, procedures* and *assessment* –under the acronym of C.O.M.P.A.-. Together with *organization*, it constitutes the *practical level* of *the general model for second language teaching* (Stern, 1983: 44).

Procedures: Those "techniques, practices, and behaviours observed when the method" is taken to the classroom, as Richards and Rodgers summarize (1986).

Programme: List of the topics or chapters of the course. It usually includes readings and other bibliographical references. It is a good tool to present the content outline which belongs to a broader conceptual *curricular design* framework.

Syllabus: Similar to *programme*, it contains what is to be taught with a clear reference to selection and grading of *content*.

Strategies: Learning strategies are those procedures used by the learner in order to cope with the problems faced. The knowledge of these "attack plans" is supposed to be taken to the classroom so that they become a new resource to make teaching work.

Teachers' guide: First attempts to place traditional methods within a broader pedagogical framework "in the view of modern theorists-practitioners language teaching" (Stern, 1983: 477). The most relevant contribution comes from the teacher's own experience. Rivers' guide (1981) requires special mention due to her recommendation of an eclectic position.

Techniques: Teaching *activities*. They must be referred to the broader frame of *curricular design* to which they belong.

**Theoretical principles**: See *approach*.

3. THE GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION METHOD: TRADITION, REACTION AND COMPROMISE

3.1. Introduction

Looking back at the history of FL teaching is very interesting. It allows us to know the different trends and, what is more important, to ask some questions about the best way to teach the FL. Stern (1983: 75) recommends we "look to ourselves and ... explore to what extent our second language teaching has been influenced by our own language learning and language teaching experience". This overview will help us determine which aspects have affected our learning experience when facing academic settings or less formal situations. Our past and present teaching experience will offer good reasons to discuss and draw renewed conclusions. (Discussion highly recommended, see Stern: 1983: 75).

Howatt (1984) provides a very complete historical perspective. The first aspect to pinpoint is how the FL can be learnt in two different settings: as a result of a natural immersion experience -backed by the need to use the new language for trade and surviving purposes-, or after a formal and systematic academic process. These two axes will show not just different linguistic varieties to refer to the FL, but different goals, materials and activities. And different are the roles played both by teachers and learners. The closer these two perspectives are, the more effective the FL teaching turns out to be.

The theoretical principles which have traditionally inspired the diverse methods come from different linguistic and psychological conceptions. Language and learning are the two foundation stones on which methods have been based.

Theoretical principles	
FL TEACHING	
LANGUAGE: Linguistics What	LEARNING: Psychology How
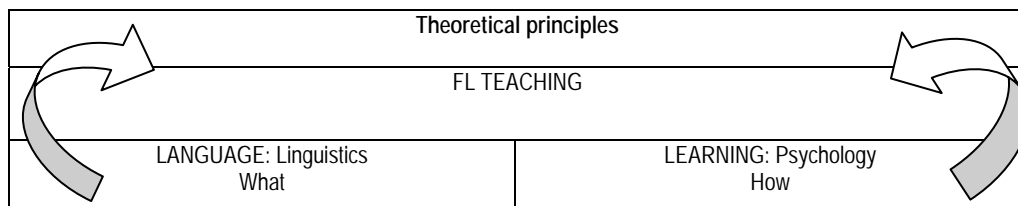
3.2. Academic tradition: The Grammar-translation method

A long tradition in teaching the FL according to academic and formal trends is present in the Grammar-translation method. The knowledge of grammar constitutes the core, and translation is the most important type of exercise. The study of written texts of classical languages exerts a great influence.

3.2.1. Theoretical background

Language is reduced to the grammatical system. The sentence is the main unit of reference, and its morphological elements must be organized according to a series of prescriptive rules. Logico-semantic criteria are used to describe the linguistic model.

Learning is understood as a result of a great intellectual effort where the memorization of rules and vocabulary is necessary. This mental discipline is taken to a general social conduct.

3.2.2. Methodological features

Content	Linguistic notions: Rules and exceptions Morphology of words Syntax: Parts of the sentence Simple and complex sentences
Objectives	The study of literary works is the ultimate goal The reaching of conversation is postponed and underestimated Extra-linguistic goal: mental gymnastics
Materials	The grammar book The dictionary
Procedures	Explanations in the mother tongue by the teacher, who has a central role Meta-language used for grammatical notions Practice exercises to apply the notions in a deductive way Memorization of long vocabulary lists Reading comprehension and vocabulary exercises of a text Translation of literary texts Compositions
Assessment	Exams to evaluate the capacity to understand written texts and to translate sentences

3.2.3. Results

The criticism expressed by Roulet (1972) is outstanding. The following table summarizes the main gaps:

- No account of present-day language usage is presented
- Secondary grammatical points receive a lot of attention
- Morphology is given a predominant place
- It gives an exaggerated importance to faults to be avoided
- Translations are often unsatisfactory, as they are done word by word
- Too many notions are learnt and students may feel frustrated when unable to use the FL

3.3. The oral reaction: Gouin, the Direct Method and the Reform movement

The criticism of the traditional Grammar-translation method has a response in the second half of the 19th century. Several authors react against an excessive theoretical and academic tradition which did not prove to be efficient in everyday language conversation. Howatt (1984: 161-206) provides a broader view of this reaction, whose principal facts are treated here.

Particularly outstanding is Gouin (1880), a French teacher of Latin who decided to study German as a foreign language. He followed the same Grammar-translation methodology he had applied in his lessons. He studied the grammar rules and a great amount of vocabulary, and even translated literary works. But he could not understand a single word when he took part in conversations. The failure made him search for the reason underlying those negative and frustrating results. To make things worse, after going back home, he observed how his three-year-old nephew had acquired his mother tongue and was able to speak without any problem. These sorts of observations took him to the insights that, after listening, children conceptualize meanings and develop a capacity of thinking and speaking in that language. Thus, importance was attached to the exclusive use of the target language as a *direct methodology* and an easy sequence of concepts to present and practice the content. Gouin created the *series* method, where sequenced actions as such concepts are taught step by step. Learners will associate each sentence to the specific movement to which it refers.

A similar conclusion on how first language is acquired takes Berlitz to an immersion or *direct* methodology. The features of the *Direct Method* can be summarized along the following lines:

- Only the target language is used
- Everyday language is the first goal
- Questions and answers are the main vehicle for a graded oral progression
- Inductive techniques so that learners discover rules
- Correction is not neglected

The so-called *Reform movement* is another important reaction and lays its emphasis on the teaching of oral language. The *International Phonetic Association* requires special mention. Created in 1886, its declaration of principles is compiled in six articles:

1. Foreign language study should begin with the spoken language of everyday life.
2. Pupils must be familiarized with the sounds of the FL. Conventional spelling is postponed.
3. The most common sentences and idiomatic phrases must be introduced at a first stage. Dialogues, descriptions and narratives will follow in a natural, easy way.
4. Inductive way for first levels. Grammar must be postponed.
5. The FL meaning must be explained with direct reference to objects or concepts and not to the native language.
6. When writing is introduced, a sequence is recommended from reproduced texts to free composition. Translation belongs to the most advanced stage of the course.

3.3.1. Theoretical background

Language is referred to a conversational and less formal variety. Phonetics receives special mention when a systematic and explicit study of the linguistic elements is carried out.

Learning takes the natural acquisition of the mother tongue as the main model. It emphasises simple mechanisms as association and memorization. We should refer to the associative learning proposed by Sweet (1899,1964), where the need for repetition and memorization was emphasized (Stern 1984: 317):

General principles:

1. Present the most frequent and necessary elements first.
2. Present "like" and "like" together.
3. Contrast "like" with "unlike" till all sense of effort in the transition ceases.
4. Let the associations be as definite as possible.
5. Let the associations be direct and concrete, not indirect and abstract.
6. Avoid conflicting associations.

3.3.2. Methodological features

Content	Spoken everyday language Gradual sequence
Objectives	Capacity to ask questions and to answer Listening and speaking communicative skills
Materials	Posters, real objects, realia and texts
Procedures	Direct techniques with no use of L1: immersion Questions and answers Small groups and native speakers
Assessment	Conversation and interview exams

3.4. A compromise: The Reading Method

Both the Grammar-translation and the Direct methods have influenced FL methodology. Without doubt, the admittance of a less formal variety of the FL is widely accepted. The age factor could determine the complexity of cognitive tasks when teaching the new language: an oral treatment was thought as most appropriate in early stages, without completely rejecting the advantages of using reading, translations and references to the mother tongue. The use of reading texts should not neglect the spoken activity. The controversy has found a compromise solution which responds to "the needs for better language learning in a new world of industry and international trade and travel", as Stern (1983:457) puts it. The right balance between the opposite poles has been difficult to determine. Circumstances have leaned the pointer towards one or the other side, which is a positive pragmatic perspective.

West (1926), who taught English in India, without neglecting speaking, recommended *reading* for its practical utility. Learners were trained in reading strategies. And *graded readers* were prepared so that students faced textual models (not just disconnected sentences) and progressive varieties of the FL starting with the most basic level (made up of just 300-500 vocabulary items) up to more advanced ones. Ogden (1930) insisted on the value of a first stage or *Basic English*. Stern (1983:161) pinpoints its functional and educational orientation: "...based on the thought that, at an elementary level of language use, a learner requires above all the spoken language of everyday life".

Similar conclusions were put forward by Coleman (1929) for American High School students and by Bond (1953) for College students at Chicago University. Reading would become a foundation stone for a complete FL language learning process where the spoken side was postponed but not forgotten.

3.4.1. Theoretical background

Everyday language varieties and levels of use are the linguistic perspectives adopted. Studies on vocabulary frequency, such as the ones carried out by Thorndike (1921), are the basis for *graded readers*.

Without an explicit reference to psychological features of learning, it can be deduced that it is taken as a progressive and cyclic process responding to individual learner needs and age. As a consequence, a pragmatic educational position is the key sustaining basis.
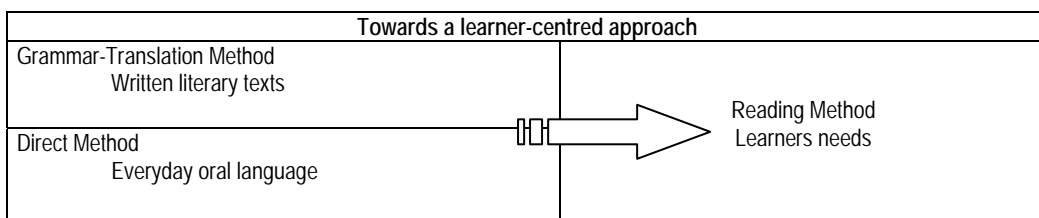
3.4.2. Methodological features

Content	Controlled vocabulary within reading texts Basic grammar
Objectives	Learner needs Basic language and reading
Materials	Graded readings texts
Procedures	Oral introduction L1 is permitted for explanations and meaning Intensive and extensive reading exercises
Assessment	Ability to use the FL

3.4.3. Results

The pragmatic background supporting the Reading Method is an advantage and becomes its great contribution to FL teaching. Needs are transformed into goals, something which makes teaching methodology more concrete and useful in terms of skills. Vocabulary and grammar are also subordinated and sequenced according to a progressive advance in the learning process.

Within this section, a first general view is presented. Three FL methodological trends belonging to the situation at the beginning of the 20th century illustrate a series of relationships and conclusions. The compromise solution that the Reading Method evinces is just a sample of how different methods can be complementary proposals. But what must be underlined is that the linguistic factor is not the only one, and, most of all, when it is reduced to a very formal written variety. It is outstanding that communicative needs are the guiding principles of the Reading Method among other trends which appeared at the same time.

Towards a learner-centred approach

Grammar-Translation Method
Written literary texts

Direct Method
Everyday oral language

Reading Method
Learners needs

4. EMPIRISM AND TECHNOLOGY IN FL TEACHING

Language and learning are the two issues which will focus the attention of new method designers. An empirical perspective is assumed so that those old beliefs based on subjective and intuitive notions are substituted. Linguistics and psychology become guiding areas of study with a clear propension to inspire the FL methodology as applied studies.

A second circumstance which will characterise the new methodological trends is the

use of technologies. Recordings and visual filmstrips are presented as the tool which will cause a change in FL teaching. With these scientifically-based programmes and innovative technologies, the road to success is paved.

4.1. Structures and habits: The Audiolingual Method

As for the teaching of foreign languages in Europe and in America, the distance for students to practice oral skills had a great influence. European students did not have to travel very far to do it. This situation was not the same in the U.S.A. International events made FL methodology change. As Brown (1983:70) points out, "Then World War II broke out and suddenly the United States was thrust into a worldwide conflict, heightening the need for Americans to become orally proficient in the languages of both their allies and their enemies. The time was ripe for a language teaching revolution". Again a new reaction to the traditional method takes place, but now firmly inspired on the supposedly most valid linguistic and psychological descriptive theories. Brooks (1960), Stack (1960), Lado (1964) and Rivers (1964) compile and analyse this influential method.

4.1.1. Theoretical background

Thus, structuralism, which started facing the logico-semantic ambiguity of traditional grammars, adopted the empirically scientific description of languages based on form and distribution without taking meaning into consideration, as traced by Bloomfield and other linguists. The subjective reference to *words* was replaced by the objective precision of *morphemes* as the units which shape phrase and sentence structures. The current spoken language was the subject of description and a *corpus of data* was required to carry out the study.

From the psychological point of view, Skinner's behaviourism and Osgood's neo-behaviourism have provided an empirical perspective for language as a set of verbal habits. And like other human behaviours, language learning is essentially a habit training question in terms of stimulus and response. Verbal operant conditioning is shaped after the appropriate reinforcement. Errors as deviated behaviours must be avoided and corrected.

Moulton's (1961: 63) slogans compile the descriptive and methodological features of this position:

1. Language is speech, not writing
2. A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say
3. Languages are different
4. A language is a set of habits
5. Teach the language, not about the language

4.1.2. Methodological features

Content	Grammar structures
Objectives	In terms of separate skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing Priority of oral skills
Materials	Language laboratory Recordings
Procedures	Direct techniques: without reference to the mother tongue Mimicry and memorization: mim-mem techniques Structural pattern drills: active and simple practice Artificial dialogues to introduce the structures
Assessment	Skill objective tests Multiple choice and cloze tests

4.1.3. Results

Neither structuralism nor behaviourism went too far, either as descriptive theories or as applied partnership proposals through the Audiolingual Method. The consequence was that linguists, psychologists, and teachers made a front against this type of greenhouse insights (Rivers, 1964). The lighthouse effect was rejected and these linguistic and psychological theories abandoned. As Stern (1983:465) puts it: "In the early sixties audiolingualism had raised hopes of ushering in a golden age of language learning. By the end of the decade it became the whipping boy for all that was wrong with language teaching". Anyway, its contributions deserve attention, as Stern (1984:465) indicates in this summary:

1. A teaching theory must be based on declared linguistic and psychological principles
2. FL learning accessible to large groups of ordinary learners
3. Syntactic progression stressed
4. Simple techniques without translation
5. Language skill as a pedagogical device

The criticism expressed by Roulet (1972) in the second chapter of her book deserves an in-depth analysis:

1. The description of the grammatical system is rather incomplete. It does not provide the rules needed to construct an infinite range of grammatical sentences.
2. It gives excessive weight to grammatical facts of secondary importance, and thus neglects important generalization.
3. Slight treatment is given to syntactic relations.
4. It does not provide the teacher with criteria to determine grammaticality of utterances, and thus it does not provide appropriate criteria for error treatment.
5. The exclusion of meaning prevents the necessary information for the systematic teaching of lexis and of oral and written comprehension.
6. The accent placed on formal criteria leads teachers and students to manipulate structures as an end in themselves while neglecting their application in real life.
7. It leads teachers to consider language as the only variable.
8. Creativity to apply rules is neglected.

4.2. The Audiovisual Method: meaning and context

The audiovisual method appeared in France as the result of the conclusions derived from the CREDIF –*Centre de Recherche et d'Étude pour la Diffusion du Français*- in the early sixties. Thus, as far as language and learning are concerned, we face a distinct treatment. The international situation of English and French as foreign languages is different, as are their areas of influence. The worldwide presence of English has diluted the important contributions that the audiovisual method has provided, due to the contextual and semantic linguistics in which it is inspired, and to the global and synthetic view of the learning process. The use of filmstrips was an imaginative resource to make utterances contextualized and to give them plenty of meaning.

4.2.1.Theoretical background

The audiovisual method rejects the emptiness of formal structures of language and applies a meaningful and contextualized solution. It makes the FL recover its social and situational nature. The result is that communication is the aim. This linguistic perspective states a sequence from a Basic English variety.

Learning is viewed according to the Gestalt psychology which underlines the importance of the global and unanalysed mechanisms for perception before any sort of analysis is produced: from a total view to its parts. It claims also an inductive path: abstract principles are derived from concrete examples or experiences. Thus, the main points could be summarised in this way:

> Language: L2: Social nature & situational => communication (Français fondamental)=>Basic English
> Learning: Global before analysis: from total view to parts
> (Gelstalt Psychology)

4.2.2. Methodological features

Content	Everyday FL
Objectives	1 Basic linguistic variety
	2 General topics and reading: newspapers...
	3 Specialized discourses: E.S.P.
Materials	Filmstrip + tape (Semantic unit)

Procedures	1 Presentation: Visual scenario for meaningful utterances & context 2 Explication: Pointing Demonstrating Selective listening Questions/Answers 3 Repetitions & Memorization 4 Exploitation (development or transposition) Visual emancipation Role-play and new questions and answers Grammar
Assessment	According to goals

4.2.3. Results

The use of audiovisual technology is a great contribution to help teaching and motivate learners. Understanding and communication are principles which will stand out in coming approaches. The reference to meaning and context is a valuable advance. However, the exclusiveness of induced techniques and the connection between pictures and meanings can be misinterpreted. Another gap is that the linguistic sequences in some cases do not follow a tested model which could display a natural order of FL acquisition. In brief, these aspects are indicated below:

Technology

(+) Simplified social context
(+) Meaningful & communicative
(+) Meanings through visual aids (technology)

(-) All meanings inducted:
            misunderstanding (=Direct M.)
(-) Rigid sequences not tested (Not = SLA process).

4.3. Bosco and DiPietro's conceptual analysis of methods

The break with the method concept, as Stern (1983: 477-96) terms it, must be considered before a chronological description of methods is displayed. The impact of the audiolingual method made theorists and teachers question the suitability both of linguistic and psychological trends, and of the very method which they had inspired. Mackey (1965: 156) refers to methods as "*vague and inadequate because they limit themselves to a single aspect of a complex subject, inferring that that aspect alone is all that matters*".
Within this perspective, Bosco and DiPietro (1970) proposed a detailed conceptual analysis of the current trends –Grammar Translation, Direct and Audiolingual Methods-. The following summary and table compile both the linguistic and psychological bases to define their instructional strategies.

Psychological bases:

1. Functional vs non-functional: The goal aims at communication or understanding of linguistic structures
2. Central vs non-central: The methodology directs to *central* cognitive processes or to *peripheral*, sensorimotor conditioning
3. Affective vs non-affective. The affective domain is stressed.
4. Nomothetic vs non-nomothetic: Rules are explicitly brought into focus.
5. Idiographic vs non-idiographic: It encourages the learner to develop his unique style of personal expression.
6. Molar vs non-molar (or molecular): It encourages a synthesis or integrated view of the language and its expression, or this is reduced to an inventory of separates *molecules*.
7. Cyclic vs non-cyclic: It returns to points of learning, or it proceeds from point to point in a linear fashion.
8. Divergent vs non-divergent: It encourages the acquisition of discrete specific *skills*, for example, phonetic discrimination, listening comprehension, oral expression, etc., or it treats language skills in an undifferentiated manner.

Linguistic bases:
1. General vs non-general: It analyses the FL as an example of universal feature, or, on the other side, this is treated as unique, particular, or specific.
2. Systematic vs non-systematic: It suggests an ordered system of linguistic analysis, or the linguistic features are treated without any order.
3. Unified vs non-unified: It attempts to build a total structure of the language, or each rule is dealt in isolation.

Bosco and DiPietro's conceptual analysis of Methods:		GT	DM	AL
Psychological Aspects:				
(1) Functional		-	+	+
(2) Cognitive		+	-	-
(3) Affective		-	+	-
(4) Nomothetic		+	-	+
(5) Idiographic		-	-	-
(6) Molar		-	+	-
(7) Cyclic		-	-	-
(8) Divergent		-	-	+
Linguistic Aspects:				
(1) General		+	-	-
(2) Systematic		-	-	+
(3) Unified		-	-	-

Krashen and Seliger (1975:180) include other features to complete the analysis. Thus, they refer to rules to be treated in a deductive vs inductive way. Special emphasis is laid on the sequence followed according to any formal aspect vs a natural path of acquisition. As for error, two aspects are considered: avoidance and correction.

5. COGNITIVE THEORY

In the previous section we have included the Audiolingual and Audiovisual methods

under a common technological feature. But these methods are based on completely different linguistic and psychological principles. A new perspective on learning as a cognitive process would reject the old behaviourist one which is based on products; let us say, *verbal habits.* Understanding and thinking mechanisms had not been considered because of their risk of being subjective and ambiguous data, that is to say, not objectively observable, measured, and treated as a scientific discipline demands. As for language description, syntactic structures could not explain their formation process without any reference to meaning and the application of creative rules, most of all, when the text and context are eluded. On the other hand, the audiovisual method laid too much emphasis on peripheral psychological mechanisms, although its references to meanings and context are positive. An appeal to a broader perspective both in the linguistic and psychological fields is claimed. The cognitive theory is the first response to provide a more complete perspective on how we learn. Its proposal of a similar position on linguistic grounds would come through transformational-generative grammar.

5.1. Theoretical Background

DISCUSSION 4

a) Do you think all languages share common features?

The Cognitive Theory arose not as an explicit teaching method, but as a reaction to Structuralism and to behavioural principles. A set of new beliefs of L1 language and learning involving the notions of *universality, creativity* and *innateness* constitute some of the arguments that led to the demise of the Structuralist and Audiolingual framework.

These new principles came from two fields: the psychological and the linguistic frameworks. One of the most representative figures of this model is Chomsky (1959), who, in answer to Skinner's postulates (1957), provided some facts that rejected the previous position. Psychologically speaking, language learning started to be considered as a product of *rule formation* and *hypothesis testing*. That is to say, when acquiring a language, the child and the learner form hypotheses about that language, test them and turn them into rules if they are later contrasted to the incoming input. Thus, language learning was thought to be a creative process in which the learner is engaged in hypothesis construction, but not, as structuralism would say, imitation or habit formation. This process was innate and universal, that is to say, similar for all children (and possibly, learners), because of two reasons. First, children were thought to be endowed with a *Language Acquisition Device* (LAD), which is an innate predisposition to induce the rules of the target language from the input they are exposed to. Second, it was considered that all children (and possibly, learners) made the same developmental errors, as in the overgeneralization "eated", which indicates that the learner is *learning* the rules of the language, even if they are incorrectly applied. Thus, the mentalist orientation (see Chomsky, 1959) constituted a contrast to

the previous behavioural orientation which considered learning as a process of memorisation, repetition and association in which the individual was regarded as an *empty vessel*.

The second theoretical axis of the Cognitive theory came from Linguistics and the development of the Generative-Transformational (GT) and the Universal Grammars (UG). In opposition to the previous Structuralist approaches in which a description of particular languages was made, language for the UG consisted of a set of universal features, rules and transformations forming the linguistic system or grammar. The Universal Grammar was an attempt to discover what it is that all children, regardless of the environmental stimuli (the language) they hear around them, bring to the language acquisition process. Studies were carried out in order to discover universal features, and, among others, structures such as questions, negations, word order, relative clauses and discontinuity of embedded clauses were investigated. Following the GT view, each language had a shallow and a deep structure, the latter being the universal aspect represented by the shallow structure in each individual language. In a second stage, Chomsky (1965) also distinguished between *competence* and *performance*, origin of the notion of communicative competence and the communicative teaching approaches (see section 8).

The gap between *competence,* or knowledge of an idealized listener-speaker that does not manifest memory limitations, distractions, attention loss, loss of interest, mistakes, doubting phenomena, fillers, false starts, pauses or omissions, and *performance*, that is to say, the actual implementation of that knowledge, led to the study of the learners' interlanguage and the errors they make. A distinction between *mistakes*, which the learner is able to self-correct, and *errors*, showing the learner's lack of knowledge, was first carried out, and then Corder (1967, 1981) distinguished between *interlingual* (transference of knowledge from the L1) and *intralingual* (overgeneralization) errors. Richards (1971) would then add *developmental* errors, or errors induced by overteaching.

Psychology: Mentalist approaches	Linguistics: Generative-Transformational Grammars/ U.G.
Language learning is a creative process, product of rule-formation and hypothesis testing	Language is creative, not imitation or habit-formation
Human beings are endowed with Language Acquisition Device (LAD): innate predisposition to induce rules of target language	LAD: four innate linguistic properties -ability to distinguish speech sounds from other sounds -ability to organize linguistic events -knowledge that only a certain kind of linguistic system is possible -ability to engage in constant evaluation
Language learning is a universal process	There is a universal grammar in all the languages in the world.
Learners make similar developmental errors	Deep structures are represented by the shallow structures in individual languages
	Competence is the knowledge of an idealized speaker. Performance is the actual implementation of that knowledge, with memory limitations, distractions, etc.

Table 1: Summary of theoretical background in Cognitive theory

5.2. Features of the 'Method': Cognitive Code Learning

If the study of learners' errors, or Error Analysis, was the outcome of the distinction between *competence* and *performance* in connection with research, Cognitive Code learning was, rather than a method in itself, a reaction against the Audiolingual one. Thus, rote learning was de-emphasised, together with techniques such as mimicry and memorisation (Nunan, 1991b). Substitution and transformation drills were used, but they were introduced with a rationale different from behaviourist drills: to infer the rules of the target language, to actively engage the learner in a problem-solving process, to link new learning to prior knowledge and to reflect about the way the target language operates. Also, errors were contemplated in a different way: making mistakes was part of the learning process, rather than a dangerous *habit* to be discouraged because of the risk of learning those deviant forms.

Some other features of the method included the possibility of presenting lessons deductively or inductively. In the first approach, the new structure or item was embedded in a meaningful context, learners were told the rule and given the opportunity to apply it to several examples. In the second approach, learners were given a number of examples and then told to infer the rule through guided discovery. In both cases the aim was to formulate the rule in a conscious way and to reflect about it, rather than foster rote-learning and positive habits.

Yes	*No*
Conscious analysis	
Connection of prior to new knowledge	Memorization
Reflection	
Transformation and substitution drills	Repetition drills
Creation of hypotheses and rules	Habit-formation
Errors show the learner is learning	Errors avoided at all costs
Inductive or deductive classroom presentation	Foster rote-learning and positive habits

Table 2: features of Cognitive Code learning

5.3. The Mentalist layout in perspective

Even if there was a solid psychological and linguistic background behind Cognitive Code learning, the transformational grammar and mentalist/cognitive learning paradigms did not exactly give way to a method with a set of explicit step-by-step classroom procedures and techniques, unlike the previous method, very popular for teachers because of its explicit guidelines. That is why this layout did not attain the prominence of Audio-lingualism, as it did not have a clear classroom implementation. Besides, its major outcome, Error Analysis, also suffered some drawbacks, as it overstressed production data and paid too much attention to learners' errors but was not able to account for avoidance phenomena. However, mentalism took the individual and his/her attempt at creating a language into account, rejected the notion of the learner as an empty organism, accepted the importance of prior knowledge and distinguished the dichotomy of *competence* and *performance*, origin of communicative approaches. It also studied universal aspects common for all learners and languages. Besides, it constituted the origin of the second language acquisition tradition and the humanistic approaches, both described in the following sections.

+	-
Psychological and linguistic framework	Unclear classroom implementation
Clear-cut notion of language and learning	
Importance of prior knowledge	No explicit step-by-step methodology
Individual as creative participant in learning process	
Universal processes, stages and linguistic features	EA: too much attention to learners' errors
Notion of competence and performance	Overstressing of production data: did not account for avoidance phenomena

Table 3: Cognitive Code learning in perspective

6. THE SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION TRADITION

6.1. Introduction

The empirical research into first and second language acquisition, the identification of L1 and L2 learning and the attempt to apply these notions to the second language classroom (Nunan, 1991b), together with the principles already developed in the previous mentalist framework, led to the development of two methods: The Natural Approach (Krashen and Terrell, 1983) and Total Physical Response (Asher, 1988). Both methods share some theoretical beliefs:

- Language is considered a creative process of rule formation and hypothesis testing.
- Input is used to confirm or reject those rules/hypotheses about language.
- Language learning is a universal process and it is innate, because all children develop their language around the same age, regardless of the concrete language.
- LAD (Language Acquisition Device): The roots of language are pre-programmed in the minds of children when they are born, so that they would be able to acquire a language no matter whether he receives input or not. Learners should use that LAD for *acquiring* the target language.
- **Identity hypothesis (L1=L2):** The process of learning a second language is very similar to how the mother tongue is learnt. That is why many processes of L1 learning can also be applied to L2 acquisition.

Thus, the search for learning and language universals and the notion of language as a creative process constitute the two main arguments that led to the study of the similarities in L1 and L2 learning, which has been termed the Identity Hypothesis, at the core of both methods. The two attach great importance to input as a source to *trigger* learning and, following the Identity Hypothesis, they try to imitate the way children learn their mother tongue.

6.2. The Natural Approach

6.2.1. Theoretical background

Krashen (1985; Dulay Burt and Krashen, 1982) studied the conditions underlying all successful language acquisition, mainly based on the way children learn their first language, proposing the Monitor Theory, at the source of the classroom method. This model consists of five hypotheses:

1. Acquisition versus learning hypothesis
There are two different ways to 'learn' a language: a subconscious process, natural, identical to the one children learning their mother tongue use, and effective –*acquisition*-, and a second process –*learning*-, which is conscious and consists of learning grammar rules.
2. Natural Order hypothesis
Second language rules are acquired in a fixed way, pre-established, determined by innate mechanisms and not by linguistic complexity or explicit teaching.
3. Monitor Hypothesis
The monitor only controls learning, not acquisition. The monitor plans, edits and corrects the learner's production when there is time. It sometimes interferes with the process of acquisition.
4. Input Hypothesis
It explains how language is acquired. A second language is acquired processing comprehensible input, that is, input that has been listened to and understood. If that input is beyond the level of the student and he/she does not understand it, then that input is useless. For acquisition to take place the input has to be slightly superior to the level of the learner (i+1) and comprehensible. To achieve comprehension, the learner can use some help, through the context, pictures, mime, etc. To achieve *acquisition* the learner must use innate mechanisms (LAD), triggered when input is heard and understood.
5. Affective filter Hypothesis
It considers the role in acquisition of several factors, such as motivation, self-confidence or anxiety. These factors foster or impede acquisition, though they do not produce acquisition. To be more concrete, lack of motivation or self-esteem can *raise* the affective filter so that comprehensible input is not able to trigger the LAD and acquisition becomes impossible.

6.2.2. Features of the method: The Natural Approach

Krashen's Monitor Theory constitutes the theoretical background of this method, together with Terrell's school experience (Krashen and Terrell, 1983). The Natural approach considers language as communication, so meaning, rather than grammar, is at the core of their notion of language. Thus, the focus is not on explicit analysis of structures either by the teacher or learner. Following the notion that the process of learning a second language should be similar to the way children learn their mother tongue, comprehensible input is provided using visual and kinaesthetic aids, and students are not asked to produce output immediately, as they usually go through a *silent period* in which they understand but are not able to use the target language, in a way similar to L1 learners. There are several types of activities introduced in the lessons:

-Affective humanistic activities, intended to reduce the learners' affective filter and involve their feelings, ideas and experiences, such as dialogues, interviews, preference ranking, personal charts, etc.

-Problem-solving activities, in which students have to find a correct answer to a situation or problem.

-Games, considered as an important element in the acquisition process and not as a way to fill up students' lessons.

-Content activities, which focus on learning something else besides language, including mathematics, science, etc., for example, music, films, television reports, news broadcasts, and the like.

These activities provide meaningful and comprehensible input in the form of listening and reading. Production –speaking and writing- are left for a second stage, when the students have undergone their *silent period* and are ready to speak. The activities introduce a focus on unconscious acquisition rather than learning, and can be used to lower the students' affective filter, because they centre on the students' personal experience and opinions.

Yes	No
Meaning, rather than form	Analysis of syntactic structures
Unconscious acquisition, rather than learning	
Comprehensible input	Drills
Games, problem-solving and affective activities	Stressful situations
Silent period	Repetition and immediate production
Input before output	
Authentic activities	

Table 5: features of the Natural approach

DISCUSSION 8
a) Summarise the features of the Natural Approach.
b) Which procedures of this approach are still used in the classroom? What are their advantages?
c) Krashen (1985) put forward the Monitor Hypothesis. Does the Natural approach represent a faithful classroom implementation?

6.3. Total Physical Response

6.3.1. Theoretical background

Asher (1977) focused on several characteristics of first language acquisition to develop this method: the first is that children have to comprehend a lot of input before they learn how to speak. The second is that, when they are young, children receive input in which a lot of physical manipulation and action is involved (Nunan, 1991b). This association between movement and language facilitates spontaneous acquisition because of the association between stimulus and response. In this sense, this model has a clear audiolingual orientation. Asher also incorporated some humanistic principles: as in the Natural approach, it is essential to eliminate affective filters such as anxiety or stress, which could impede acquisition.

Although there is a structured psychological basis behind this method which is similar to that of the Natural approach, its linguistic orientation differs from that of Krashen and Terrell's, and can be said to be based on a structuralist or even grammatical position (Sánchez, 1997), as input is selected using grammatical and lexical criteria.

6.3.2. Features of the method: Total Physical Response

Several key principles derived from the L1=L2 hypothesis constitute the basis of this teaching method (Nunan, 1991b):

-Comprehension should come before production, particularly at the beginning levels of second language instruction.
-The classroom should promote a relaxed climate and increase the interest and motivation of students through a well-chosen range of activities.
-The 'here-and-now' principle should organize all classroom teaching.
-Input should be provided through commands in the imperative form.
-The teacher is the instructor, and decides when, how and why to teach.
-Learning is inductive rather than deductive.
-The first group of activities should involve commands, then interaction dialogues, and afterwards dramatization and role-plays. All must include physical action.

Yes	No
Comprehensible input	Language as meaning
Language as structures and vocabulary	
Language learning: association of stimulus-response through physical action	Conscious reflection and analysis of linguistic structures
Unconscious acquisition	Conscious learning
Silent period	Immediate production
Input before output	
Inductive learning	Deductive learning and explanation of structures
Teacher as leader of the classroom	Learners: Active participants in teaching process
Activities designed to reduce affective filter	Stressful situations leading to anxiety
Use of commands in the form of orders	

Table 6: Features of Total Physical Response

a)   Compare the features of the Natural approach to those of TPR. Enumerate similarities and differences.

b)   Have you experienced any of these techniques as a learner? Would you use them as a teacher?

c)   Read the TPR classroom procedure (Asher, 1977), and comment its possible drawbacks.

6.3.3. The Natural Approach and the Total Physical Response methods in perspective

Humanism and an identification of L2 and L1 learning are at the core of both methods. Moreover, many of their postulates are still applied in our days, such as the notions of input before output, the silent period, the question of comprehensible input, the reduction of the affective filter, and, for the Natural Approach, its selection of activities and its focus on meaning, rather than form. In this sense this method can be said to be the origin of the notional-functional approaches (see Section 8) that led to the Communicative move. In contrast, the TPR method *goes back* towards structuralist and grammatical positions in its notion of language –considered as a set of structures and vocabulary- and learning –regarded as an association of stimulus and response through physical action-.

In general, the two methods have shown some problems, such as the fact that they were not designed by experts, and it has not been possible to verify their theoretical background or hypotheses. Besides, the distinction of *learning* versus *acquisition* as two separate mechanisms, one conscious and 'unadvisable' and the other one unconscious and 'advisable' is, though accepted by a widespread range of language teachers, feeble. Moreover, the role of interaction and the function of output for learning were not considered in detail. In addition, the TPR *method*, though popular in our days as a *classroom procedure* or *technique*, proved to be very demanding on teachers, provided a very limited range of materials and procedures, and made teaching difficult structures nearly impossible.

+	-
Psychological (and linguistic) framework	Hypotheses impossible to verify: Not designed by experts
Language as meaning (Natural approach)	Language as structure (TPR)
Language learning through physical action (TPR)	Dichotomy: learning vs. acquisition as separate mechanisms
Humanistic ideas: reduction of anxiety	Very demanding on teachers (TPR)
Introduction of language through oral means	Introduction of difficult structures (TPR)
Input before output: silent period	Lack of role for output and interaction
Selection of activities (Natural approach)	Variety of materials (TPR)

Table 7: the Natural approach and TPR in perspective

7. HUMANISTIC APPROACHES OR DESIGNER METHODS[1]

7.1. Introduction

This section contemplates a number of methods which, through different in their classroom implementation, share a common framework: the primacy of affective and emotional factors within the learning process. They also have some other features in common, such as their departure from theories of language and second language acquisition research studies. In fact, they can be said to stem from *common sense*, rather than from any interaction between the psychological and linguistic disciplines (Sánchez, 1997). The role they attach to affect and feeling forms part of what has been termed the *humanistic tradition*, represented by Stevick (1982), Curran (1972), Gattegno (1972) and Lozanov (1978), among others. Humanism departs from audio-lingual habit theory and cognitive code learning and emphasizes the learner's affective domain. Thus, language should be learner-centred, and the content, materials and learning activities should take into account the learner's emotional attitude toward that language, its culture and his/her classmates. Humanism could be summarised saying that *it is not really possible to teach anybody anything, only to help learners in their acquisition process*.

7.2. Community Language Learning

7.2.1. Theoretical background

The question of how adults learn a second language, rather than an identification between children's L1 and adults' L2 learning, is at the core of this method. Adults show more inhibitions, they tend to analyse what they learn in a conscious way, and have a fear of making mistakes. Curran (1972) noticed that propensity to anxiety in adult language learners and focused on building a warm and supportive 'community' among learners, gradually moving from dependence on the teacher to complete autonomy. Psychologically speaking, this method arises from Rogers' notions of learners in the role of *clients* and teachers as *non-directive counsellors* (a summary of this theory can be seen in Rogers, 1980). Linguistically speaking, even though Curran

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[1] Within Humanistic approaches we have considered three: Community Language Learning, The Silent Way and Suggestopedia (Nunan, 1991b), although other authors (Cerezal, 1996; Sánchez, 1997) also include the Second Language Acquisition tradition methods (TPR and the Natural Approach: see previous section). However, and even though both share some humanistic features, they are based on the *identity hypothesis* and show the interaction between linguistic and psychological theories, in contrast to the three we are contemplating in this section. Besides, this section is devoted to methods specially designed for second language teaching, rather than to outcomes of other fields of research.

did not put forward any theory of language, his main follower, La Forge (1983) developed the notion of language as a *process* in which social, personal and cultural factors interact to create the linguistic identity of the human being (Sánchez, 1997).

7.2.2. Features of the method

The role of affect and feeling, the notions of learner as client and teacher as counsellor, together with a view of language as a process led to a set of procedures in which traditional and innovative techniques are combined:

-Translation by the teacher of what L2 learners say is used. Then students repeat the sentences, which are recorded, revised and commented on subsequently.

-Group work has an important function, and these interactions are also recorded and transcribed by the teacher. Learners must then analyse their production and self-correct, if possible.

- There is no pre-defined syllabus in the classical sense. Students decide *what* and *when* to learn according to their needs. The teacher must sometimes discover those needs.

- The classroom is organized following a u-shape, so that participants can really communicate among themselves. The teacher is always behind the group to help solve linguistic problems, doubts and hesitations, and to eliminate negative feelings of anxiety or failure.

Humanistic position: Avoidance of anxious situations
Conscious learning
Learners as *clients*: whole-person approach
Learners: active participants in teaching process
View of language as *process*
No grammatical analysis
No *a priori* syllabus
Translation, recording and analysis techniques
Self-correction is fostered
Emphasis on group-work

Table 8: Features of Community language learning

DISCUSSION 11

a) What are the features that distinguish this from other methods already mentioned?

b) Classify the procedures of the method into two groups: traditional and innovative techniques.

7.3. The Silent Way

DISCUSSION 12

a) Have you ever tried to teach a class without speaking?

7.3.1. Theoretical background

Gattegno (1972) developed a method partly based on *mentalist* notions of learning (see section 5), and took into account the way children acquire their mother tongue (see section 6). Thus, in his theory teaching should be learner-centred, and learning

was considered as an active, creative problem-solving process in which the use of physical cues was essential. As a materials developer, Gattegno was influenced by Cuisenaire, who had successfully used coloured charts and wooden sticks to teach mathematics. These *cuisenaire rods* –employed to remember learned material– together with the role of *silence* it attaches to the teacher constitute two of the most well-known techniques of the method. Linguistically speaking, the Silent Way had a structuralist basis, with language being considered as a set of structures and vocabulary, but with a focus on its oral aspects. However, the social function of language was not yet taken into account.

7.3.2. Features of the method

Though humanist in its general considerations, the Silent Way has an implementation different from the Community Language Learning approach. It has a very uniform classroom procedure; first sounds, then words and afterwards sentences are taught through coloured rods of different shapes, which have been previously associated to the different linguistic items. The teacher pronounces each element and asks for its repetition. He/she can use mime to guarantee or check comprehension or to indicate slight changes in content. Thus, the teacher *directs* the classroom but has an *indirect* role, because he/she has to be silent most of the time, giving an active role to the learner. In general, the method follows an audiolingual perspective, as translation is avoided at all costs. However, it also follows mentalist accounts, because self-correction and learner autonomy are promoted.

Humanistic position: Avoidance of anxious situations
Learners as active participants in learning process
View of language as structures and vocabulary
Learner autonomy promoted
Self-correction is fostered
Teacher is silent most of the time
Teacher as leader and decision-maker
Use of repetition
Use of cuisenaire rods

Table 9: Features of the Silent Way

DISCUSSION 13
a)   What is the grammatical approach of the Silent Way?
b)   What advantages and disadvantages can you foresee when implementing this method in the classroom?

7.4. Suggestopedia

DISCUSSION 14
a)   Do you think we can learn while sleeping?
b)   Is complete relaxation a way to learn best?

7.4.1. Theoretical background

Lozanov (1979) developed a teaching method based on the idea that the learner, given the appropriate conditions, is capable of prodigious feats (Nunan, 1991b). He based his ideas on Yoga, Soviet psychology and the use of music. From Yoga he took some techniques of relaxation, concentration and deep breathing. From Soviet psychology he borrowed the idea that learners can acquire *anything,* provided they do it in a deep state of concentration bordering hypnosis, and using the non-conscious and non-rational powers of their mind. Music is used to facilitate this relaxation and to activate the use of the left hemisphere, which is supposed to trigger *holistic*-global, non-analytic- learning. Even though this method had a sound psychological basis, Lozanov did not have a linguistic theory, although he did have a notion of the language to be taught: he focused on L1-L2 pairs (see Cerezal, 1996; Sánchez, 1997) and their memorisation, but did not attach a meaningful context to these linguistic items.

7.4.2. Features of the method

The classroom, following Suggestopedia, starts with the relaxation of the students through the appropriate music, breathing techniques, classroom furniture and voice of the teacher. Then, students listen to texts and represent different roles using the L2. Translation is also used to foster comprehension. Students are *flooded* with oral input which they have to learn in an inductive way, and the activities are designed so that they involve the students' interests in such a way they do not provoke *mental blocks*. Interaction is also employed so that learners are able to use what they have unconsciously acquired.

Focus on unconscious learning
When relaxed, learners are capable of incredible feats
Use of yoga techniques to facilitate relaxation and concentration
Activation of the left brain to foster holistic learning through music
Language: L1-L2 pairs
Use of translation and memorisation
Oral input before output
Interactive activities

Table 10: Features of Suggestopedia

DISCUSSION 15

a) Enumerate the features of Suggestopedia and select those you think you would incorporate in your teaching approach.

7.4.3. The methods in perspective

In general, the three methods in this section are learner-centred and share the importance attached to the learners' feelings and affect for acquisition. In this sense they can be termed *humanistic*, and they do achieve to motivate learners, lower their anxiety and foster their confidence. However, the three were created (*designed*) by

individual people with little or no scientific support, and sometimes, without a well-defined notion of language. They were also advertised to be *designed* for achieving complete success at language learning; for accomplishing miracles. Thus, the use of the term *Designer method*. All three have received either enthusiastic support or criticism, and, concerning their actual success, results have been poor. In addition, the three require very specific teacher training, provide insufficient material and are very demanding for teachers. Besides, they lack a clear linguistic theory, so they tend to adopt a traditional grammatical orientation, particularly in the case of the Silent Way.

Community language learning, with its absence of syllabus, and the lack of conventional materials, is hard to put into practice, whereas Suggestopedia requires the same efforts because of different reasons: achieving complete relaxation in the students is no easy feat. Also, both are designed for adults, rather than children or teenagers. The Silent Way is also harder to implement with small children, who tend to need more verbal directions on the part of the teacher and are less autonomous. Besides, many teachers find it difficult to *conduct* a classroom without speaking.

On the whole, even though as *methods* the three show poor results, if considered as *techniques* within a global program, they have many advantages, introducing very useful activities, changing the classroom routine and providing the learner with an active role, while at the same time respecting his/her feelings and reducing his/her anxiety.

DISCUSSION 16

a) Enumerate the advantages and disadvantages of the three methods considered in this section.

b) Would you use any of these methods in your teaching practice?

c) Have you ever experienced any of these teaching methods as learner?

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8. COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

The previously mentioned *Designer Methods* characterized the language teaching panorama in the decade of the 70s. However, if, from that point onwards there has been a recognized approach to language teaching, generally accepted as the norm and viewed as essential in order to be considered a good teacher, that is the Communicative Approach or Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Its origins can be traced to the 60s, with the changes that occur in the British language teaching tradition. At this point, the foundations of Audiolingualism begin to be questioned, mainly as a result of Chomsky's cognitivist ideas (cf. section 5).

Thus, on the one hand, CLT appears as a reaction to previous methodological principles, such as those underlying Audiolingualism or Grammar-Translation. Scholars such as Candlin or Widdowson now begin to advocate the development of communicative proficiency in the target language, rather than knowledge of its structures, basing themselves on a wide range of theories, ranging from those of the

British linguists Firth and Halliday, to those of the American sociolinguists Hymes, Gumperz, and Labov, to those of the language philosophers Austin and Searle. Another strong contributor to the Communicative Approach is Wilkins, with his proposal of a notional syllabus, incorporated by the Council of Europe in its attempt to facilitate the teaching of European languages in the Common Market. However, none of these ideas would have prospered if they had not been rapidly applied by textbook writers and equally quickly accepted by language teaching specialists, curriculum developers, and even governments. This provided the impetus for CLT, or the notional-functional approach or functional approach, as it is also termed, to become an international movement.

The latter views language learning as the product of the diverse subcompetences comprised within the general concept of communicative competence; that is, not merely linguistic or grammatical competence, as in previous methods, but also sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competences. Hence, the primary goal of CLT is to develop communicative competence, to move "beyond grammatical and discourse elements in communication" and probe the "nature of social, cultural, and pragmatic features of language" (Brown, 1994: 77).

Consequently, learners are expected, not so much to produce correct sentences or to be accurate, but to be capable of communicating and being fluent. Classroom language learning is thus linked with real-life communication outside its confines, and authentic samples of language and discourse or contextualized chunks rather than discrete items are employed. Students are hence equipped with tools for producing unrehearsed language outside the immediate classroom.

This general goal of CLT can be viewed in two ways, since, as Howatt (1984: 279) points out, it has both a "weak" and a "strong" version. The weak version "stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching". On the other hand, the strong version "advances the claim that language is acquired through communication", so that language ability is developed through activities simulating target performance and which require learners to do in class exactly what they will have to do outside it.

But let us characterize CLT further, beyond its central aim, by examining its theory of language and learning, its syllabus, activity types, and materials, as well as its teacher and learner roles. At the level of language theory, the Communicative Approach is based, in line with what we have already mentioned, on Hymes' and Canale and Swain's view of communicative competence, on Halliday's theory of language functions, and on Widdowson's view of the communicative acts underlying language ability.

In turn, this method's theory of learning has a much less solid foundation. Nevertheless, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001), three main principles can be inferred from CLT practices:

1. *The communication principle*: Learning is promoted by activities involving real communication.

2. *The task principle*: Learning is also enhanced through the use of activities in which language is employed for carrying out meaningful tasks.

3. *The meaningfulness principle*: The learning process is supported by language which is meaningful to the student. Activities should consequently be selected according to how well they involve the learner in authentic and meaningful language use.

Much more discussion has been devoted to syllabus design in CLT, as it is central to this method. One of the first models to be set forth is Wilkins' notional syllabus, which specifies notional or semantic-grammatical categories (such as time, sequence, quantity, notion, location, or frequency) and communicative function categories (for instance, requests, denials, offers, or complaints). The Council of Europe builds on this proposal and develops a syllabus including objectives, situations, functions, notions, and vocabulary and grammar. The result is Van Ek and Alexander's Threshold Level English (1980). Further designs have since then been developed, such as task-based syllabuses (cf. section 10.1.) or the movement in favor of the abolition of the concept of syllabus.

Such syllabus types are implemented through a series of clear-cut activities and materials. The former, according to Littlewood (1981) are of two main kinds. One of them involves functional communication activities, where the information-gap principle is the basis for comparing pictures, working out sequences of events, discovering missing features in a map or picture, giving instructions, following directions, or problem-solving. The other consists of social interaction activities, based, as Nunan (1991a: 279) puts it, on the emphasis placed by CLT on "learning to communicate through interaction in the target language". They encompass conversation and discussion sessions, dialogues and role plays, simulations, or debates.

In turn, materials are, in Richards and Rodgers' view (2001), of three major types: text-based (e.g. textbooks), task-based (relying on jigsaw or information-gap principles), and realia (here, we are referring to authentic materials, taken from "real life" and brought into the classroom, such as signs, magazines, newspapers, maps, pictures, graphs, charts, or even objects).

One of the teacher's roles is obviously to act as a guide during the afore-mentioned activities. But (s)he equally fulfills other extremely relevant ones. Among them, we

can distinguish those of independent participant within the group; organizer of resources and resource him/herself; researcher and learner; needs analyst in order to cater adequately for the students' necessities; counselor, much in the way advocated by Community Language Learning; or group process manager. However, perhaps the most outstanding function of the instructor is to facilitate and provide opportunities for communicative interaction between all classroom participants, always, if possible, in the target language.

The learner thus becomes a central and active member in the learning process. (S)he must negotiate, interact, and cooperate with other participants and should be an important contributing element to classroom learning. In other words, teaching becomes learner-centered.

How can such an influential method in the history of language teaching be appraised? For many years – even decades – CLT is considered a panacea. It appeals to those who see a more humanistic, interactive, and communicative approach to teaching. Ur (1996: 6) perfectly sums up the general feeling: "The coming of the communicative approach represented for those of us involved in teaching at the time a healthy revolution, promising a remedy to previous ills: objectives seemed more rational, classroom activity became more interesting and obviously relevant to learner needs".

However, once initial enthusiasm has passed, CLT has been criticized on a number of fronts and some of its central claims have been called into question. Let us examine exactly which ones by analyzing what has come to be known as the post-communicative or post-methodology era.

DISCUSSION 17

a) Comment on the origins of CLT.
b) Name the author(s) who …
   - proposed the notional syllabus.
   - produced Threshold Level English (19080).
   - distinguished between functional communication and social interaction activities.
c) What is the general goal of CLT? Do you agree this should be the objective in language learning? Why or why not?
d) Which version of CLT would you favour in your EFL classroom? Why?
e) Enumerate the subbcompetences which CLT believes should be included within the concept of communicative competence. Can you briefly describe what you consider each one involves?
f) Work with a partner. Draw up an example of a functional communication or a social interaction activity for a roughly 4th year of CSE level. Swap activities and complete them. Comment on your general impressions. Would you use activities of this type in your class?

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9. THE POST-COMMUNICATIVE PERIOD: TOWARDS AN ENLIGHTENED

ECLECTICISM

It initially takes a great deal of courage for critics to openly express their reservations as regards the Communicative Approach. As Ur (1996: 6) explains, this is because "'communicativity' was becoming axiomatic rather than a means to an end, treated as synomymous with 'good language teaching'". However, such fear is gradually overcome and some of the key principles of this method are questioned without reserve.

Perhaps one of the best-known methodologists who is among the first to voice his dissent is Swan (1985a, 1985b). While acknowledging the valuable contributions of CLT to the field of language teaching, he straightforwardly maintains that "A dogma remains a dogma, and in this respect the 'communicative revolution' is little different from its predecessors in the language teaching field".

More specifically, Swan considers it presents serious deficits on both the theoretical and practical planes. Theoretically, a first aspect of CLT which Swan (1985a) criticizes concerns this method's belief in the existence of two levels of meaning in language: "usage" and "use"; "signification" and "value"; "rules of grammar" and "rules of communication". To begin with, this author resents the use of such terminology. Secondly, he considers there is nothing new in this account of meaning. Furthermore, it is not clear what form such rules of use might take. And even if it were, what clinches his argument is that it is not necessary to teach them because they are mostly non-language-specific and merely depend on the operation of experience and common sense.

Another concept which Swan (1985a) challenges and which is considered the real goal of language teaching by the Communicative Approach is that of appropriacy. The latter is again nothing novel according to Swan, plus quite limited, as it applies to certain items only. The problem is that this concept has been overgeneralized as part of what he terms "the new toy effect" (1985a: 7). Brown (1994: 78) also warns against the danger of overdoing certain CLT features, advocating moderation and common sense when applying them in the classroom. What is more, this excessive focus on appropriacy obscures the necessity of teaching lexis, and enough vocabulary, in Swan's opinion, is what the learners need, not appropriacy.

Much the same applies to skills and strategies, which have greatly proliferated in the Communicative Approach. Swan esteems the language learners need lexical items, not instruction in skills and strategies such as predicting, negotiating meaning, or guessing. They already know how to do all this, he argues, in their mother tongue and have been doing it all their lives.

In practical terms, the setbacks of CLT are no less considerable. An initial one affects syllabus design. Communicative teaching adopts a semantic syllabus, which awards priority to meaning over structure, something considered by its supporters to be the secret to successful language instruction. However, Swan (1985b) identifies several

problems with this type of syllabus. To begin with, he points out, it groups structurally diverse items together, and, given the complexity of grammar, it is recommendable to isolate and practice difficult structures before integrating them into more realistic communicative work. Moreover, a single principle should not act as an organizing framework for a syllabus. Swan (1985b: 79) advocates taking into account functions, notions, situations, topics, phonology, structures, vocabulary, and skills. Furthermore, he highlights that semantic and formal syllabuses not only do not rule each other out, but one cannot do without the other and they must therefore be integrated. To all these arguments, we must add that there seems to be an air of unreality about functional categories, as they are abstract and do not specify exactly what must be taught. The focus should again be, in this author's opinion, on lexis, since functions without lexis are no better than structures without lexis.

Zaro Vera (1995), Ur (1996), and Segalowitz and Lightbown (1999) also criticize the Communicative Approach's lack of focus on formal aspects. Zaro Vera (1995: 10) highlights how this circumstance can lead to fossilization of the students' linguistic competence and how learning could be sped up and increased in effectiveness if some attention was awarded to formal elements. In turn, Ur (1996: 6) defends the importance of accuracy, contending that students with a sound grammatical knowledge progress beyond those who have acquired the language intuitively and that such precision increases linguistic comprehension. Finally, Segalowitz and Lightbown (1999: 54) hold that preventing students from learning the structural features of the language is a clear limitation of CLT, given the evidence which supports the effectiveness of combining focus-on-form and communicative activities.

Other pedagogical practices of CLT which are critically examined by Swan (1985b) involve its activity types and materials. Although this author acknowledges that using language which is as lifelike as possible is a significant contribution of the Communicative Approach, he also claims that the language employed in the classroom cannot be 100% genuine (1985b: 82). Besides, a great deal of learning can take place in settings remote from the actual situation in which such knowledge will be used. There is hence nothing wrong with employing a battery of teaching activities which seem to be of no immediate communicative value, such as repetition, rote learning, translation, drills, or transformation and slot-filling exercises.

Another activity type central to CLT and which Swan (1985b) and Zaro Vera (1995) suggest should undergo revision is the information-gap one. Its employment of imposed information can lead to student disinterest. It is therefore preferable to use communication of a more personal kind, achieved simply by asking learners to talk about themselves.

As regards communicative materials, both Swan (1985b) and Ur (1996) challenge their obsession with authenticity. There is nothing wrong, they uphold, with using deliberately simplified language, provided it is included within good quality material.

In fact, both scripted and authentic materials have a place in the language classroom and should be used at different points within it.

These two same authors – Swan (1985b) and Ur (1996) – also make a case in favor of mother tongue use. For CLT, it is as if the students' native language did not exist and they had to learn everything from scratch. But it plays an essential role in language learning: it is useful for clarifying, for instructions, for awareness-raising through contrastive analysis, and even for testing. Translation is furthermore inevitable and it is precisely this continuing comparison between the FL and the mother tongue that allows students to put into use the knowledge they already possess and prevents them from having to recategorize the world all over again.

Brown (1994: 78, 80) equally warns against getting lost in the numerous interpretations of this approach and against claiming adherence to CLT principles without truly grounding teaching on them. Checa Marín (2002) affirms that the latter has occurred in our Spanish teaching context. Indeed, he points out that the Communicative Approach has not had as strong an impact on language teaching in Spain as is usually claimed because it presents "serious obstacles" and "tremendous difficulties" (2002: 27) for Primary and Secondary School teachers who simply cannot match its main principles to their teaching reality. This author ascribes the failure of CLT in our country to the fact that this approach was conceived for a specific context: an English-speaking one where students learn a second rather than a foreign language. What works in such a situation cannot be extrapolated to a foreign language one where the learners have very little contact with the target language and very few opportunities to practice it.

Bearing all these caveats in mind, it is not surprising that CLT has now been largely defeated. In Swan's (1985b: 87) words: "The Communicative Approach, whatever its virtues, is not really in any sense a revolution. In retrospect, it is likely to be seen as little more than an interesting ripple on the surface of twentieth-century language teaching". At this point, we are thus living in a "post-communicative" (Ur 1996: 7) period, or perhaps it is a post-methodological one, as Ur (1996: 7) also points out, since it is now believed that no single method is optimally effective for teaching languages.

It seems we have learned enough from past experiences and research so as to practice a cautious eclecticism or integrated approach, where, as Swan (1985b: 87) puts it, we both try out new techniques and hold on to useful older ones. We have come to realize, in Stern's (1983: 474) words, that "language teaching cannot be satisfactorily conceptualized in terms of teaching method alone". And the majority of language specialists considers eclecticism a legitimate solution to the lack of universal solutions offered by any single method or, as Rodgers (2001: 4) terms it, "method synergistics" or a "disciplined eclecticism".

10. RECENT APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

Nonetheless, other methods and pedagogical approaches to foreign language teaching continue to proliferate in this post-communicative era. Although they incorporate certain communicative principles – in fact, Rodgers (2001: 2) considers many of them "off-shoots" spawned by CLT -, they also look back to previous trends for some of their central tenets.

10.1. Task-based Language Learning

One of those methods spawned by CLT is the Task-based Language Learning approach (TBA). Psychologically speaking, TBA arises from the development of Cognitive theories originated with the notions of *declarative* and *procedural* knowledge (Anderson, 1985) and the study of cognitive processes such as memory, attention, and recall. It also takes into account the advances of psycholinguistic research and bilingualism. All these developments had started to be taken into account in the CLT era. Linguistically speaking, the view of language as communication from previous periods (see section 8) evolved towards the inclusion of disciplines such as Pragmatics and Discourse Analysis, which study the social aspects of language, and Computational Linguistics, which uses databases to examine real samples of language. Thus, this period is characterised by the cooperation between cognitive psychology and psycholinguistics on the one hand, which have enlightened our comprehension of L2 learning, and discourse analysis and computational linguistics on the other hand, which have shed a more realistic view of the language to be taught. However, differently from previous periods, the TBA has not rejected CLT modes of thought, but incorporated them into its framework. Thus, the result is an approach focused on the process rather than the final product, in which a lot of importance is attached to methodology, to the learner and to the development of the lesson procedures.

More precisely, according to Cerezal (1996:183), a Task-based approach can be defined as "how a learner applies his or her communicative competence to undertake a selection of tasks". On the other hand, a task is a procedure or set of procedures which can take one or more lessons - they have a beginning and a conclusion - and can be

oriented towards communication –*communication tasks*- or towards learning the linguistic rules that enable learners to participate in the former tasks –*enabling tasks*-. They involve problem-solving activities with a single or with several solutions -*closed or open-ended tasks*-, they are developed taking as starting point a specific socio-linguistic authentic situation (i.e. going shopping) and include processes such as listing, sorting, ranking, ordering, gap-filling, etc. Perhaps a clearer definition should involve what tasks are not (Skehan, 1998:95):

they are not completion exercises involving transformation or meaningless repetition, or question-and-answer strings with the teacher, and they are not oriented towards analysis of linguistic structures, though *enabling tasks* focus on language.

Examples of tasks include going shopping, completing someone else's family tree, or solving a riddle, among others. Thus, many activities from a Communicative approach could be reorganized to become tasks (see Estaire and Zanon, 1992, for its implementation in Spain;Skehan, 1998, for a clear definition and justification of its use; Willis, 1996, Willis and Willis, 2001, for its implementation in Secondary Education).

Interaction between SLA research and other language and teaching disciplines
Communicative view of language
Cognitive view of learning
Process emphasis
Tasks: set of procedures with a single or multiple solution involving interaction and focus on form.
Types of tasks: listing, ordering, ranking, gap-filling, sorting, problem-solving, etc.

Table 11: Features of Task based approaches

However, it is not always easy to distinguish a TBA lesson from an Activity-based one or from Project work. Even though research (Skehan, 1998; Muñoz, 2000; Robinson, 2001) has shown very positive results, we lack a single clear-cut definition of task, and it is difficult to discriminate a task from other procedures and to implement a TBA adequately in the classroom, although many attempts have been carried out both by teachers and researchers (i.e. Estaire and Zanon, 1992; Nunan, 1990; Willis and Willis, 2001) and more and more task-based materials are being used at present in the classroom.

DISCUSSION 19
a) In groups, try to distinguish between *task*, *activity* and *project*.
b) Have you experienced a task-based approach as a learner?
c) Define the features that distinguish a task-based approach from a communicative one.

10.2. The Lexical Approach

The Lexical Approach, with Dave and Jane Willis (1996), Michael Lewis (1993, 1997a, 1997b, 2000), and J. R. Nattinger and J. S. DeCarrico (1992) as some of its

most notable exponents, differs from the remaining methods in its interest in the nature of the lexicon. Specifically, it considers the group of up to eight words, that is, the lexical chunk (also termed lexical phrase, holophrase, composite, gambit, prefabricated routine, patterned phrase, frozen form, routine formula, or formulaic expression), as "the ideal unit which can be exploited for language learning" (Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992: 1).

The effects which the consideration of the lexical chunk as a central element in language teaching has had have been significant. A first of these is the increasingly upheld belief that lexis and grammar cannot be readily disentangled. Carter (1987), Carter and McCarthy (1988), Hill (1999), McCarthy (1990), Singleton (1997), Scrivener (1998), Carter and Prodromou (cited by Abelló Contesse, 1998), and Gass (1999) all vouch for the inextricability of grammar and vocabulary, evinced thanks to the closer examination of lexical phrases. Michael Lewis goes straight to the point when he writes (1997b: 3) "The Lexical Approach can be summarised in a few words: language consists not of traditional grammar and vocabulary but often of multi-word prefabricated chunks". Or, to use one of his seminal sentences, "Language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar" (1993: 89).

A second noteworthy consequence which the consideration of multi-word items has brought about involves a radical shift in the view of the creativity of language. If previously grammar was considered to be organized and vocabulary, arbitrary, now the opposite is true: lexical items are relatively fixed and are used in probable, predictable situations, while grammar can be manipulated in more creative and novel manners.

A third and final aspect which the study of lexical chunks has evinced is the urgent "need for greater refinement in lexicological theory" (Carter and McCarthy 1988: 55). Indeed, the existence of multi-word items and the necessity to represent them adequately has spurred on new developments in lexicographic description.

These effects have crystallized in a series of principles and pedagogical implications which characterize the Lexical Approach. The latter is seemingly revolutionary in assigning a subsidiary role to grammar; in defending the renewed importance of lexical phrase drills (perfectly tenable if exercised in the just mean, to enhance fluency by working on the automaticity principle); in maintaining that lexis can well be learnt de-contextualized; in insisting on training in pedagogical chunking; or in emphasizing input through extensive reading and listening, but always combined with a direct approach to vocabulary teaching. Further recommendations which its originator (Lewis, 1993, 1997a, 1997b, 2000) gives involve discarding the Present-Practice-Produce paradigm in favor of the Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment one, based on discovery-learning procedures, and making language lessons a combination of input, awareness-raising, learner training, and language practice. And input is indeed priorized in the Lexical Approach, so that it is considered beneficial to increase teacher talking time as a valuable source of input and to correct errors through reformulation rather than formal correction. Such input, in order to ensure its

effectiveness, must obviously be comprehensible. Receptive skills (especially listening) are also accorded more weight than productive ones. Lewis stresses throughout his works that these methodological shifts are far from being revolutionary; rather, he prefers to view them as small but significant. And they are indeed not novel, as they point back to key principles of Grammar-Translation, Audiolingualism, the Natural Approach, or CLT. In this sense, Carter and McCarthy's (1998: 39) observation that "'what is new is not true and what is true is not new'" is particularly relevant. As they put it, "... linguists and language-practitioners must be aware of reinventing the wheel".

DISCUSSION 20

a) Name the most notable exponents of the Lexical Approach.

b) What is a *lexical chunk*?

c) Give three synomyms for *lexical chunk.*

d) Enumerate the three effects which the importance awarded to the lexical chunk has had.

e) What do you think an ideal dictionary should include, given the existence of these multi-word items?

f) Specify which principle(s) the Lexical Approach shares with each of the following methods or approaches to language teaching:

- Grammar- Translation
- Audiolingualism
- The Natural Approach
- The Silent Way
- Communicative Language Teaching

10.3. Neurolinguistic Programming

A third noteworthy approach which has of late entered the language teaching panorama is Neuro-Linguistic Programming (or NLP). It is initially developed in the field of psychotherapy by Grinder and Bandler in the early 1970s. Seeking to locate the difference between average and successful therapists, they discover that the latter share similar patterns and beliefs which Grinder and Bandler try to have other people learn. Nowadays, NLP's central ideas are being incorporated into diverse other areas: personal development, management, sales and marketing, or education. It does not pretend to be a scientific theory of behaviour, but rather is based on observation and experience. Revell and Norman (1999: 14) define it as "an attitude to life" but also as a "collection of techniques, patterns and strategies for assisting effective communication, personal growth and change, and learning". It is furthermore "a means of achieving intra-personal and inter-personal excellence".

Neuro refers to the way in which we experience the world through the five senses and to how we represent it in our minds by means of neurological processes. *Linguistic* alludes to the manner in which language both reflects and shapes our experience of the world. Finally, *Programming* has to do with the way we can train ourselves to think, talk, and act in a new and positive manner in order to attain higher achievement.

NLP is based on four pillars, as Revell and Norman (1999: 16) explain: *outcomes* (that is, the goals or objectives which we should know precisely in order to attain them); *rapport* (which involves minimizing differences and maximizing similarities with other people with a view to harmonizing communication); *sensory acuity* (which has to do with truly noticing what another person is communicating in order to maximize rapport); and *flexibility* (which means changing our way of doing things until we get to where we wanted). Each of these pillars relates, respectively, to each of the four steps of NLP's basic action model: *know your outcome, do something about it, notice the response,* and *respond flexibly*.

However, the characterization of Neuro-Linguistic Programming would not be complete without an examination of its chief presuppositions, which we now enumerate, following Revell and Norman's (1999: 15) formulation:

-   *Mind and body are interconnected*. They are parts of the same system, and each affects the other.

-   *The map is not the territory*. This tenet refers to the fact that we all experience and represent reality and the world in different ways. And our specific way is only one of many; it is one map, not the actual territory.

-   *There is no failure, only feedback and a renewed opportunity for success*. This next principle obviously has to do with viewing failure as an opportunity to learn and improve. Therefore, mistakes are to be considered as a source of learning, as evidence that progress is being made, and as useful feedback for both teacher and student.

-   NLP also regards disruptive behavior in a favorable light, as it believes that *all behaviour has a positive intention.* That is to say, there is always a purpose behind any type of disorderly conduct. It also helps to "reframe": since every character trait has two sides, rather than focusing on the disruptive features of the learner, it is best to center upon his/her positive characteristics.

-   The subsequent three principles of Neuro-Linguistic Programming have to do with attaining goals and may consequently be grouped together. The first of them is phrased by Revell and Norman (1999: 15) as *the map becomes the territory: what you believe to be true either is true or becomes true*. The first step towards objective consecution involves believing in oneself. The next stage entails establishing clear goals, since *knowing what you want helps you to get it*. And such objectives can be reached because NLP maintains that *the resources needed are within us*. By resources, this approach understands positive qualities such as sense of humor, confidence, patience, or good listening skills, which can help operate the changes sought.

- Further NLP presuppositions deal with the nature of communication. The latter is *non-verbal as well as verbal*. In fact, it is more non-verbal than verbal, as 55% of our message is communicated bodily, 38% through our tone of voice, and only 7% by the actual words we use. Another trait of communication is that it is *non-conscious as well as conscious*. NLP stresses that 99% of learning is non-conscious and that we retrieve information in this manner as well.

- Nonetheless, despite its belief in the power of non-conscious aspects, NLP does not advocate sitting back and letting things happen in life. Quite on the contrary, it firmly maintains taking responsibility for one's actions, something which is claimed in the presupposition *the meaning of my communication is the response I get*. If we want change, we have to initiate it ourselves.

- In line with this, the teacher should also urge the learners to make their own choices, to be flexible, as NLP esteems that *in any system, the element with the greatest flexibility will have the most influence on that system*.

- The remaining two principles are at the very core of Neuro-Linguistic Programming. The first of them points back to its origins: *modeling excellent behavior leads to excellence*. In harmony with the active role accorded to teacher and student, NLP upholds that the two participants in the teaching-learning process can make themselves. Both should model the strategies, values, and beliefs of good teachers and good learners in order to excel.

- A final noteworthy concept in NLP concerns the way we experience the world. It is through our five *primary representational systems* which correspond to the five senses: visual (looking and seeing), auditory (hearing and listening), kinaesthetic (feeling in a tactile, emotional, and psychomotor way), olfactory, and gustatory ('VAKOG' for short). The first three are those predominantly used by most people, and within them, one is employed more than the remaining two: in NLP, this is known as the *preferred primary representational system*. The pedagogical implications are clear: the teacher should incorporate activities which appeal to each and every one of these primary representational systems in order to cater for all possible learning styles. In other words, it is advisable to teach in a multisensory way, or, as Hirst and Slavik (1990: 133) put it, through "multiple channelling".

10.4. Multiple Intelligence Theory

Much the same is advocated by teaching through Multiple Intelligences. This theory has been developed by cognitive psychologist Howard Gardner (1983), who challenges the traditional two-fold view of intelligence as involving the logical-mathematical and linguistic types. He prefers to expand the number of ways in which human beings are intelligent, identifying at least eight kinds of intelligences which

work together so that we all possess a mixture of multiple intelligences. The eight types he distinguishes are the following:

1. *Intrapersonal intelligence* focuses inward and involves self-knowledge and understanding of our own feelings. It also enables us to reflect on and learn from our experiences. Those people who are strong in this intelligence need to spend time by themselves and suffer when they have to socialize excessively.

2. *Interpersonal intelligence* implies the ability to observe and discern among the moods, temperaments, motivations, and intentions of other individuals. It enables working with others and listening effectively.

3. *Logical-Mathematical intelligence* is used in the analytical part of problem-solving, sorting, and analyzing, and in order to discover patterns and to establish connections and relationships between separate pieces of information.

4. *Linguistic intelligence* is intimately related to form and has to do with being sensitive to sounds, rhythms, and meanings of words and to language.

5. *Musical intelligence* entails the ability to perceive, appreciate, and produce rhythm, tone, pitch, volume, intensity, and direction of sound.

6. *Spatial intelligence* is connected to the perception of space, sense of orientation, and visual capacity. It also enables thinking in pictures and seeing things in relationship to others.

7. *Bodily-Kinaesthetic intelligence* is characterized by the ability to use the body in highly differentiated and expressive ways. It possibilitates physical expression and playing games.

8. *Naturalist intelligence* refers to the capacity to organize and categorize the natural world.

The pedagogical practices which derive from this theory entail, as Tanner (2001a: 40, 2001b: 57) puts it, addressing and appealing to all the intelligences by conveying a good range and balance of them over time. If these intelligence areas are systematically involved in language lessons, the benefits will be numerous, as Puchta and Rinvolucri (in press) stress. Students will feel more activated and drawn into language learning, something which will enhance their motivation, increase their interest, accentuate their otherwise hidden strengths, and augment their willingness to take risks and try out new thinking processes.

a) What are the origins of NLP?

b) Explain what *Neuro*, *Linguistic*, and *Programming* refer to.

c) With which of the chief presuppositions of NLP do you most agree? Why? Exchange opinions with a partner.

d) In groups of three or four, identify your preferred primary representational system. Decide how this has affected your experience as a student and how it will influence your activity as a teacher.

e) Work in pairs. Ask your classmate about his/her weakest intelligence. Question him/her until you manage to convince him/her that it is not as weak an area as (s)he considers and try to find ways of accentuating his/her hidden strengths in this respect.

f) What assets do you think teaching in a multisensory way has for mixed ability classes? Comment on them with a partner.

10.5. Cooperative Learning

The next-to –last instructional approach which is currently shaping the teaching of modern languages is in fact not new to education. The principles of cooperative learning were outlined by Quintilian in the first century and subsequently by Comenius in the seventh (Olsen and Kagan, 1992). Rousseau's ideas in the eighteenth century and Piaget nand Vygotsky's developmental theories are also sources from which this appriach draws. More recently, it is Dewey and Lewin in the early twentieth century who are considered important promoters of the idea of cooperation and interdependence among group members. Deutsch (1949, 1973), student and follower of Lewin, further elaborates his ideas, thus becoming a referent for most susquent CL theorists.

Cooperative learning is an approach whereby students work together in structured groups to reach common goals. It aims to foster cooperation rather than competition – each person's success is linked with every other member's success – and to develop critical thinking skills. The learners are thus direct and active participants in the learning process, must work collaboratively with other group members on tasks assigned, and must learn to monitor and evaluate their own learning. Teacher roles also change drastically from traditional lockstep organisations: (s)he speaks less, acts as as facilitator of learning and is responsible for the creation of a highly structured and well-organised teaching environment which promotes successful group-based learning.

Although there is no ample accord among the most outstanding authors in the field (Olsen and Kagan, 1992; Kagan, 1994; Slavin, 1996; Johnson and Johnson, 1999) as regards all the specific elements involved in cooperative learning, there are, however, five main principles which underlie their work and which could be considered key elements in ensuring the success of this approach (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Naughton, 2004):

1. *Positive interdependence*: it occurs when the success or failure of each group member is

And, in fact, there is an enormous variety of possible cooperative learning structures or methods, as Chafe (1998: 2) terms them. Following this author, Richards and Rodgers (2001), and Naughton (2004), three of the most frequently cited CL techniques are summarized in the table below:

JIGSAW (Aronson, 1978):	Academic material is broken down into sections, each of which is assigned to a team member. They then meet up in expert groups to discuss their sections, subsequently returning to their original teams in order to teach their group members about their section.
STUDENT TEAMS ACHIEVEMENT DIVISIONS (STAD) (Slavin, 1982):	The teacher presents a lesson and students in heterogeneous groups of four work within their teams to master the lesson. Individual quizzes are then taken and success is based on improvement.
LEARNING TOGETHER / LEARNING CIRCLES (Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec, 1994):	This more flexible framework structures a cooperative learning lesson into five categories: a. Objective setting b. Decision-making c. Task communication d. Monitoring and intervening e. Evaluating and processing

Table 12: Cooperativce learning techniques

Perhaps more than any other recent language teaching proposal, cooperative learning has been extensively evaluated. And research results have generally been supportive of this approach. It has been found to correlate positively with achievement; to lead to improved social interrelations among students; to bear a positive relationship with the affective state of the learner; and to generate higher quality cognitive reasoning strategies. All in all, it has been evinced to be an effective method for increasing L2 acquisition, something which has led authors like Kagan (1995: 3) to conclude: "Cooperative learning and the ESL classroom – a natural marriage".

Thus, it is not surprising that numerous assets have been associated to this approach, the most notable of which we summarize below (Hirst and Slavik, 1990; Kagan, 1995; Chafe, 1998; Naughton, 2004):

motivating, communicative, referential, developmentally appropriate, and feedback rich, all critical variables that, accrding to Kagan (1995), foster language acquisition.

2. Motivation, positive attitudes, and higher levels of self-esteem are promoted by CL situations.
3. It can be used for a wide range of tasks and types of syllabus material.
4. It increases learner autonomy and allows students to act as resources for each other.
5. It develops critical thinking skills, encourages cognitive strategy use, and fosters metacognitive awareness.
6. It helps develop cross-cultural understanding.

Nonetheless, CL has also been found to present problems in its implementation (Chafe, 1998; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Troncale, 2002; Naughton, 2004):

1. Teachers may use it inadequately and thus need to be properly inserviced on cooperative learning theory and practice.
2. They may also feel excessively burdened in adapting to the new demands it places on them and to the novel roles they are required to assume.
3. Students themselves may feel reluctant to cooperate.
4. They may tend to resort excessively to their L1.
5. The input they receive may well also be too limited, something which can lead to fossilization if more advanced input is not provided.
6. Cooperative learning has been found to be less effective in promoting problem-solving skills than whole class instruction.
7. Higher achievers may obtain less benefits from this approach than weaker students, improving only marginally.

10.6. Content-Based Instruction

Lending itself to the incorporation of cooperative learning (Slavin, 1995) and closely related to previously examined approaches such as the task-based or communicative ones (Crandall, 1994; Madrid Fernández and García Sánchez, 2001) is our final instructional approach, namely, content-based instruction. CBI is an approach to language teaching which integrates language instruction with instruction in the content areas. The focus is thus on the substance or meaning of the content that is being taught, with language learning being a by-product of such a focus on meaning. The foreign or second language is used as the medium of instruction; as the vehicle through which subject matter content is learned.

It is based on the premises that people learn languages more successfully when they engage in meaningful activities (Curtain, 1995) and when the information they are acquiring is seen as interesting, useful, and leading to a desired objective (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Content-based instruction also addresses students' needs and builds upon the learners' previous experience, connecting it to the new information they receive (Madrid Fernández and García Sánchez, 2001). It involves learning by doing, something which implies the assumption of an active role on the part of the students. The teacher's responsibilities are no less demanding: instructors must not only master the foreign or second language, but must also be knowledgeable in the subject matter.

As had occurred with cooperative learning, content-based instruction is nothing new in the language teaching panorama. Back in the Middle Ages, St. Augustine is already considered to be an early proponent of language teaching through focus on meaningful content. CBI also draws on another clear-cut set of language teaching approaches or educational inititatives (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Madrid Fernández and García Sánchez, 2001):

- The *natural methods tradition*, particularly the *Direct Method* (cf. section 3), where the target language is used as the exclusive means of instruction, and the *Natural Approach* (cf. section 6), which emphasizes the same implicit teaching and learning techniques as CBI.
- *Communicative Language Teaching*: the same holistic, global, and experiential techniques are employed in both this approach and CBI.
- *Language across the Curriculum*: this proposal for language education was put forth by British authorities in the 70s and lay great emphasis on the teaching of the L1 across the diverse curricular subjects.
- *Language for Specific Purposes (LSP):* this movement prepares learners to fulfill specific roles (e.g. engineer, chemist, nurse) and to acquire real-world skills through the medium of a second or foreign language.
- *Bilingual Education Programmes*: within them, the foreign or second language is used to teach the regular school curriculum. Canadian immersion programmes or those bilingual ones which have been adopted in many parts of the U.S. have exerted a great influence on the theory of CBI.
- *Immigrant On-Arrival Programmes* and *Programmes for Students with Limited English Proficiency (SLEP)*: they focus on the language which newly arrived adult immigrants and their children, respectively, need for survival in the host country.
- *Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA):* typically geared at upper elementary or secondary school students, it combines language, content, and learning strategy instruction into the transitional ESL classroom.

Just as there are diverse traditions with which content-based instruction is linked, so are there several models according to which it can be organised (Crandall, 1994; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Madrid Fernández and García Sánchez, 2001):

THEME-BASED LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION:	Here, the language curriculum is built around selected topics or themes.
SHELTERED SUBJECT MATTER TEACHING:	It is carried out in the target language by a content area specialist to a separated class of target language learners.
ADJUNCT LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION:	The student is enrolled in two complementary related courses – a content and a language one – which are mutually coordinated.
SKILLS-BASED APPROACH:	Within it, specific subject matter teaching is carried out through the focus on a concrete academic skill area.

Table 13: Content-based instruction models

As had been the case with cooperative learning, research outcomes primarily support the desirability of following this approach to language teaching (McDonald, 1997; Troncale, 2002; Kavaliauskiene, 2004). It is thus not surprising that numerous assets have been associated with CBI (Crandall, 1994; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Madrid Fernández and García Sánchez, 2001; Troncale, 2002; Kavaliauskiene, 2004):

1. It can be applied successfully in a variety of teaching contexts, from ESP to vocational, K-12, college-level, or bilingual classrooms.
2. It provides input which is just above the students' current level of competence (thus being consistent with Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis – cf. section 6) and teaches language in a meaningful context.
3. This presentation of information in a coherent and meaningful way leads to deeper processing, which, in turn, results in better learning.
4. It promotes language development in a more natural way, in conditions similar to those present in L1 acquisition.
5. By emphasizing the connection to real life and real world skills, it makes language learning more interesting and motivating.
6. It lends itself to the incorporation of a variety of thinking skills and learning strategies which favour language development.

Howver, despite its many advantages, CBI also has acknowledged shortcomings (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Amaya, 2001; Troncale, 2002; Alameda Hernández, 2002; Kavaliauskiene, 2004):

1. For the student, CBI can pose a greater cognitive challenge. They may feel confused, overwhelmed, or even frustrated. They may also have linited time to achieve an adequate academic level.
2. CBI is no less challenging for the teacher. They need not only to master the target language, but also knowledge of the subject matter content.
3. Collaboration and coordination between L1 content teachers and target language content-based programme teachers are essential, as well as intellectual, attitudinal, and organisational changes on the part of the institution and teachers involved in content-based teaching.
4. Overuse of the students' native language, particularly in monolingual classes, is a potential danger.
5. Little material adapted to the students' level is available on the market.
6. Assessment is made more difficult, as both subject matter and language skills need to be taken into account.

In spite of these possible problems, all in all, content-based instruction is currently considered "one of the most promising present and future trends in language teaching and learning" (Madrid Fernández and García Sánchez, 2001: 129). As Richards and Rodgers (2001: 220) put it, "we can expect to see CBI continue as one of the leading curricular approaches in language teaching".

11. BILINGUAL PROGRAMMES

DISCUSSION 23

a) Discuss in groups if you think there is a cognitive advantage for bilinguals in the current school system. Give reasons.

b) Do you think any of the above methods would achieve to teach students to bilingual standards? Why?

11.1. Introduction

In previous sections we have reviewed the different teaching methods that, throughout the years, have been developed in order to teach a target language. All the approaches show the attempts of researchers and teachers to help students acquire target-like proficiency in a language different from their mother tongue. In a sense, their aim would be to help students become bilingual, even if their success has been doubtful. On the other hand, bilingual programs cater for different needs: they attempt to teach students who are in contact with two languages, because of their family, country of origin, etc. Before commenting on these educational programs and the change of teaching perspective they show, we need to define bilingualism.

According to Lam (2001:93), bilingualism "refers to the phenomenon of competence and communication in two languages". However, it is difficult to determine what constitutes *competence* in two or more languages. One argument that must be considered is the relationship between *meaning* and its *symbolic representation*. *Does the bilingual learn one set of meanings to which he/she attaches two linguistic representations or does he/she learn two complete languages, as if he/she was the sum of two monolinguals?* There is no clear answer, although translation arguments and imperfect projection phenomena such as ambiguity and synonyms constitute some of the criteria claimed *against* or *in favour* of considering the bilingual as an expert in two complete sets of systems and meanings. What seems clear nowadays is that the task of learning two linguistic systems gives them a neurological advantage in verbal aspects.

11.2. Towards a classification of bilingualism

But what is a bilingual? *Having competence in two languages* seems straightforward, but the problem is how to define and quantify what constitutes *competence in two languages*. We include several key characterizations.

According to a stricter definition, a bilingual is the individual with **complete** competence in both languages. If bilingualism is considered as a continuum of abilities, **equilibrated bilinguals** are those who have the same competence in both languages, whereas **dominant bilinguals** are more skilled in one of the two languages. According to their use, **coordinated bilinguals** can use both languages in the same situations, whereas **compound bilinguals** associate each language to a different context. Besides, there are **early** and **late** bilinguals, as a function of *when* they learn each language, and **simultaneous** and **consecutive bilinguals,** if both languages are acquired at the same time or one after another. Socio-cultural factors are also important: in the process of becoming a bilingual, the individual may develop negative attitudes towards his/her mother tongue, and become a **subtractive bilingual**. If those attitudes are positive, then he/she is considered an **additive bilingual**.

There are many factors affecting the process of becoming a bilingual, including the quality and quantity of the input received, the interactional style, the attitudes developed towards each language and the socio-cultural context. Besides, bilingualism is a phenomenon affected by linguistic and subject variables. Linguistic variables involve the level of concreteness in each language, how similar they are, that is to say, their linguistic neighborhood, and the degree of overlapping in form and/or meaning, including cognates and false friends. Subject variables are determined by the degree of competence in each language and by the dominant language of the individual.

In connection with research, the study of bilingualism is a relatively modern discipline that arose from post-colonial language policies among other factors (Lam, 2001). Several phenomena have started to be studied in detail, such as **code-switching**, **diglossia,** and, following L1 acquisition patterns, a **developmental sequence** for bilingual children. Code-switching involves the intentional or unintentional use of both linguistic codes at the same time.

> *Sabes, mi school bus no tiene un stop sign*
> *Hoy yo era line leader en mi escuela*
> *Ponemos cranberries y marshmallows y después se pone el glitter con glue*

Table 14: Switching Spanish and English codes: several examples. (Snow, 1999: 482)

Diglossia is a social phenomenon which entails, rather than *code*-switch, *language* switch. Each linguistic variety is always associated to a different domain in a society. For instance, one linguistic variety is used for administrative matters and the other one

in the street.

Bilingual developmental sequences study the stages children go through in their acquisition process. First, they use a single lexical system in which they include items from both languages. Then, they distinguish the words belonging to each variety, but use one single grammar. In a third stage, they differentiate lexicon and syntax, and last, they become aware of the two languages (de Vega and Cuetos, 1999).

If code-switching and diglossia are phenomena with important socio-cultural implications in a bilingual community, the study of childhood bilingual developmental sequences should encourage educational decisions concerning bilingual education models.

DISCUSSION 25
a) Define bilingualism.
b) Enumerate and explain the types of bilingualism there are.
c) What is *code-switching*? What differences there are in connection with *diglossia*?

11.3. Bilingual education models

To become a bilingual, the individual must acquire two languages and achieve an *adequate* degree of competence in each linguistic variety. Traditionally, bilinguals were only those individuals who had one or two parents speaking a language different from that of the community, or who lived or had moved to a country with a language different from his/her L1 and that of his/her parents. In order to provide for those communities with special language needs, several types of educational programs were developed hinging on two main issues: whether the non-dominant language should be used as a medium of instruction, and whether that language ought to be valued as a cultural asset worth acquiring for itself. Nunan and Lam (1998) provide four examples, although the reader may infer several other minor possibilities:

a. Submersion models, in which 'children' just enter into the current educational programs of the L2 country, without any kind of provision for their L1.
b. Transitional bilingualism, in which the L1 is temporarily used but not respected as a target language.
c. Heritage language programs, in which the L1 of immigrant learners is valued as a target language but not used for instruction.
d. The language exposure time model, in which the L1 is valued and used for some subjects.

Nowadays bilingualism is not only a phenomenon of certain countries or communities, but an educational aim in itself in many monolingual societies. In Spain, some bilingual regions have succeeded in developing educational programs that cater for both linguistic varieties, or even a third one, in the mode of the *language exposure time model:* they use the L2 completely or partly for L1 instruction. That is to say, they teach some –or all- content subjects using the target language, which is usually the mother tongue of the teacher and the L2 of the learner. The model entails high

economical and personal resources, because specialized bilingual or target language teachers are needed, and students may learn two languages at the cost of losing or trailing behind other essential instructional contents. However, many years of bilingual education in some bilingual countries and communities (i.e. see Canadian models) have proved highly successful.

Nonetheless, becoming bilingual in a monolingual community in which the L2 is not used at all is no easy feat. A program of this type should fulfill a number of conditions:

- Use the target language for part or the whole school syllabus, including the evaluation process
- Employ highly linguistically competent and specialized teachers
- Foster exchanges with the target language community
- Develop or maintain a positive attitude towards both the target language and the mother tongue
- Start early (although Muñoz et al. have shown conflictive results in Spain: starting early is no guarantee of success in FL contexts)

Probably, a long path remains still to be traversed to achieve bilingual education in monolingual communities.

DISCUSSION 26

a) Define a bilingual according to Lam (2001).
b) Identify the type of bilinguals there are and define them.
c) What phenomena has research into bilingualism studied? Can you describe each one?
d) Enumerate the criteria you think are essential to implement a successful bilingual classroom program in a monolingual community.

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12. SUMMARY

This fourth chapter has allowed us to review the methodological history of language teaching. It has shown teachers' reflections on how to improve FL teaching. The manner in which methods have evolved is the referential issue to search for and find more effective responses. The Grammar-translation method gave way to direct and oral methods. Both poles have proposed an eclectic solution based on the learners' needs, as the Reading method claimed. Technological and scientific advances in linguistic and psychological studies provided new tools and different criteria on content and techniques, with which the Audiolingual and Audiovisual methods have contributed. Anyway, the task was limited and more insights were necessary.

Cognitive Code Learning, as a reaction to Audiolingualism, started to recognize learning as a creative process, and looked for the universal features underlying all languages. This search for universal patterns led to the Second Language Acquisition tradition, in which L2 teaching imitated L1 learning modes. Parallel to these developments, humanistic/designer methods such as the Silent Way, Suggestoppedia and Community language learning, removed from psychological and linguistic frameworks, continued the search for the ideal teaching method. Their failure, together with the view of

language as a social process, led to Communicative Language Teaching, with its emphasis on meaning, fluency, and real-life communication, which then became the recognized approach to language teaching for several decades. This is the case until we enter the post-communicative period, when the theoretical and practical deficits of this approach are voiced and when a disciplined and cautious eclecticism is favoured. Pedagogical approaches to language teaching continue to proliferate in this era, the most notable of which we have examined:

1. The *Task-based Approach*, with its focus on *tasks* and its view of language and teaching as a process.
2. *The Lexical Approach*, with its emphasis on the lexical chunk, lexical phrase drills, the provision of input, or discovery-learning procedures.
3. *Neuro-linguistic Programming* and *Multintelligencia*, with their interest in appealing to all possible cueing systems involved in general and language learning.
4. *Cooperative learning*, which makes use of structured group work and stresses cooperation rather than competition.
5. *Content-based instruction*, where language acquisition is a by-product of subject matter learning. Such subject content is the main focus and the target language, the medium of instruction.

13. FURTHER READING

Brown, H. D. (1994). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
> This is an essential book for those readers who want to initiate the study of the different methods and their theoretical framework. Brown is able to give a very memorable and easily understood historical account of many methods, their reasons of appearance, origins, causes and features.

Sánchez, A. (1997). *Los métodos en la enseñanza de idiomas*. Madrid: SGEL.
> This is a very complete manual which provides an extensive list of methods, practically since the beginning of times. To facilitate its reading, the author also introduces charts that summarize the methods' features and help readers organize themselves.

Stern., H. H. (1983). *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
> A classic in obtaining a deeper insight into the methodological history of language teaching. Not only does it present a summarized and a more extended overview of the methods ranging from Grammar-Translation to Cognitive Thgeory, but it also approaches language learning and teaching from the linguistic, sociological, and psychological viewpoints. The final part is devoted to the break with the method concept.

Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
> A must for any method description. The updated second edition of this work offers a terminological introduction and an extremely complete and comprehensive characterization of the history of language teaching, with particular emphasis on the major trends in twentieth-century language teaching, alternative approaches and methods, and current communicative approaches,

all of which are likely to shape the teaching of languages over the course of the next decades.

14. TASKS FOR PAPERS

1. Take three or four different textbooks (preferably published in different decades and by different publishing houses) corresponding to a Secondary School grade of your choice. Identify the syllabus type(s) and language teaching method(s) they follow and comment critically on their assets and drawbacks. Which do you think is the most adequate for the teaching of English as a foreign language in the Secondary School classroom? Justify your answer.

2. Use the Internet and the reference books cited in this chapter to explore the situation of Communicative Language Teaching in Spain in greater depth. Is this method still in vogue in our country? Is EFL teaching in the Sapnish Secondary classroom truly grounded on its principles? Compare this situation with that of other European countries. Are they more up-to-date in language teaching? Do you think having a University entrance exam influences the teaching methods followed in those countries in which it is established? Why or why not?

3. Design a batch of five activities to work on each of the eight intelligences mentioned by Gardner (1983) in a Secondary School grade of your choice. Specify the procedure for and rationale behind their implementation and how they could be combined to cater for all possible learning styles in the classroom.

4. Draw up a poster in which all the possible similarities and interconnections among the methods and approaches to language teaching examined in this chapter are made explicit. Explain how you have grouped and related such methods and approaches to the class in a brief oral presentation with the help of the poster you have designed.

5. In pairs, choose a specific mathod or approach seen in this chapter and prepare a thirty minute class following its exact guidelines and principles. Teach it to your classmates. Then devote twenty minutes to commenting and reflecting on the experience with your classmates and your teacher. Was it successful? Did they enjoy learning English according to the specific method you chose? Would you teach following this approach? With what other methods or approaches would you combine it to optimise learning results?

6. Explore in greater depth, with the help of the Internet and the bibliography provided in the following section, the different possible varieties, methods, and techniques involved in cooperative learning. Write a paper with your results.

7. Research the differences between typical classroom groups and cooperative groups. Reflect your findings in poster and present them to the rest of the class, exemplifying them practically with an illustrative activity.

8. Study the implementation of task-based and content-based instruction in Spanish schools. In which contexts is it being applied? At what levels? What type of TB or CBI is it? Which principles does it follow? What are the results of the experience? If possible, interview teachers who are following this apporoach to language teaching in order to obtain first-hand information on the experince. Write a report with your findings.

9. List all the classroom procedures you would take from all the methods and explain your reasons. Do the same with the procedures you would not use. Finally, elaborate a chart with your view of how language learning and teaching should be.

10. Search the word *bilingual* in the Internet. Then make a chart in which you give a definition of bilingualism including its features and a classification. Look up reference books that give additional definitions of the term. Compare your results with those of your classmates.

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