A SUGGESTED TEXTBOOK FOR THE STUDENTS AND THE TEACHERS OF ELT DEPARTMENTS OF THE FACULTIES OF EDUCATION FOR APPROACHES IN ELT COURSE

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Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü'ne,

Bu çalışma, jürimiz tarafından Yabancı Diller Eğitimi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim dalında DOKTORA TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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ÖZET

Bu çalışma üniversitelerin Eğitim Fakültelerinin İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümlerinde okutulmakta olan Yabancı Dil Eğitimde Yaklaşımlar dersine yönelik bir ders kitabı özelliğindedir.

Çalışma, sonuç bölümü dışında yedi bölümden oluşmaktadır. Birinci bölüm giriş bölümü olup, bu çalışmaya temel teşkil eden problemi, tezin amacını, yöntemini ve sınırlarını içermektedir.

İkinci bölüm, tezin temel konusu olan yaklaşım, yöntem, ve teknik kavramlarını açıklamaya ve bunların arasındaki ilişkiye yöneliktir. Üçüncü bölüm, bu yaklaşımların tarihsel olarak ortaya çıkışlarına göre öncelikli olarak Davranışçı Yaklaşım'la (Behavioristic Approach) başlamakta ve bununla bağlantılı olarak Dinle-Konuş Yöntem (Audiolingual Method) ve Dinle-Gör Yöntem'i (Audiovisual Method) içermektedir. Daha sonra, Yapısal Yaklaşımlar (Structural Approaches) ve Sözel Yaklaşım (Oral Approach) inclenmekte ve her bir yaklaşım ve yöntem alıştırma ve etkinliklerle desteklenmektedir.

Dördüncü bölüm, Bilişsel-kod Yaklaşım (Cognitive-code Approach) ile Bilişsel Yaklaşım'ı (Cognitive Approach) içermektedir. Beşinci bölüm de, İnsancıl Yaklaşım (Humanistic Approach) açıklanmakta ve diğer bölümlerde olduğu gibi çeşitli alıştırma ve etkinliklerle desteklenmektedir.

Altıncı bölüm, İletişimsel Yaklaşım (Communicative Approach) ile İşlevsel-Kavramsal Yaklaşım (Functional-Notional Approach) ve Doğal Yaklaşım'dan (Natural Approach) oluşmaktadır.

Yedinci bölüm, yakın dönemlerde oratya çıkan Tüm Dilsel Yaklaşım (Whole Language Approach) ile Sözcüksel Yaklaşım'ı (Lexical Approach) içermektedir. Tüm bölümlerdeki yaklaşımlar, bir ders kitabı doğrultusunda çeşitli alıştırmalarla desteklenerek ,öğrencinin konuyu daha iyi bir şekilde anlayabileceği düzeye getirilmiştir.

ABSTRACT

This study is a suggested textbook for Approaches in ELT course, which has been taught at English Language Teaching Departments of the universities.

It includes seven chapters except the conclusion chapter. Chapter one is the Introduction part and includes the problem, aim, methods, and the limitation of this dissertation.

Chapter two is directed to the explanation and the relationship among some specific terms such as approach, method, and technique which constitute the base of this dissertation.

Chapter three starts with the Behavioristic Approach according to the chronological emergence of these approaches. Audiolingual Method, and the Audiovisual Method have also been handled in terms of their relation to the Behavioristic Approach. Later, Structural Approach and the Oral Approach have been handled and enriched by several exercises and activities.

Chapter four includes the Cognitive-code and the Cognitive Approach. In the fifth chapter, Humanistic Approach has been explained and supported by different activities and exercises.

Chapter six consists of the Communicative Approach, the Functional-Notional Approach, and the Natural Approach. Chapter seven includes the approaches such as the Whole language Approach and the Lexical Approach which emerged recent years. All approaches have been provided with examples and activities that will help learners understand the issue well.

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ÖNSÖZ

Eğitim Fakültelerinin İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümlerinde okutulmakta olan Yabancı Dil Eğitimde Yaklaşımlar dersi çoğu öğrenci açısından anlaşılması güç bir ders konumundadır. Bunun başlıca nedenlerinden biri, bu derse yönelik olarak sunulan ders kitap ve materyallerinin öğrencilerin beklentilerine cevap verecek düzeyde olmamasından kaynaklanmaktadır.

Bu kitaplar –*Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching, Diane Larsen-Freeman ve Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching, Jack Richards & Theodore S. Rodgers* – çoğunlukla teorik bilgi kapsadığından öğrenciler tarafından anlaşılması ve yorumlanması zor olmaktadır. Verilen bilgilerin uygulanmasına yönelik herhangi bir etkinlik ya da alıştırma çalışması olmaması, konunun anlaşılabilirliğini bir kat daha zorlaştırmakta ve bilgiler tamamen ezbere dayalı olarak kalmakta ve öğrenciler tarafından yaratıcı ve anlamlı bir öğrenim sağlanmasına olanak vermemektedir.

Tüm bu verilerden ve bu dersi vermekte olan bazı meslektaşlarımızın fikirlerinden yola çıkarak, *Yabancı Dil Öğretimde Yaklaşımlar* dersinde okutulmak üzere, teorik bilgilerin yanısıra daha çok uygulama etkinliklerine yönelik bir ders kitabı önerisi hazırlamayı uygun bulduk. Bu çalışmada yer alan tüm yaklaşımlar, yukarıda değindiğimiz veriler doğrultusunda, öğrencilerin konuyu daha iyi anlayabilmesine yardımcı olacağına inandığımız çalışma etkinlikleri ve alıştırmalarla da desteklenmiştir.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Learning a language means learning effective and acceptable language behavior in real life situations, in an unfamiliar culture; therefore, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 128-130) state that language learning does not take place in a vacuum. That is to say foreign language learners not only have knowledge of how their mother tongue works, but they also have knowledge of how the world works. Therefore, this assumption indicates that learning a foreign language is tightly bound up with nationality, religion, and culture of both the target community of the learner and the native community as well. Therefore, learning a language means to learn different cultures, to understand the way of thinking of people, to be aware of how people from different countries and cultures interpret the world, etc. In this respect, it can be said that language learning, on the one side, requires to the use of some materials such as course books, supplementary materials, and supporting materials. Of these, of course, course books are the most important materials to support language learning and teaching since we can easily get necessary knowledge about the target communities.

In the light of the ideas given above, it can be said that language teaching and learning is not an easy process because, first, as it has been stated by Pakkan (1997) teachers of English have to be aware of the variety of topics ranging from theoretical information to areas that are more practical. They should be aware of the methods, techniques and approaches to be used in the classrooms in the field of language teaching. There is another important phase, yet somewhat and sometimes neglected by the teachers, is to decide on a suitable and carefully designed course book or teaching material. That is to say, selecting a

course book and using it effectively in accordance with the needs and the expectations of the learners may not be easy.

It has been known that Turkish Higher Educational Board (YÖK) had made a prominent change between 1997 and 1998. According to this reconstruction provided by the Turkish Higher Educational Board (YÖK), a new four-year program was put into forward. Most of the courses in ELT departments depend on the application of the teaching process according to this new curriculum. One of these courses *Approaches in ELT*, which constitutes our main concern for this dissertation. The course description of this lesson prepared by YÖK is as follows:

> "Investigation of approaches, methods, and techniques in English Language Teaching in terms of their historical backgrounds; investigation of some basic approaches and methods such as Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, Audiolingual Method, Communicative Approach and the presentation of application samples."
>
> *(İngilizce Öğretimde yaklaşım,yöntem ve tekniklerin tarihsel açıdan incelenmesi, Dilbilgisi Çeviri, Doğrudan Anlatım, Dinle-Konuş yöntemler , İletişimsel Yaklaşım, Doğal Yaklaşım gibi temel yaklaşım, yöntem ve tekniklerin incelenmesi ve uygulama örneklerinin sunulması)*

That is to say, under the title of the reconstructionism provided by YÖK, this course requires the importance of teaching and learning of the target language in terms of approaches and methods because to teach a language, especially a foreign language, requires the use of the necessary approaches and methods in this process. That is to say, successful language teaching should be based upon the use of any of these methods

and approaches and they also should be supported by a well-designed textbook.

1.1. PROBLEM

It has been known that 55 universities in Turkey have Faculty of Education and many of them have ELT departments. The general aim of these departments is to train the prospective teachers of English of the future in a four-year program To be successful in this process, first of all, needs, aims, goals and the objectives of the learners need to be determined because the items mentioned differ in many ways and they make the application compulsory. Then according to the expectations of the students, there should be a study on the curriculum design to continue the language teaching process effectively.

According to the new curriculum constructed by Turkish Higher Educational Board (YÖK), there has been a requirement for a new course book. That is to say, an immense need of material has arisen both for the students and the teachers. Although there are some books on *Approaches in ELT* on the market, no single one is suitable for ELT students as a full-coverage textbook. For example, it has been known that the books- *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching by Richards and Rogers* and *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching by Larsen-Freeman*- have been used in several ELT departments are not satisfactory and cannot help students achieve success in Approaches in ELT course since the books mentioned above do not include necessary specified exercises, activities, general principles about the approaches and their related methods, their weak and strong points. So, this inadequateness creates the main problem of this dissertation depending upon the secondary problems mentioned below:

1- the book, "*Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching by Larsen-Freeman*", which has still been used in ELT departments do not answer the expectations of the teachers and the learners because according to the new course description of this lesson prepared by YÖK, the text book of this lesson should include the investigation of approaches, methods, and techniques in English Language Teaching in terms of their "historical backgrounds".

2- course outline of this lesson needs being reviewed and revised. All approaches should be given in a chronological order paying attention to their emergence dates. Methods related to these approaches should also be given while each approach has been handled.

In sum, the main problem handled in this study, depending upon the explanations given above, is to prepare a suggested textbook for the course designed by YÖK as *Approaches in ELT* in accordance with the new curriculum plan constructed by the Turkish Higher Educational Board, YÖK. Then, this is a course designed for English Language Education departments in the Faculty of Education in Turkey to teach students the methods, techniques and the approaches in the field of language teaching and learning. It also aims at the application of these issues by means of exercises and activities. Inadequate course and text books may cause the learners become demotivated and passive in the courses.

1.2. AIM AND SCOPE

This dissertation aims at preparing an alternative and suggested textbook, including both theoretical knowledge and practical exercises and activities to enable students digest the knowledge they cover, for the course which has been taught at the second semester of the second classes in ELT departments. As it is known, at most of the ELT

departments *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching by Richards and Rogers* and *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching by Larsen-Freeman* have been used as a course book. When these books are examined, it is seen that they are not sufficient enough to answer neither the expectations nor aims of the course nor the needs of the learners. One of the most important needs of the learners is exercises or study activities which will be related to the subject matter of the courses. Needless to say, after designing the syllabus in accordance with the needs of the learners, the second step has to be the selection of the course material. This may be done by:

a) selecting the material among the variety of materials on the book markets,
b) making the necessary changes in the material according to the needs of the learners,
c) developing our own material(s).

In sum, in the light of the explanations mentioned above the most common approaches have been taken into our research and studied in details being fortified with several exercises and activities. In addition, the following category has also been added to our study in order to indicate the distribution table of these approaches to the years and eras.

1- Pre-scientific Era (1900– 1930)
    a- Grammar Translation Method
2- Scientific Era (1930 –1950)
    a- Behavioristic Approach
    a- Audiolingual method
    b- Audiovisual method
    c- Oral Approach
3- Modern Era (1950 – 1970)
    a- Cognitive-Code Approach

b- Cognitive Approach

c- Humanistic Approach

4- Communicative Era (1970 –1980)

a- Communicative Approach

b- Functional-Notional Approach

c- Natural Approach

5- Post-method Era (1980-2000)

a- Whole (Integrated) Approach

b- Lexical Approach

(Mossallanejad, 1999: 71-72)

In the Pre-scientific era, there are no approaches, but methods such as Grammar Translation Method. Scientific era includes some methods mainly. In the beginning of the Modern era, the emergence of Cognitive-Code and Cognitive Approaches has been seen. Later, in the Communicative era, the most common approaches are Communicative Approach, Functional-Notional Approach, and Natural Approach. These were followed by Post-methodic era, which included the Eclectic methods and approaches such as Whole Language Approach and Lexical Approach mainly.

As for the scope of this dissertation it can be said that the study is based on a kind of textbook writing style in that each approach is taken into consideration in terms of their birth, development, principles, weak and strong sides, contributions to the ELT, related methods, and specified exercises and activities like suggested by the new curriculum constructed by the Higher Educational Board after 1997.

1.3. METHOD

In this study, first, informal interviews have been held with colleagues and teachers giving this course and students taking this course

in ELT departments. Then, the literature was surveyed by libraries, books, articles, and internet.

1.4. HYPOTHESIS

In our study, since our main concern is to prepare a well-designed textbook for language teachers for the *Approaches in ELT* course, we will handle the language teaching approaches from 1900 to 2000 in details. We believe that students can learn better and effectively this course if the textbooks are supported by exercises and activities besides the theoretical knowledge. As well as having a theoretical knowledge, the skill of how to implement this knowledge is also important. For that reason, we suggest that exercises and activities should help learners improve their conscious and meaningful learning.

1.5. LIMITATIONS

Our study is limited with the language teaching approaches, which had been used and have been currently used in the field of ELT. As for the limitations of this study, there seems to be one of the most important issues, which cannot be ignored in the sense that almost some of the approaches facilitate only one or a couple of skills in the language teaching process. Since, as foreign language teachers, we know that four main language skills should be developed, the main focus of this study is on the approaches which are known to facilitate these language skills. Therefore, this study is limited to the approaches, which are considered applicable in four basic skills. Therefore, we will limit our study only to the analysis of Whole (Integrated) Language Approach and Lexical Approach.

CHAPTER 2

Approaches, Methods, and Techniques in ELT

This chapter of our dissertation is mainly related to the definitions of the terms which are mainly used in the language teaching/learning field and are also confused by the learners. Therefore, it is believed that if necessary information is given about these terms such as approach, method, technique and strategy, it will be useful. However, before specifying the meanings, explanations, and implication fields of these terms, it is highly recommend that to begin with what causes an approach.

2.1. What Makes an Approach?

Since in this dissertation the language teaching approaches in ELT will be dealt with, it can be found that it will be logical and useful to identify what an approach means. Needless to say, there have been lots of approaches in the field of language teaching and learning. The number of these approaches has been increasing day by day because of new discoveries in the related areas. For that reason, it has been decided to handle the most important and the useful ones into this dissertation. Here, first, what an approach is and what makes an approach different from method, theory and strategy will be tried to be explained.

Approach is a set of assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning; it is ***axiomatic*** . It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught. According to Anthony and Norris (1969) an approach reflects beliefs about the nature of language and assumptions, theories, concepts drawn from changing findings of disciplines and the profession of education. Brown (2000:16) states that approach is theoretically well-informed positions and beliefs about the nature of language learning and the

applicability of both to pedagogical setting. That is to say an approach refers to the general theories related to language teaching and learning.

As mentioned above there are lots of approaches in field of language teaching and learning. For that reasons, scholars and linguists put these approaches mainly into 6 different categories such as *Behavioral (Behaviorist) Approaches, Functional Approaches , Cognitive Approaches, Linguistic Approaches, Humanistic Approaches,* and *Structural Approaches.* Here, some distinguishing features of these approaches in terms of their distinguishing features will be handled and how these views had affected the emergence of the language teaching approaches will be explained.

2.2. Difference between Approach, Method and Technique

About four decades ago, Edward Anthony (1969-1970) gave us a definition that method was the second of three hierarchical elements namely approach, method, and technique. He studied approach under three headlines: Language, Language theory and Philosophy. An approach, according to Anthony, was a set of assumptions dealing with the nature of language, learning, and teaching. He also adds that an approach reflects beliefs about the nature of language and assumptions, theories, concepts drawn from changing findings of disciplines and the profession of education. On the one hand, method was described as an overall plan for the orderly systematic presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based on a selected approach. Techniques were the specific activities manifested in the classroom that were consisted with a method and therefore were in harmony with an approach as well. Therefore, we can claim that they are classroom strategies, implications, applications which guide the students in the direction of the teacher wants. For example, Humanistic Approach depends upon the Humanistic Theory and it puts forward methods such as Silent Way, Community Language Learning, TPR, Suggestopedia, and Total Physical Response.

When we say method, which is the second level, we mean a language teaching philosophy, which consists of a set of processes or rules for language teaching that depends on a given set of assumptions. Brown (2000: 14) states that a teacher may, for example, at the approach level affirm the ultimate importance of learning in a relaxed state of mental awareness just above the threshold of consciousness. The method that follows might resemble, say Suggestopedia. Techniques could include playing a classical music while reading a passage in the foreign language, getting students to sit in the yoga position while listening to a list of words, or having learners adopt a new name in the classroom and role-play that new person. Richards and Rogers (1986: 14-17) proposed a reformulation of the concept of method. Antony's approach, method, and technique were renamed respectively *approach, design and procedure*. An approach defines assumptions, beliefs, and theories about the nature of language and language learning. It is the first level and operates as axiomatic constructs or reference points and provides a theoretical foundation for what language teacher ultimately do with learners in classrooms. A method, the second level, according to Richards and Rogers, is an "umbrella term for the specification and interrelation of theory and practice". Design specifies the relationship of those theories to classroom materials and activities. The third level, technique, includes the classroom procedures and applications that are the products of particular approaches and methods.

On the one hand, in his book Teaching *by Principles*, Brown (2000:16) indicates that method is a generalized set of classroom specifications for accomplishing linguistic objectives. Methods tend to be concerned primarily with teacher and a student roles and behaviors and secondarily with such features as linguistic and subject-matter objectives, sequencing, and materials. They are usually thought of as being broadly applicable to a variety of audiences in a variety of contexts. He also states that technique is any of a wide variety of exercises, activities, or tasks used in the language classroom for realizing lesson objectives.

That is to say, an approach comprises not only the thesis of language but also language learning. All of the language teaching methods perform definitely from a theory of language or assumptions about how language is learned. Theories at the approach level are directly related with the method level because they constitute the basis for specifying the objectives and content of a language syllabus. They are also connected with the procedure (technique) level because they constitute the linguistic and psycholinguistic rationale for determining the particular teaching techniques and activities. In short, an approach is general (e.g. cognitive, functional, communicative etc.); a method is a set of procedures more or less compatible with an approach (e.g. Silent Way); and technique is a very specific type of learning activity used in one or more methods (e.g. using rods, color charts, and facilitate language practice). Approach, moreover, means a broad philosophy or theory of language acquisition, which underlies the choice of activities and techniques to be used, and influences the way they are put together to form a lesson.

In sum, an approach to language teaching is something that reflects a certain model or research paradigm, a theory if you like (Celce-Murcia, 1991:5). This term is the broadest of the three. A method, on the other hand, is a set of procedures, e.g. a system that spells out rather precisely how to teach a language. Methods are more specific than approaches but less specific than techniques. Methods are typically compatible with one or two approaches. A technique is a classroom device or activity and thus represents the narrowest term of the three concepts. So, it can be said that each approach puts forward theories. Then, these theories are tested by the help of methods. Methods are tested by techniques. Results go back to the theory of the approach; its shortcomings are examined and formatted, then general knowledge turns back to approach. So, as Richards & Rodgers (2001:15) state that approaches and methods have the following assumptions:

1- An approach or method refers to a theoretically consistent set of teaching procedures that define best practice in language teaching.
2- Particular approaches and methods, if followed precisely, will lead to more effective levels of language learning than alternative ways of teaching.
3- The quality of language teaching will improve if teachers use the best available approaches and methods.

Consequently, as mentioned above these three concepts – approach, method, and technique – take important role in the language teaching field. Since our dissertation is mainly related to the language teaching approaches, this subject will be studied in details in the following chapters. According to the terms, explanations, and ideas discussed above it is understood that an approach is a kind of notion, which does not need proofing. It is based on strong theories and philosophies and supports the four main language teaching / learning skills. In order to apply the teaching / learning hints of any kind of approach, we need a method. Since methods are not supported by any theory, they do not have any theoretical truths, but it should be borne in mind those methods, of course, the only way of putting forward the theoretical applications of the approaches. In doing this, teachers need some techniques as well. For example, every method should be supported by some kinds of techniques. That is, in order to teach language by means of any kind of method, teachers should use some techniques such as using color rods, wall charts, repetition, memorization, imitation, etc.

In the following chapters, Behavioristic Approaches, Structural Approaches, Cognitive Approaches, Humanistic Approaches, Communicative Approaches, Functional-Notional Approaches, Natural Approaches, Whole Language Approach, and Lexical Approach - in the language teaching / learning field will be handled in details and in a chronological order. All these approaches will be enriched with exercises and study activities.

CHAPTER 3

Behavioristic and Structural Approaches Between 1930-1950

This chapter mainly consists of the studies of Behavioristic and Structural Approaches emerged during 1930 and 1950. This period is generally accepted as the *"Scientific Era"* in the language teaching and learning field. The most prominent examples of these approaches, depending upon both the Behavioristic and Structural views, are the Oral (Situational) Approach and the Behavioristic Approach. For that reason, these approaches and the offspring methods of the Behavioristic approach (Audiolingual and Audiovisual methods) will be handled in this chapter in terms of their coming into being to the field of language teaching and learning. The main principles, ideas, elements, and underlying philosophies and theories of these approaches will be given, and then they will be examined in details. First, some general knowledge will be given about what Behavioristic Approaches and then the Oral (Situational) Approach will be discussed, examined, and exemplified with exercises and activities in details.

3.1.Behavioristic Theory and Behaviorism

Behaviorist theory, which is fundamentally a psychological theory, has been founded by J.B. Watson in 1920. He argued that a kind of manifesto called psychology as the behaviorist view. Before 1960s the study of child language was dominated mainly by the behaviorist approach to language and learning. The best known proponent of this approach was B.F. Skinner. Behaviorism, which is actually a theory of native language learning, developed as a reaction to traditional grammar. Bloomfield, Mowrer, Skinner, and Stoats were the supporters of this theory. Behaviorism was strongly influenced by Structuralism in linguistics and had put forward mainly two basic methods, such as Audiolingual Method and Audiovisual Method, which will be handled in this chapter. Behaviorism is generally divided into two main

categories: Classical Behaviorism and Neo-behaviorism. Here, these two different categories of the Behaviorist theory will be handled and examined before stating the principles of the Behavioristic Approach.

3.1.1. Classical Behaviorism

Drawing on Pavlov's findings, J.B. Watson (1913) coined the term Behaviorism. In the empirical tradition of John Locke, Watson contended that human behavior should be studied objectively, rejecting mentalistic notions of innateness and instinct. Taking an environmentalist position, following Pavlov, he adopted classical conditioning theory as the explanation for all learning: by the process of conditioning we build an array of stimulus-response connections and more complex behaviors are learned by building up series of responses. Watson's emphasis on the study of overt behavior and his rigorous adherence to the scientific method had a tremendous influence on learning theories for decades.

Behaviorist psychologists attributed two important characteristics to habits. The first was that they were observable; Watson denied the existence of internal mental processes, dismissing them as superstition and magic. The second noteworthy characteristic was that habits were automatic. That is, they were performed spontaneously without awareness and were difficult to eradicate unless environmental changes led to the extinction of the stimuli upon which they were built. The learning of a habit could occur through *imitation* (e.g. the learner copies the stimulus behavior sufficiently often for it to become automatic) or through *reinforcement* (e.g. the response of the learner is rewarded or punished depending on whether it is appropriate or otherwise until only appropriate responses are given). According to the Behaviorist learning theory, old habits get in the way of learning new habits. Where SLA is concerned, therefore, "the grammatical apparatus programmed into the mind as the first language interferes with the smooth acquisition of the second"(Bright & McGregor,1981:237). The notion of interference has a central place in behaviorist accounts of SLA.

Behaviorist learning theory, on the one hand, predicts that *transfer* will take place from the first to the second language. Transfer will be negative when there is proactive inhibition. In this case errors will result. Transfer will be positive when the first and second language habits are the same. In that case, errors will not occur. In Behaviorist accounts of SLA, errors were considered undesirable. They were evidence of non-learning of the failure to overcome proactive inhibition. Some language teaching theorists even suggested that there were *danger of errors* becoming habits in their own right if they were tolerated (Ellis, 1985:20-22)

Behaviorists assume that throughout development, children's caretakers train children to perform verbal behaviors, namely caretaker speech which includes shorter statements, simple patterns, repetitions, and good pronunciation (Bohannon, 1997: 265) They assume that the course of language development is largely determined by the course of training, not maturation. That is to say, behaviorists focus on learning principles. Language development is viewed to be a problem of linking various stimuli in the environment to internal responses and these internal responses to unearth verbal behavior. Language development is considered as a progression from random verbalizations to mature communication through the application of classical and operant conditioning. Behavioral Approaches have believed that their original promise of prediction and control of language behavior.

3.1.2. Neo-Behaviorism

One of the best known attempts to construct a behavioristic model of linguistic behavior is embodied in Skinner's classic book, *Verbal Behavior* . B.F. Skinner, among all of the other behaviorists, is the most distinguished figure, who served and contributed to language learning as a Neo-behaviorist. In 1938, he established himself as one of the leading behaviorists in America by publishing his *Behavior of Organisms*. He was, therefore, called a Neo-behaviorist because he added a unique dimension to

behaviorist psychology. The classical conditioning of Pavlov was, according to Skinner, a highly specialized form of learning utilized mainly by animals and playing little part in human conditioning. Rejecting *mentalistic* or *cognitive* explanations of behavior, or explanations attributing behavior causation to *inner psychic* forces of any kind, Skinner argues that we understand a piece of behavior only when we have learned how to predict and control that behavior. He claims that mentalistic explanations can be questionable because they do not tell us how to manipulate variables so as to control the behavior.

His theory of verbal behavior was an extension of his general theory of learning by *operant conditioning.* Operant conditioning refers to conditioning in which the organism emits a response or operant (a sentence or utterance), without necessarily observable stimuli, that operant is maintained by reinforcement. He proposed that two classes of response be distinguished: a class of elicited responses and a class of emitted responses. responses elicited by known stimuli are *respondents* and responses which need not be correlated with any known stimuli are *responses.* Operant behavior is not elicited by recognized stimuli, its strength is the rate of response. Operants are classes of responses such as crying, laughing, standing up, or sitting down. There are, of course, other influences affecting operant strength. These are *drive, emotion*, and *punishment.* According to Skinner, verbal behavior, like other type of behavior is controlled by its consequences. When consequences are rewarding, behavior is maintained and is increased in strength and frequency. When consequences, on the other hand, are punishing, or when there is a lack of reinforcement entirely, the behavior is weakened and extinguished.

Although theories of Skinner-as a Neo-Behaviorist-attracted a number of critics, today few linguists and psychologists would agree that Skinner's model of verbal behavior adequately accounts for the capacity to acquire language, for language development itself, for the abstract nature of

language, and for a theory of meaning. Because for a theory based on conditioning and reinforcement is difficult to explain the fact that every sentence a person speaks and writes is novel, never before uttered by either that person or anybody else. These novel utterances are nevertheless created by the speaker and processed by the hearer. Together with Skinner, the Neo-behaviorists, for example, Woodworth, Osgood, and others are more prepared to take internal processes into account but attempt to describe them as far as possible in behavioral terms (Stern, 1991:305). But it was Skinner's general view of learning that exercised a profound influence on educators.

That is to say, Behaviorists assume that throughout development, children's caretakers train children to perform verbal behaviors, namely caretaker speech which includes shorter statements, simple patterns, repetitions, and good pronunciation (Bohannon, 1997: 265). They assume that the course of language development is largely determined by the course of training, not maturation. That is to say, behaviorists focus on learning principles. Language development is viewed to be a problem of linking various stimuli in the environment to internal responses and these internal responses to unearth verbal behavior. Language development is considered as a progression from random verbalizations to mature communication through the application of classical and operant conditioning. Behavioral Approaches have believed that their original promise of prediction and control of language behavior.

3.2. BEHAVIORISTIC APPROACH IN ELT

This approach is the combination of language theory (Structuralism) and learning theory (Behaviorism). Before 1960s the study of child language was dominated The Behavioristic Approach focuses on the immediately perceptible aspects of linguistic behavior -- the publicly observable responses -- and the relationships or associations between those responses and events

in the world surrounding them (Brown , 1994 : 22) A behaviorist might consider effective language behavior to be the production of correct responses to stimuli. Behaviorists also focus on learning because they regard language as a skill, not essentially different from any other behavior. They also emphasize *performance* over *competence*.

It can be said that according the behaviorist theory, the notion of repetition is extremely important as the more a word is uttered, the better it is learned. The learning process is the making of the response. If there is no reinforcement, the learning is extinguished. Therefore, Behaviorist approaches mainly depend upon spoken form of the language. Greater salience is given to speaking than writing or reading. Language is primarily spoken and we learn to speak before we learn to read and write. Writing is not a necessary stage in the developmental process of human beings and it is still absent from the behavior of many human beings.

3.2.1. Principles and Theory of Language Learning

Here are some basic principles of Behaviorism taken from Demirezen, 1988:135-140.

1- Behaviorist theory dwells on spoken form of the language. Primary medium of language is oral because we learn to speak before we learn to read and write.

2- This is a habit formation theory of language teaching and learning, reminding us the learning of structural grammar. In other words, language learning is a mechanical process leading the learners to habit formation whose underlying scheme is the conditioned reflex. Thus it is definitely true that language is controlled by the consequences of behavior.

3- The stimulus-response chain (S→ R) is a pure case of conditioning. This means that clauses and sentences are learned linearly as longer and longer

stimulus-response chains, produced in a left-to-right series of sequence like $S_1 \rightarrow S_2 \rightarrow S_3 \rightarrow S_4$ ..... Each stimuli is thus the caser of a response and each response becomes the initiator of a stimulus and this process goes on and on in this way.

4- All learning is the establishment of habits as the result of reinforcement and reward. Positive reinforcement is reward while negative reinforcement is punishment. In a stimulus situation, a response is exerted and if the response is positively augmented by a reward, then the association between the stimulus and response is itself reinforced and thus the response will very likely be manipulated by every appearance of stimulus.

5- The learning, due to its socially-conditioned nature, can be the same for each individual. In other words, each person can learn equally well if the conditions in which the learning takes place are the same for each person.

3.2.2. Syllabus

The syllabus of this approach is grammatical (structural) syllabus. It is selected and designed according to grammatical notions of simplicity and complexity. Language consists of a finite set of rules which can be combined in various ways to make meaning. So, in this approach sentences patterns are often used as the unit of analysis.

3.2.3. Strong Sides

Behaviorist Approach has some limited strong points. For example,

1- One of the most effective sides of this approach is its depending on the spoken form of the language because language is primarily what is spoken and secondarily what is written.

2- This approach can be useful and enjoyable for the young learners since it aims at imitative and repetitive teaching and learning. Activities depending upon the imitation and repetition may be encouraging for beginners.

3.2.4. Weak Sides

Needless to say, each theory or approach may not be a complete model for the language teaching and learning. For that reason, each of them has some shortcomings as well as their strong points. Here are some weak points of the Behaviorist Approach.

1- Basic strategies of this approach are imitation, reinforcement, and rewarding. However, researchers have demonstrated that children's imitation of structures show evidence of almost no innovation; furthermore, children vary considerable in the amount that they imitate. Children do not imitate words, phrases, clauses and sentences at the same rate. For this reason, they will learn at different rates.

2- The process of learning relies on generalization, rewarding, and conditioning, three of which support the development of analogical learning in children It can be argued that a process of learning or teaching which encourages the learner to construct phrases, clauses and sentence modeled on previously settled set of rules and drills are thought to obstruct the instinctive production of language. Then, habit formation exercises may not naturally promote intrinsically-oriented language learning (Demirezen, 1988:138)

3- In language learning there is a threshold level that means that learners must learn consciously supported by repetition and drilling to build up an effective intuition, acquisition of which marks the establishment of threshold level. Before obtaining the threshold level, the language learning is not creative. It is obvious that the intrinsic learning will be delayed owing to the late acquisition of threshold level because of previously settled set of rules and drills.

4- Each person cannot learn equally well in the same conditions in which learning takes place because different background and the experience of the learners make everybody learn differently.

5- The main strategies of this approach can only be true for the early stages of learning which takes place when the kids are in infancy and in early childhood periods.

6- The rate of social influence on learning is not satisfactorily explained.

7- Many of the learning processes are mostly too complex and for this reason there are intervening variables which cannot be observed between stimulus and response. That is why language acquisition cannot take place through habit formation.

3.2.5. Contributions to ELT

Following Skinner's model, it is believed that any subject matter can be taught effectively by a carefully designed program of step-by-step reinforcement. Brown (1993:78) said that programmed instruction had its impact on foreign language teaching, though language is such complex behavior, penetrating so deeply into both cognitive and effective domains of persons that programmed instruction in languages was limited to very specialized subsets of language.

A Skinnerian view of both language and language learning was dominant over foreign language teaching methodology for several decades, leading to a heavy reliance in the classroom on the controlled practice of verbal operants under carefully designed schedules of reinforcement. Starting from this view, the Audiolingual teaching came to the scene as an offspring of Behaviorism influenced by Structuralism in linguistics and it held sway in America in 1960s. Meanwhile, starting from 1950s, British methodologists gave rise to the Oral Approach (Situational Language Teaching) proposed by Pittman, Hornby, and Frisby, and it prevailed in both Europa and Australia.

Another contribution of Behaviorism is the ascension of the contrastive analysis hypothesis. In Behavioristic view, it is accepted that the properties of

the L_1 are thought to exercise an influence on the course of L_2 learning. Learners transfer sounds, structures and usages from one language to the other. These transfers may be distinguished two kinds: positive transfer, caused by the similarities between the two languages, proves acceptable to use the L_1 habits in the L_2 setting; negative transfer, caused by differences and generally known as interference, is the errors in the L_2 which are caused by L_1 habits. Problems of negative transfer are thought to provide a major source of foreign language learning difficulty, thus Behaviorism has often been linked to the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis.

There are also some different contributions of the system such as theory of instruction-instructional programming-which was embodied in curriculum theory, a discipline within the study of education that seeks to organize the materials of instruction in some orderly manner for effective teaching and learning. Material development attained importance by this system for the first time. Programming Teacher Training is the other side of this contribution because teachers of this system should be perfect, native like models, especially in Audiolingualism.

3.2.6. Related Methods

Most common methods related to this approach are Audiolingual and Audiovisual methods. Behaviorism had exerted a great impact by influencing many teaching methods on the area of language teaching, for example, Audiolingual Method and Audiovisual Method. Of these, Audiolingual Method, which reflects the basic features of behavioristic theory of learning a language, applied the mimicry drills and pattern practices basis of which derived from habit-formation by reinforcement of repetition. The style reminds us that language is in part physical behavior and the total language teaching operation must take this into account. Another contribution of the Audiolingual Method is language laboratory establishment. After World War II, the military training emphasized the spoken language and language laboratory was rapidly adopted. A language laboratory is simply a class of

devices which allow speech, recorded on electromagnetic tape, to be used in instruction. It permits the student to imitate what is heard and then to listen to his own production or to have the teacher monitor what he has said. Some of the exercises provided by this method are built-up drills, chain drills, single-slot substitution drills, multiple-slot substitution drills, transformation drills, the use of minimal pairs, dialogs, and some grammar games.

On the other hand, the Audiovisual method is used to teach structures through repetitive drills. Language skills should be studied respectively; listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Pre-reading stage is more emphasized than other stages to prepare the learners to the topic under discussion. Pronunciation with special attention to intonation patterns is studied. Tapes, language labs and other visual aids are used extensively. These methods will be handled in the following sections in details.

3.2.7. Discussion Questions for Students

1- Discuss the importance of imitation and repetition in language teaching in terms of Behaviorism.
2- What are the main differences of Neo-behaviorism from the Classical Behaviorism?
3- Why is this approach more suitable for young learners?
4- State some basic contributions of Behaviorism to ELT.

3.2.8. Basic Techniques and Exercise / Activity Types Related

Here some types of exercises and activities have been given in the light of the principles of the Behaviorism and its related methods.

3.2.8.1. Single-slot Substitution Drill

This is one of the most generative types of mechanical drills. It is one of the best habit-formation drills which stimulate many different involuntary or voluntary responses. Here is an example:

Instruction: Each time you will be given different subjects. You will use them with a suitable verb. First listen to the example:

T: *I am going to listen to music.*

T: *She*

T: *She is going to listen to music. Now, you do the same.*

T: *He*

S: .....

T: *We*

S: .....

T: *You*

S: .....

3.2.8.2. Multiple-slot Substitution Drill

These types of drills are difficult and challenging because they require quickness of apprehension, immediate response, and different adjustment in the structure of the sentence produced. Here is an example:

Instruction: This time you will be given two different words at a time. You will insert them into suitable blanks. First listen to the example:

T: The thing I don't like about **driving** is all the **traffic on the road**.

T: *flying – other planes in the air*

T: The thing I don't like about **flying** is all the **other planes in the air**.

Now, you do the same.

T: *walking – exercise you get*

S: .....

T: *photography – expense*

S: .....

T: *swimming – other swimmers in the pool*

S: .....

3.2.8.3. Repetition Drill

The goal of this drill is to get the students to manipulate a problem or a linguistic point they have already been introduced. In this drill, learners are supposed to repeat whatever pattern or item the teacher models for them. So, this drill has functionally been termed as *mim-mem* or *imitation* drill. Here is an example:

T: Repeat the sentences after me.

1- Mary does not cut the cake today / Mary did not cut the cake yesterday.

2- Susan does not make the breakfast this morning / Susan did not make the breakfast yesterday morning.

3- We don't spend our time in the park today / We didn't spend our time in the park yesterday.

4- I don't lend John this book today / I didn't lend John this book yesterday.

3.2.8.4. Transformation Drill

This drill is mainly used to teach a change in the structural or functional forms of grammatical categories or sentence-patterns. It carries out three stages: recognition, manipulation, and production. Here is the example:

T: Listen to the sentences carefully (Books are closed).
to walk in the park is pleasant. It is pleasant to walk in the park.
T: Now, repeat the sentences after me. *To walk in the park is pleasant*
S: .....
T: It is pleasant to walk in the park.
S: .....
T: Now, I say the first type and you say the second type. *To walk in the park is pleasant.*
S: It is pleasant to walk in the park.

Here are some more sample sentences:

1- *to drive Martin's car is not safe.*
2- *to watch cats is interesting.*
3- *to drive big cars is expensive.*
4- *to get up early is healthy.*

3.2.8.5. Completion Drill

In this drill a base form of lexical or grammatical words is given in the parentheses and the proper form of it is asked to be used in the blank provided in the sentence. For example, teacher writes the basic forms of the words on the board with the number of each relevant sentence. Then, s/he gives the instruction, "Please, say the proper form of the words on the board to fill in the blank." Then, she reads the sentences written on a card which s/he has in her/his hands and signals the blank with three strokes on the table.

1- (answer)	4- (build)	7- (take)
2- (close)	5- (kill)	8- (wash)
3- (buy)	6- (type)	9- (clean)

1- Sandra ..... all the questions easily yesterday.
2- The windows ..... on Friday.
3- She ..... the tickets next Monday.
4- The sick man ..... to the hospital soon.
5- This house ..... many years ago.
6- Two men ..... In the accident.
7- All these letters ..... yesterday.
8- The rooms ..... tomorrow morning.
9- We ..... the windows tonight.

3.2.8.6. Combining the Sentences

Instruction: Combine the following statements in each group as directed. (From Let's Write English, 1968: 298)

1- *Clarence Day tells about taking music lessons. He is the author of "Life with Feather " (Appositive)*
2- *Father decided his sons should be taught music. He hired a teacher for the purpose (Compound predicate)*
3- *It made no difference to Father that Clarence had no talent in music. The boy was not interested in music. He had no ambition in it (Series of words used as direct objects)*
4- *The lessons were torture to the teacher. Clarence suffered. They were painful to Mother (Series of phrases)*
5- *Exaggeration makes the episode one of the funniest in the book. The author uses exaggeration throughout (Adjective Clause)*

3.2.8.7. Writing Activity-1

Instruction: Rewrite one of the following paragraphs changing the time to past tense. You will find that merely changing the verbs to past tense will not always produce an acceptable past version of the paragraph. *(From Let's Write English, 1968: 46)*

John is going to college. He is studying government. He is learning about different kinds of government and about the machinery of government. His classes are interesting. They give him insights into politics. They make him critical. These are many values in John's course of study. He may work in government. He may enter politics. He may only be a better voter. He will surely be a better citizen.

There is a storm outside. The wind is blowing. The trees bend and sway in the night. Lightning flashes. Rain drenches the ground. I like this storm. It is dramatic and noisy. It makes me uneasy. It gives me a chilly feeling. It is interesting. I am safe. I am watching this storm on television.

It is summer. The days are long and hot. Children are out of school. They do not go to scout meetings or to music lessons. They swim and read. They telephone their friends. They play tennis. Whole families go on vacation. There is fun in winter also. But there is more work. Teachers give their students long assignments. Parents keep busy. There is little time for play. Everyone takes a rest in summer. Summer gives the family change and relaxation. It makes everyone happy.

3.2.8.8. Writing Activity-2

Instruction: The following paragraph is not well written because the sentences are all too short, the same subject is repeated too often and there are no transitional words or expressions. Rewrite the paragraph using transitional expressions such as first, second, next, after, then, meantime,

meanwhile, at the same time, and so on. *(From Let's Write English, 1968: 337)*

Preparing breakfast is easy. It is really no work at all. You turn on the stove. You fill the coffeepot with water. You put the coffee in the water. You let the coffee and water boil. You can now put the plates, cups, saucers, and glasses, and the knives, forks, and spoons on the table. You cut the bread. You spread the bread with butter. You fry the eggs. You fill the glasses with milk. You poor the coffee into the cups. You put the bread and eggs on the plates. Breakfast is ready. Everyone can sit down and eat.

3.2.8.9. Writing Activity-3

Instruction: Begin with one of the following topic sentences and write a paragraph of your own, modeled on one of those given in *Activity-1.*

A. I am a doctor (lawyer, teacher, etc.)
B. I like summer (winter, rain, cool weather, etc.)
C. I am studying English (history, law, sociology, etc.)

In sum, it is obviously known that we cannot teach a language without a psychological theory of the language learner and of the language learning process, thus various theory attempts were done throughout years. Behaviorists taken place in associative learning theories argued that when a language is learned, one associates words and sentences with thoughts, ideas, actions, and events. What they neglected was that they did not examine a language system with its own rules and characteristics, the variety that second language learners develop. Different situations, interests, occupations or social roles demand different uses of language. Cultural

norms, traditions, ethnic backgrounds, the factors affecting learning are to be studied closely, but for Behaviorism it is clear that language learning and its development is a matter of imitation, practice, reinforcement, and habitation which constitute the paces of language learning.

3.3. THE AUDIOLINGUAL METHOD

Several factors promoted the rise of the Audio-lingual method to a position in the 1950s in the USA as the dominant and preferred approach to second language learning and teaching. However, the Coleman Report had suggested Audiolingual method, which is a reading-based approach, for practice in American High Schools and colleges in 1929. One was the awareness growing out of the need for speakers of other languages during World War, II that language knowledge is a crucial national asset. Associated with this realization was the publicity given the success of several government agencies in teaching students to speak second languages. In addition, leaders in language education supported and prompted the approach as being the way to produce the needed bilinguals.

As it is known this method emerged as a reaction to Reading Approach and its lack of emphasis on Oral-aural skills during the World War, II. This approach became dominant in the USA during the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s although it was suggested for practice in American schools and colleges by the Coleman Report in 1929. The US Army provided the impetus with funding for special, intensive language courses that focused on the aural/oral skills; these courses came to be known as the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP), or more colloquially the Army Method. Characteristics of these courses were a great deal of oral activity, pronunciation, and pattern drills and conversation practice with virtually none of the grammar and translation found in traditional classes. Soon, the success of Army Method and the revived national interest in foreign languages spurred educational institutions to adopt the new methodology. In

all its variations and adaptations, the Army method came to be known in the 1950s as the Audiolingual Method or Audialism (Brown, 1993:95-98)

During this period, teaching of English received a great amount of interest by the linguists and applied linguists. Students from all over the world, who entered United States to stuffy in the universities, needed training in English before beginning their studies. As a result of the growing attention given to the foreign language teaching in the States, Audiolingual method emerged. The USA government was aimed at preventing Americans from being unaware of the innovations about science in other countries. The National Defense Education Act in 1958 supplied the necessary amount of money required for the study and analysis of modern languages; for the enlargement of teaching materials and for teacher training. The aim was to establish a method from an approach which was suitable for the conditions of US colleges and university classrooms. At last, they joined the principles of the behaviorist psychology, the Structural Approach developed by Fries, and the previous studies of the ASTP. This combination consisting of the Structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures and Behaviorist psychology caused the emergence of a new method called the Audiolingual method.

3.3.1. Principles and the Theory of Language Learning

The Audiolingual method grew out of the Behaviorist Approach which claims language learning is stimulus-response-reinforcement interaction, it is in accord with both Structural Linguistics and Behavioristic psychology(Celce-Murcia,1989:23) This approach emerged from the need for training army personnel during the Second World War. The American linguists most noticeably Bloomfield and Fries are the founders of the audiolingual method, which is designed to develop oral fluency in the second language. Linguists described the patterns of second language by using native speakers of that language. And then, they made a contrastive analysis of language acquisition of L1 and L2. Their study completed the lack of sound linguistic principles of

the Structuralist Approach. Speaking of a language is seen as an outcome of language learning. Language skills are learned more effectively if items of the foreign language are represented in spoken form before written from (Rivers 1981:40). So, they believed that dialogues were suitable for studying the structures and vocabulary of that language. Ellis states that "Whereas the grammar-translation method, which the audiolingual method replaced, had emphasized intellectual and literary study, the new approach, rested on techniques of mimicry and memorization (mim-mem) designed to develop the ability for oral communication" (Ellis 1990:20). This mim-mem method was widely used method in audiolingual approach that is carried out by drilling the dialogues until it is learnt by heart. They believed that language learning was a set of habits. Here, it collides with behaviorist opinion that language learning is simulated by reinforcement or reward in social situation.

In sum, influenced by Descriptive lingusitics, American structuralists, headed by Bloomfield, adopted a new technique for studying languages. Concentrating on the spoken form of language, they gathered examples of daily converstaions and analyzed them into the building blocks of language, e.g. sounds, words, and sentences. They argued that learning a language is in fact learning these separate elements and how they are combined with each other. So, .F. Skinner's operant conditioning theory influenced the supporters of Audiolingual method since it claimed that habits occurred when reward or reinforcement follow immediately on an act. Errors are seen as bad habits and are to be avoided. Thus, mechanical drills are useful in that they have a low probability of error. Drills are performed first the whole class, then groups and finally individuals until they are over learned. To explain this method's principles Stern (1983:158) gives five slogans as:

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.A language is a set of habits

4- Teach the language, not about the language

These five slogans became the basic principles of Audiolingual method.The Audiolingual method has been criticized for being too autonomous. All these drills and repeated dialogues bore even successful student, in fact, students may turn to be like well-trained parrots without understanding the meaning of an utterance. However, the method is very good at gaining listening and speaking skills for students especially in the earlier stapes. Students can have the aural input and the output is oral fluency. This method carries the features of the Direct method and Behaviorism, but adds features from Structural linguistics and behavioral psychology (Celce-Murcia, 1991:6) According to this approach, one learns best through mimicry and memorization (mim-mem) and analogy. In this method:

1- Lessons begin with dialogs

2- Mimicry, memorization of set phrases, and overlearning are used, based on the assumption that language is habit formation

3- Grammatical structures are sequenced and rules are taught inductively.

4- Skills are sequenced: listening, speaking – reading ,writing postponed.

5-Pronunciation is stressed from the beginning

6- Vocabulary is severely limited in initial stages and learned in context

7- A great effort is made to prevent learner errors

8- Language is often manipulated without regard to meaning or context

9- The teacher must be proficient only in the structures, vocabulary, etc. that s/he is teaching since learning activities and materials are carefully controlled.

10- The cultural background of the target language is stressed.

11- Successful responses are immediately reinforced.

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

13- There is a tendency to manipulate language and disregard content.

That is to say, Audiolingual method is a teacher-based method. The teacher is responsible for modeling the target language controlling the direction and pace of learning and monitoring and correcting the learners' performance while doing the principles mentioned above. That is to say, if teacher does not provide enough practice or if the students do not memorize the basic structures and patterns. It can be said that Audiolingual method has changed language teaching from an art to science and thus the students can learn a language effectively and efficiently. However, if the principles of this approach are not applied correctly and if the materials are not used appropriately, the result cannot be more than parrot-like learners can.

3.3.2. Syllabus

Audiolingualism is a linguistic or structure-based method to language teaching. The starting point is a linguistic syllabus, which contains the key items of phonology, morphology, and syntax of the language arranged according to their order of presentation (Richards and Rogers, 2001:59). The language skills are taught in the order of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Listening is viewed largely as training in aural discrimination of basic sound patterns. At first the oral language is presented and at the early stages of the teaching process written language is usually withheld.

Students are always taught to read and write what they have already learnt to say orally when reading and writing are presented. An attempt is made to minimize the possibilities for making mistakes in both speaking and writing by using a tightly structures for to the presentation of new language items. At more advanced levels, more complex reading and writing tasks may be introduced.

The typical implementation in the classroom was to begin with a pre-reading period during which the books were withheld from the students. It

was felt that seeing the written word interfered with the development of proper habits of pronunciation. The length of the recommended pre-reading period varied from a few days or weeks to an entire semester, depending on the language and age of the students. The language being taught influenced the length of time that teachers felt was necessary for an adequate initiation of proper habits of pronunciation.

After students received their books, the class followed a sequence of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The class progressed through the book by memorizing the dialogs, practicing the pattern drills until the students could give automatic responses to the stimuli, and then, using the learned vocabulary and structure, talking about some topic in a carefully controlled context.

That is to say, syllabus is generally categorized as structural in that it is based on a corpus of structural and lexical items arranged from easy to difficult, particularly from a contrastive analysis viewpoint. It may also be considered as situational because it aims at introducing frequently used topics and situations of the target language.

3.3.3. Learner and Teacher Roles

The teacher's role is to serve as a model, give the stimuli, listen with a critical ear, provide the language reinforcement to the stimuli presented, that is, the correct response, and correct students' errors. Teachers make an effort to prevent student errors. Successful responses are immediately reinforced.

Some use of the mother tongue by teachers is permitted. Teachers serve as the language model and students listen to the model before repeating sounds, words, phrases, dialog lines, or pattern drills after the drill. No longer are students supposed to sit passively in their seats soaking up the information presented by the teacher. Instead, students are to respond actively, and the teacher's role is to reinforce and correct response. Students

spend their time in classes to practice language patterns. Students memorize the dialogs and perform the oral pattern drills prior to receiving an explanation of the grammatical structures involved. Students are to learn the language skills in the same order as in the first language learning: listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing.

3.3.4. Strong Sides

Here, some strong sides of the Audiolingual method are taken into consideration.

1- Contrary to the common practice of traditional classes of stressing written language, the Audio-lingual method emphasizes the importance of spoken language because listening and speaking were prerequisites for gaining a command of the written skills.

2- Audio-lingual method attaches importance to inductive teaching rather than deductive and in this way structures are sequenced and taught one at a time.

3- Audio-lingual method attaches importance to pronunciation, with special attention being paid to intonation. In order to improve the pronunciation of the students language labs and tape recorders are used frequently. In this way, learners are supposed to be able to speak near-native like speakers and much use of tapes, language labs, and visual aids provide learners to get the target language better.

3.3.5. Weak Sides

The weak sides of this method is mainly caused by its theoretical background. Chomsky's severe attack against the foundations of Skinner's behaviorism and Bloomfield's structuralism shook the principles of this widely used approach. Chomsky argued that human language learning is far too complicated to be learned through simple mechanical stimulus-response associations proposed that language learning entails the construction of an

internalized system of rules. On the other hand, the Audio-lingual method faces serious some other practical problems:

1- Learners do not develop communication ability since this method ignores the role of comprehension in learning and so learners, who develop a parrot-like fluency, are usually unable to apply what they have memorized to real-life situations.

2- Learners do not benefit equally from memorization and repetition as learning techniques. Although this method could have used the learners' L_1 in difficult teaching situations, it unduly tried to eliminate it from the classroom environment. Finally, it provokes to be frustrating for both teachers and students.

3- Many students become the victims of the Audiolingual method because although they are very good at pattern practice but none of them could use the patterns fluently in normal speech situations.

3.3.6. Contributions to ELT

The ultimate goal of the Audio-lingual method is gaining proficiency in all four skills in a sequenced way as listening, speaking, reading, and writing.This general objective is achieved through training the learners in sound discrimination, increasing auditory memory, emphasizing native-like pronunciation, and developing accuracy and fluency in a limited portion of language. Meanwhile, the learners find the opportunity to over-learn the grammatical structures and everyday life vocabulary items. Reading and writing come after the oral skills and are thus not usually emphasized until later stages. Nevertheless, sound-symbol relationships are introduced from the very beginning of an Audio-lingual method program.

Audio-lingual method made its important contribution to ELT by concentrating on the spoken language and choosing the topics related to daily life situations. In order to teach these, tape recorders and audiovisual

equipments were introduced by this approach. Tape recorders provided accurate models for dialogs and drills in terms of the non-native teachers. At the same time, language labs were presented by the Audio-lingual method to provide an opportunity for further drill work and to receive controlled error-free practice of basic structures (Richards and Rogers, 1990:57).

3.3.7. Discussion Questions for Students

1- What are the basic principles of language learning and teaching according to the Audiolingual method?
2- What are the student-teacher interactions?
3- What areas of the teaching and learning are emphasized?
4- What are the strong points of the Audiolingual method?
5- What is the role of the students' native language?

3.3.8. Basic Techniques and Exercise / Activity Types

With the Audiolingual method, which was known as Army Method as it mentioned before, teacher makes the students repeat the whole dialog chorally line by line until they can say it fluently and accurately. Later, teacher asks several pairs of students to act out the dialog in front of the class. Then, students become ready to engage in pattern drills based on the key structures of the dialog. Teacher conducts the students to practice the drills such as *chain drills, single-slot substitution drills, multiple-slot substitution drills, transformation drills*, and so on in chorus and then individually. If the textbooks contain reading, writing, and vocabulary activities, the students are asked to work on them.

Mim-mem technique can be used in the application stages of this method. Mim-mem technique was developed in the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies and used by the US Forces during the World War, II. (Lado, 1983:92-94) It was successful because of high motivation, intensive practice, small classes, and good models, in addition to linguistically sophisticated descriptions of the foreign

language and its grammar. Grammar is taught essentially as follows: Some basic sentences are memorized by imitation. Their meaning is given in normal expressions in the native language, and students are not expected to translate word for word. When the basic sentences have been over learned (completely memorized so that the student can rattle them off without effort), the student reads fairly extensive descriptive grammar statements in his native language, with examples in the target language and native language equivalents.

Dialogs and drills form the basis of the exercises in Audiolingual classes. Dialogs provide the means of contextualizing key structures and illustrate situations in which structures might be used as well as some cultural aspects of the target language. Dialogs are used for repetition and memorization. Correct pronunciation, stress, rhythm, and intonation are emphasized. Here are some examples and activities:

3.3.8.1. Dialog Teaching

First, a dialog is presented by the teacher and students are wanted to memorize the lines of the dialog. After a dialog has been presented and memorized, specific grammatical patterns in the dialog are selected and become the focus of various kinds of drill and pattern-practice exercises such as *repetition drills, inflection exercises, substitution drills, replacement exercises, restatement, completion, expansion drills, transformation exercises*, and so on. The following example was taken from *English 900, Book 5, 1971: 32.*

Conversation
Talking about things to wear

Bill: I don't know what to wear today. Is it going to be cold or warm?
Bill's brother: It looks like it's going to rain today. You'd better take your raincoat which fits you much.
Bill: I can't decide whether to wear my grey suit or the brown one.
Bill's brother: Why don't you wear the grey one? It's not as heavy as the brown one. It may rain today, but it won't be very cold.
Bill: All right. What are you going to wear?
Bill's brother: I think I'll wear my new jacket and dark blue trousers which I bought last week. And if I can borrow your blue tie, I'll wear that. I don't have a blue tie.
Bill: Of course you can have it. All of my shirts are at the laundry, so I borrowed one of yours. I wouldn't mind.

3.3.8.1.1. Exercise 1 : Repetition

The student repeats an utterance aloud as soon as s/he has heard it. This exercise is done without looking at the dialog. The utterance should be brief enough to be retained by the ear. In this way students get the chance to memorize the lines of the dialogs. For example,

T: *I don't know what to wear today.*
S: *I don't know what to wear today.*
T: *Is it going to be cold or warm?*
S: *Is it going to be cold or warm?*
T: *It looks like it's going to rain today.*
S: *It looks like it's going to rain today.*
T: .....

Note: After a student has repeated an utterance, s/he may repeat it again And again, and add a few words, then repeat that whole utterance and add more words.

3.3.8.1.2. Exercise 2: Completion Drills

In this exercise students hear an utterance that is incomplete except for one word, then repeat the utterance in completed form. For example,

1- *I need the suit ..... is in the cleaners. (which)*
2- *This jacket, ... too small for me, needs to be tailored. (which)*
3- *The boy ..... needed new clothes went shopping. (who)*
4- *Can I borrow ..... blue tie? (your)*
5- *I can't decide whether to wear ... grey suit or the brown one. (my)*

3.3.8.1.3. Exercise 3: Integration Drill

With this activity, students are asked to integrate two separate utterances into one. This helps learners to review the new structures or the grammatical patterns took place in the dialog. For example,

e.g. The tailor cleaned and pressed my coat. The tailor is on Main Street.

The tailor who is on Main Street cleaned and pressed my coat.

1- The men wore dress clothes. The men came to the party.
2- These shoes lasted for a long time. These shoes are worn-out.
3- These sleeves have to be let down. These sleeves are too short.
4- My husband wears slippers and a bathrobe in the house. My husband likes to be comfortable.
5- This dress has to be taken up. This dress is too long.

3.3.8.1.4. Exercise 4: Restatement

In this activity students rephrase an utterance and address it to someone else in the classroom according to the instruction. This activity helps students to review the structures or the patterns that they have learned during the course hours. It is generally made by having the students ask questions to their friends. For example,

T: *Tell him to say the title of the dialog.*
S: *Tell the title of the dialog.*
T: *Ask her what she is wearing today.*
S: *What are you wearing today?*
T: *Ask Martin whether it is cold or warm today.*
S: *Is it cold or warm today?*
T: *Ask Sandra what she likes to wear on Sundays.*
S: *What do you like to wear on Sundays?*
T: .....

3.3.8.1.5. Exercise 5: Transformation Drill

A sentence is transformed by being made negative or interrogative or through changes in tense, mood, voice, aspect or modality. In this way students can be able to check their knowledge about the sentence structures. For example,

T: Put the following statement into negative.

You had better wear a light jacket.

S: You had better not wear a light jacket.

T: Put the following statement into passive.

This dress does not fit you anymore.

S: .....

T: Put the following statement into interrogative.

You ought to have that coat cleaned and pressed.

S: .....

3.3.8.1.6. Exercise 6: Replacement

In this activity students are asked to replace one word in an utterance by another. This utterance is written either in italics or in bold type. For example, He bought *this cheap shirt*. He bought ***it***.

1- I have ***some shirts*** to send to the laundry.

2- I have got to get ***this shirt*** washed and ironed.

3- I'm going to wear ***my blue shirt***. Is that all right?

4- I guess I've outgrown ***these old clothes***.

5- You'd better wear a ***lightweight suit***.

3.3.8.1.7. Exercise 7: Single-slot Substitution Drill

Teacher says a line, usually from the dialog. Next, the teacher says a word or a phrase-called the *cue.* The students repeat the line the teacher has given them, substituting the cue into the line in its proper place. The major purpose of this drill is to give the students practice in finding and filling in the slots of a sentence. For example,

T: You had better take the raincoat. → *cue: He*
S: *He* had better take the raincoat.
T: the coat
S: He had better take *the coat.*
T: I
S: *I* had better take the coat.
T: the pants
S: I had better take *the pants.*

3.3.8.1.8. Exercise 8: Multiple-slot Substitution Drill

In this drill teacher gives cue phrases one at a time that fit into different slots in the dialog line. This exercise gives the students to recognize what part of speech each cue is, where it fits into the sentence, and make any other changes, such as subject-verb agreement. They then say the line, fitting the cue phrase into the line where it belongs. For example,

T: *You had better wear a light jacket. It is chilly today.*

→ *Cue: gloves / below zero*

T: *You had better wear gloves. It is below zero today. Now, you do the same.*

T: *a heavy jacket / cold*

S: *You had better wear a heavy jacket. It is cold today.*

T: *something warm / freezing*

S: *You had better wear something warm. It is freezing today.*

T: *a raincoat / rainy*

S: *You had better wear a raincoat. It is rainy today.*

3.3.8.1.9. Exercise 9: Question-and-answer Drill

This drill gives students practice with answering questions. The students should answer the teacher's questions very quickly. This gives the students practice with the question patterns. For example,

T: Do you think I ought to wash the clothes?

S. Yes, I think you should wash them.

T: Do you think I ought to	fasten the shirt?
	change my clothes?
	fasten the seatbelt?
	iron the shirts?
	press the pants?
	wear the coat?

3.3.8.1.10. Exercise 10: Complete the Dialog

This activity is used to test the writing abilities of the students. Selected words are erased from the dialog students have learned. Students complete the dialog by filling in the blanks with the missing words and in this

way they can have the chance to see the written forms of the words that they have learned. For example,

Bill:	*I don't know what to wear today. Is it going to be .....or .....?*
Bill's brother:	*It .....it's going to rain today. You ..... take your ..... which fits you much.*
Bill:	*I can't decide whether to wear my .....or the brown one.*
Bill's brother:	*Why don't you wear the grey one? It's not as ....as the ....one. It may ...today, but it will not be very cold.*
Bill:	..... *What are you going to wear?*

3.3.8.1.11. Exercise 11: Grammar Game – An Alphabet Game

The games are designed to get students to practice a grammar point within a context. Students are able to express themselves although it is rather limited in this game. Notice there is also a lot of repetition in this game. For example, the game starts with a student who needs a clothing item beginning with the letter **A**. The student says, "I am going to work in the kitchen. I need an **a**pron". The next student says," I am going to work in the kitchen. She needs an apron. I need a **b**owl", beginning with the letter **B**. The third student continues," I am going to work in the kitchen. She needs an apron. He needs a bowl. I need a **c**hair." The game goes on with each player adding an item that begins with the next letter in the alphabet.

Consequently, the Audiolingual method is a teacher-dominant process. Teachers look like the orchestra leaders, directing and controlling the language behaviour of the students. Students are imitators of the

teacher's model. They follow the teacher's directions and respond as accurately and as rapidly as possible. New vocabulary and structures are presented through dialogs. The dialogs are learned through imitation and repetition as in the behaviortistic learning. With Behavioristic approach, drills such as *transformational, substitution, expansion*, and so on became important in the language teaching field.

Students' successful responses are positively reinforced. Grammar is induced from the examples given; explicit grammar rules are not provided. Cultural information is contextualized in the dialogs or presented by the teacher. Students' reading and written work is based upon the oral work they did earlier. In addition, the habits of the students' native language are thought to interfere with the students' attempt to master the target language. Therefore, the target language is used in the classroom, not the students' native language. A contrastive analysis between the students' native language and the target language reveals where a teacher should expect the most interference.

3.4. THE AUDIOVISUAL METHOD

In the 19th century, humankind witnessed the industrial revolution, and there has been great advance in education since this revolution. Teachers began to realize the use of such technological devices in order to improve their teaching methods. At the same time, the critics of technology began to be heard. Educators were complaining about the high cost of these materials. It was in the 1930's and 1940's that the visual aids-the stereoscopes, slide projector, slide film projector-, and the audio-aids, radio, phonograph, magnetic recordings-came to be used in education. When the Second World War broke out, the U.S. military was effectively utilizing a wide variety of audiovisual materials to teach large classes as rapidly as possible to supplement a serious lack of qualified instructors. Moreover, the military

created, or helped to create new audiovisual materials. Film and filmstrip techniques were also improved.

3.4.1. Principles and Theory of Language Learning

In the 1950's, American structural linguists such as Bloomfield and Fries developed scientific descriptions of language trying to identify and describe the formal patterns of a language. Meantime, anthropologists worked on human behavior in a culture. They believed that language was an activity learned in the social life and a set of habits. Thus, the Audio-lingual method was developed in the United States, on the theoretical bases of behaviorist psychology; while in France the Audiovisual method was elaborated, using integrated texts, pictures and aural elements in language teaching. "Where the visual element is accompanied by recorded voices, the term "audio-visual" has come to be used." (Rivers 1981: 206) The new emphasis on being able to communicate in another language by means of both aural and visual elements led to the birth of the Audiovisual method.

The French linguist D. Girard gave us detailed information about the Audiovisual method, and the US linguist E. Dale supposed the use of audiovisual materials in ELT. This approach aims to minimize verbalism in teaching by means of these devices, and try to enhance the effectiveness of teaching. Clearly speaking, both aural and visual equipments reinforce language learning. Therefore, the Audiovisual method advocates pictures, objects, gestures, etc to illustrate meaning better. Some basic principles of the Audiovisual method are as follows:

1-*Picture associated with the recorded voice facilitates understanding the intended massage*. Students can establish a direct relation between meaning and picture related with the foreign language utterance. Pictures can be used, whether the students are children or adults, for teaching vocabulary, practicing grammar, simulating writing practice, and for many other activities (Pakkan 1992:63). Seeing its benefits, every English language teacher

should develop his or her own picture file to enrich his or her teaching techniques.

2-*Training the students to think in the foreign language from the first lesson, is intended.* Naturally, second language learners are just foreigners of the new language, and they unconsciously transfer their first language knowledge to second language. To avoid this, the teacher should provide the students with as much amount of second language as possible. With the help of aural element, the students can hear pronunciation of native speakers. Thus, errors are avoided not to build bad habits form the first lesson.

3-*Since the spoken words become associated with the picture, the need for script is eliminated.* Actions, objects, gestures, facial expressions can be expressed through pictures students can grasp meaning without a written text that is very helpful in teaching. For example, a teacher can show a picture of typist to teach the word *'secretary'*.

4-*Mother tongue interference, especially in pronunciation, is avoided.* As many languages share most of the symbols and letters, students may transfer their previous language to the foreign language. With repetition of dialogues pronunciation mistakes are avoided. Of course, the aural in put is of great importance. Hence, a language teacher must use tape recordings, films or videos to improve the students' pronunciation.

5-*Student motivation is an important factor in language learning.* Much of learning takes place when the students are highly motivated. With well-constructed audiovisual materials - pictures, films, videos, slides, tape recordings - the students are motivated and encouraged to participate in the lesson. While students are watching and listening the audiovisual materials, they find language more interesting and enjoyable.

6-*Language is for communication.* Students can make associations with people and phrases in the pictures, and thus they feel that they are learning something, which is useful. Students who were previously unwilling to master

the forms of the language will realize the benefits of language use. From this point of view, students understand the language as a tool for communication.

7-*Language and culture are interrelated.* Students can convey the meaning with the help of gestures, facial expressions and intonation and tone of voice. Communication also takes place through gestures, body language, and facial expressions. The same gesture or facial expression may mean something different in foreign language. O'Hara exemplifies this as:"

> *For example in most western cultures, it is customary to bunch the fingers of the right or left hand together when you wish to emphasize a point. The palm of the hand is turned upward. The thumb rests somewhere between the tips of the middle two fingers. The hand is then shaken several times for additional emphasis. An American who spent many years in Saudi Arabia stopped using this gesture when talking. He discovered it is equivalent, in that culture, to "shooting a bird" or "giving the finger" (O'Hara, 1993:182). So, a language teacher must know cultural differences between two cultures. S/he can make use of audiovisual aids to teach culture.*

8-*Keeping all students' attention on the same subject is very helpful for weaker students.* Especially in crowded classes, it is very hard to concentrate on the same subject. There are always disturbing, naughty, and weak students to deal with. Well-prepared visuals can be very helpful tool to the weak students who find their minds wondering to other things than the point on which the teacher concentrating.

These are basic principles of the Audiovisual method. This method is very effective when the materials are chosen appropriately. The audiovisual aids should be considered in terms of the degree to which the images convey the actual massages contained in the utterances. Pictures, sketches can be used to illustrate the meaning clearly. These should be in a clear colored or black and white fashion. Rivers warns the teachers *"since the impact of the*

*visual image is strong, it is essential that the meaning the students absorb from the image be the one that was intended by the writer of the materials "(*Rivers 1989:210). So, teachers must decide which topic to be studied beforehand. After all, care must be taken to make these materials effective not to make them distractive or confusing

3.4.2. Syllabus

Structural (Grammatical) syllabus is followed. Dialogue learning, which can be an effective technique when the students are continually kept aware of the meaning of what they are repeating, is favored by the audiovisual approach. Since just repeating utterances of a conversational dialogue may lead students not to understand what they are saying, visual aids are helpful in associating these utterances with meaning. Rivers suggests *"In an audio-visual presentation, a group of frames or scenes forming a coherent segment should be projected several times at the beginning so that the students may become aware of the situation and import of the individual utterances"* (Rivers 1981:214). Thus, audiovisual materials are of great help for students to get the meaning clearly and understand. Only then they can put their newly formed habits to long-term memories by means of visuals.

3.4.3. Learner and Teacher Roles

In the Audiovisual method, teachers can make use of pictures, films, slides, listening cassettes, or tape recordings. They are very useful in supporting the achievement of learning objectives. Students can understand the topic as they both see and hear contextual clues. Pachler and Kit describe one of the audiovisual materials, video by saying "as a teaching and learning resource, the video offers useful listening material. The visual support allows pupils to make use of paralinguistic information and also to contextualize the language use "(Pachler and Kit 1997:258). So, a language teacher should make use of such devices to be more effective in teaching.

In addition, students can have an opportunity to witness the real life situations or daily life routines. Not only the visual elements, but also the aural elements are favored in the Audiovisual method as this method claims that language learning first starts by listening. Thus, it provides learners with aural input such as by tape recordings, films, slides. Students can study on pronunciation with the help of these materials. They can make deductions about the components of speech; intonation, pitch, stress and juncture. Students can realize how meaning of a sentence changes according to the tone of voice, intonation. A teacher can stop the tape where s/he wants to focus on, or where students need practice. Thus, language learning becomes more interesting and stimulating for he students.

3.4.4. Strong Sides

Some teachers insist on the application of audiovisual aids in language teaching. As stated before, the audiovisual method is a French originated one. The birth of both audiolingual and audiovisual method collides with the same time period however; they have different principles. The Audiovisual method is favored in some points as are listed below:

1- The Audiovisual method views culture as an inseparable part of language. With the help of films, slides, audiotapes students can focus on the culture of the language, which they are working on. Rivers suggests that " With the easy availability of filmstrips, slides, films and video and audiotapes, it is now possible to bring into the classroom a more vivid representation of the foreign culture than the teacher was able to do with pictures and objects" (Rivers 1981:207). All these materials lessen the heavy task of the teacher. Now, teachers can make use of audiovisual materials in order to clarify the cultural differences among nations. The clothing style, food style and arrangement of house space reflect the culture and these elements can easily be seen in films or videos. Students can have a visible image in their minds.

2- It agrees on the fact that language learning also means learning the culture of that language. "Foreign language teaching should aim to supply

the learner with both a linguistic and an intercultural competence. To reach this aim the teaching of a foreign language should mean the teaching of a foreign culture "(Nöth 1990: 223). As Nöth suggests gaining control over a language on linguistic level is not enough to communicate feasibly. One has to know the rules of custom, tradition, beliefs, etc of the foreign culture not to breakdown the rules of conservation.

3- Visual aids are in hands of the teacher by the audiovisual method. Pictures, films, slides, OHP, board, etc are suitable for teaching purposes. The teachers can make use of them because they stimulate interest, provide variety, and promote understanding of structure, vocabulary andculture. They can be found easily and cheaply.

4- Since teaching language also means teaching the culture of that language, audiovisual materials serve as an important boon to the teachers. As Chastain points out " *Visual aids such as films, filmstrips, slides, and photographs, can make a vital contribution to the stimulation of interest in the second culture and to al clearer perception of the way of life in the second culture* " (Chastain 1979: 398). Therefore, a language teacher can teach the target culture by the audiovisual method. The teachers should use these materials available in this method to make the lessons more effective.

5- This method appeals to students' ear and eye. Retention of what is learned is likewise related to sense experience. According to the researches students tend to remember easier what they hear and see. Therefore, the audiovisual method is very useful in that is serves to sensory memory. There are two types of sensory memory; icoic and ecoic memory. Icoic memory refers to the ability of the eye to retain visual information after it has been presented. Visual aids are very useful tools for the students can transfer the information to their long-term memory. Ecoic memory refers to the ability of ear to retain auditory information after presentation of it. Auditory materials are widely used to supply the learners with native speech in this method, so they appeal to ecoic memory of the students.

6- Equally important, nonverbal elements should be taught as well as verbal elements. For this reason, the audiovisual aids can be beneficial to e-teaching gestures, body language, kinesic behaviors of the target language. People communicate not only by means of words, letters, statements, but also actions, gestures, paralinguistic features. The message is an audiovisual whole, and gestures and verbal components take turns with one another where gestures tend to be substituted for comments in utterances (Calbris 1990:173-175). Thus, gestures can easily be found in films, videos, which are among audiovisual materials in teaching.

7- This method advocates listening and speaking skills first, and then through these skills reading and writing skills are built. This thought is based on how children acquire their firs language. Children do imitate to somedegree, but in later stages they produce their own sentences. The supporters of this method prefer using auditory aids first, as they claim that students will learn better in spoken form. That is why, tape recordings, radios are very useful in providing the aural input. Some teachers may have fossilized errors in pronunciation; so this method is very good in teaching pronunciation.

8- Motivation is a crucial factor in language learning for it enhances learning. Using the audiovisual materials in the classroom helps the student use and adopt the language naturally, and they are encouraged to speak the target language by means of these materials. They have the opportunity to see and hear the target language, today, the youth is get used to watching films and listening to music. They like films as films act as a mirror of the target culture. They can imagine the real life situations and thus motivated in learning the second language. Again, pictures can be very motivating, for example, a teacher can show a picture of a girl to study parts of the body. Instead of making simple drills, students can see what they are studying on.

3.4.5. Weak Sides

Like other methods, the Audiovisual method is also criticized for some points. Despite the fact that it is a remedial one for the Audiolingual method, that is, the audiovisual method supplies the teaching phase with both visual and aural aids, it misses some points listed below:

1-It is based on some theoretical principles of behaviorism, which claims the learning phenomenon to have been a stimulus-response interaction. However, it is a very complex process that is tied with cognition, students' needs, mental process, and environmental factors. How student feelings are dealt with is not clear in this method. Teachers should also consider these factors.

2-Sometimes the teachers may not decide whether the students understand the intended massage or not. As Rivers points out,

> *" When students are working with pictures continually before them, it is some times difficult for the teacher to be sure that they are not merely producing responses they have associated with a certain visual stimulus without being aware of the exact meaning of what they are hearing or saying "*
> *(Rivers 1981:209)*

Thus, the teachers should pay attention to make the meaning of the pictures clear. Although pictures are used to associate meaning of something, they may sometimes be distractive.

3-This method aims to appeal two senses: Sight and hearing. In fact, teaching should cover all senses. It is a fact that much of learning takes place through visually and orally. However, students can learn better when they experience the other senses. Here the Audiovisual method fails to offers others.

3.4.6. Contributions to ELT

The Audiovisual method helps the students if they feel unable to concentrate on the target language since it provides them with authentic materials. The audiovisual materials provide both the teachers and students with facilitating activities that can be used in language learning effectively. Clark clarifies this as "The textbooks of the day set out a sequence of points of grammar and vocabulary, embedding them in contrived situational dialogues or text, whose meaning was mediated through visual aids such as pictures, flash-cards or film strips, which accompanied the language being presented" (Clark 1987:122). We can infer from this statement that visual aids ease learning grammar and vocabulary by making associations with the topic to be learned and meaning.

The Audiovisual method present cultural elements of the target culture by offering films, slides, tape recorders, realias. Thus, the Audiovisual method provides us less materials and variety of aids. Yet, students can not only see typical behavior of people belonging that culture, but also hear native speech with films, slides, pictures or tape recordings. They can watch the attitudes or social forms of that nation where the target language spoken and students can compare them with their own culture. For example, a language teacher can make use of a sequence of a film. First, pupils watch the film. While they are watching the film, they can see how speakers take turns by tone of voice, gestures, eye contact or speech acts and how cultural elements; food, clothing style, house setting, etc take place. Next, they have the dialogues on printed sheets in order to understand fully as some weak students can miss some utterances. Then, they work on them and act it out. Furthermore, they can discuss about the topic and write a similar dialogue. Here, it is a clear fact that the Audiovisual method facilitates language learning through dialogues supplied with visual and aural elements.

3.4.7. Discussion Questions for Students

1- Compare and contrast the similarities / differences between the Audiolingual method and the Audivisual method.
2- What are the roles of the students?
3- What are the important tenets in language teaching / learning process?
4- What are the weak points of this method?
5- What are the most important contributions of this method to ELT?

3.4.8. Basic Techniques and Exercise / Activity

The Audiovisual method sees visuals such as the board, pictures, films, movies, slides, flash-cards, diagrams as a tool for language teaching. All of them are indispensable elements of teaching. For example, a teacher can use the board to study on a grammar point by using a diagram or chart. When listening to a dialogue, students may not be able catch who is speaking and they and become confused. The teacher can draw stick figures to make clear the characters. Thus, these visuals, stick figures promote meaningful learning. Pictures, of course with accompanying teacher's talk, are of great importance in language teaching. Students make associations with pictures and meaning. For example, a teacher shows a picture of houses, buildings that have been collapsed and knock down to teach earthquake. As students see what has happened they associate with the word earthquake and meaning of it.

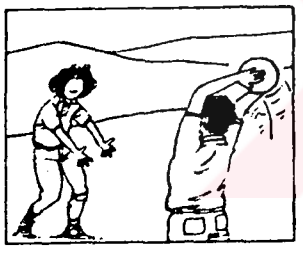
Some films give us a clear representation of the target language, culture, traditions and customs. Furthermore, they are very helpful where the teacher is not able to demonstrate these social acts with objects, gestures, symbols, etc. here, the students have the opportunity to experience the real life situations. Slides can also be used for cultural orientation as well as teaching grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and for providing the stimulus for practice in speaking, reading or writing skills (Pakkan 1992:70). However, slides should be accompanied by tape to provide aural input.

3.4.8.1. Teaching Reading

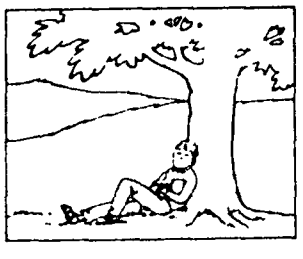
In the Audiovisual method, reading lessons should be done either by using pictures or drawings in order to make the understanding of the students clear. It is believed that all visuals are always effective in the language teaching process since those have stimulating factors on the learners. Here are some examples provided by pictures and drawings for reading activities.

3.4.8.1.1. Exercise 1: Picture and Sentence matching

In this activity students look at a picture and read four sentences, only one of which is about the picture. Then they have to select the correct sentence. This activity can be useful for students to perceive temporal and spatial relationships between the statements and the pictures. For example, here is a sample taken from *Heaton,1990:109.*



A- Jenny is throwing the ball to Peter.
B- Peter is kicking the ball to Jenny.
C- Peter is throwing the ball to Jenny.
D- Jenny is kicking the ball to Peter.

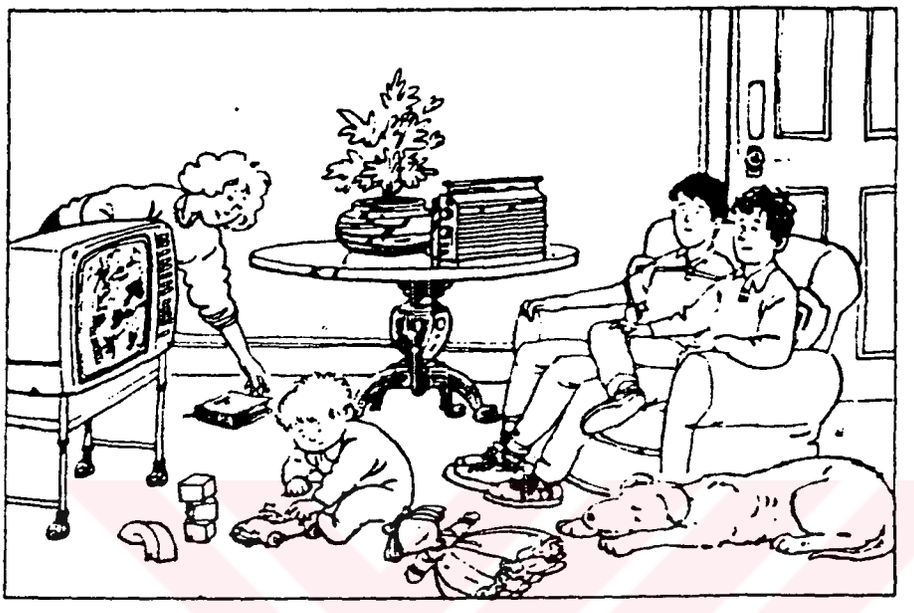


A- The man under the tree is reading his book
B- The man resting under the tree is looking at his book
C- The man with the book is sleeping under the tree
D- The man carrying the book is going to sit down under the tree.

3.4.8.1.2.Exercise 2: Picture and Sentence Matching

This activity is also similar to the one given above, but in this activity students are asked to write True (T) or False (F) at the side of each sentence according to whether or not the sentences agrees with the contents

of the picture. In this particular instance, learners have to select the four sentences which match the picture. For example,



Instruction: Four of the following sentences agree with this picture. Put a circle round the letter of each of the four sentences.

A- The dog on the floor is asleep.

B- The baby is playing with the dog.

C- The baby has just broken a toy car.

D- The television set is on fire.

E- The dog is behind the baby.

F- The woman has taken the flowers out of the bowl.

G- One of the two boys is helping the woman.

H- The woman is going to pick up a book.

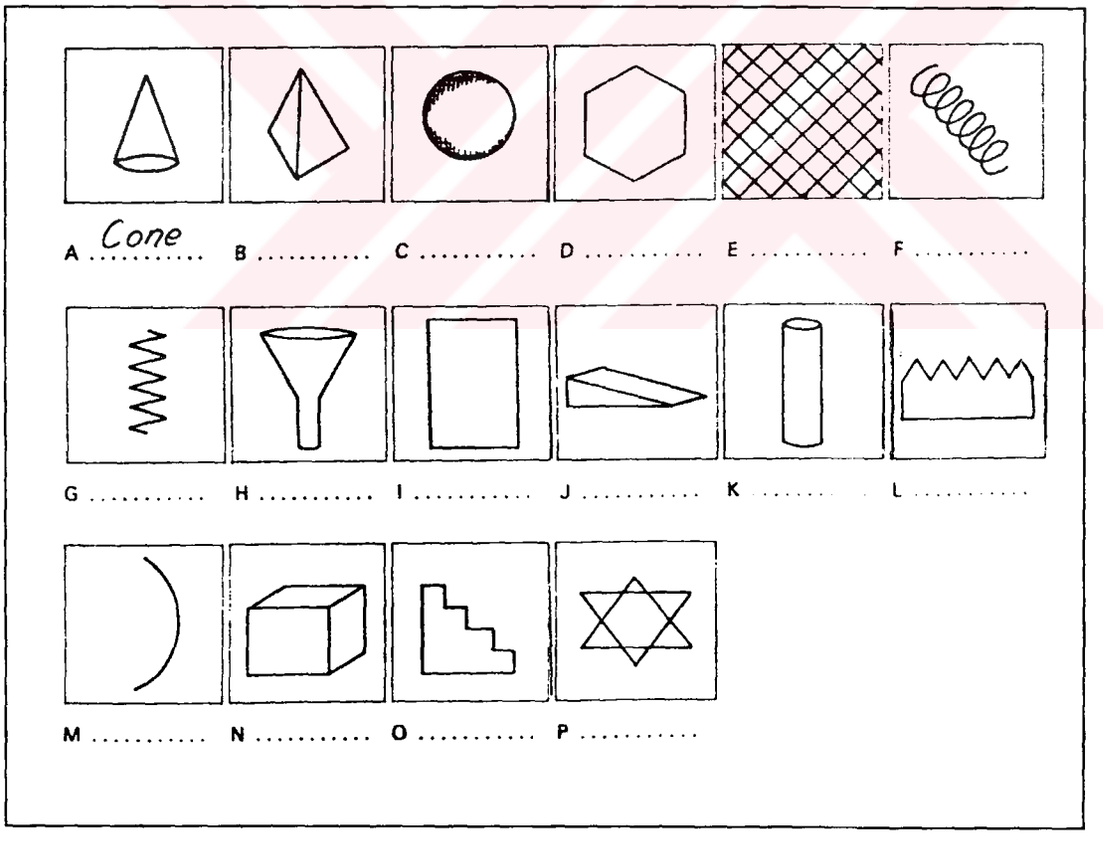
I- The two boys are listening to the radio.

J- The radio is on the table but the book is on the floor under the table.

3.4.8.1.3. Exercise 3: Matching Test

The following matching items show how visuals can be used to test the comprehension of definitions of certain words. Learners are required to match the meaning of certain terms in a dictionary with the appropriate shapes which those terms denote. The example shows how the matching technique can be used at a more advanced level and how it can lend itself to a more communicative testing of reading. For example,

Instruction: some of the shapes are described in the dictionary extracts. Name only those that are described in the extracts. The first one is done for you.



coil *vt,vi* wind or twist into a continuous circular or spiral sahpe; curl round and round: *The snake ~ ed (itself) round the branch.* n[C] 1 something coiled; a single turn of something coiled : the thick ~s of a python 2 length of wire wound in a spiral to conduct electric current
cone n[C] 1 solid body which narrows to a point from a round , flat base 2 something of this shape whether solid or hollow 3 fruit of certain evergreen trees (fir, pine, cedar)
cube n[C] 1 solid body having six equal square sides; block of something so shaped or similarly shaped 2 (maths) product of a number multiplied by itself twice: *the ~ of 5 (5^3) is 5x5x5 (125)* *vt* multiply a number by itself twice: 10 ~d is 1000
cubic adj. having the shape of a cube; of a cube: *one ~ meter*, volume of a cube whose edge is one meter.
cubical adj. cubic(the usual word)
cylinder n[C] 1 solid or hollow body shaped like a pole or log 2 cylinder-shaped chamber (in an engine) in which gas or stream works a piston : *a six ~ engine*
cylindrical n[C] adj cylinder-shaped
ellipse n[C] regular oval
elliptic –al adj. shaped like an ellipse
funnel n[C] 1 tube or pipe wide at the top and narrowing at the bottom, for pouring liquids or powders through small openings 2 outlet for smoke of a steamer , railway engine, etc. *vt,vi (-ll-,US-l-)* (cause to) move (as if) through a funnel
lattice [C] framework of crossed laths or metal strips as a screen, fence or door, or for climbing plants to grow over: *a ~window*
latticed adj.
pyramid n[C] 1 structure with a triangular or square base and sloping sides meeting at a point, esp one of those built on stone in ancient Egypt 2 pile of objects in the shape of a pyramid
sphere n[C] 1 form of a globe; star; planet; music of the spheres, (myth) music produced by the movement of heavenly bodies which men cannot hear 2 globe representing the earth or the night sky
spherical adj. shaped like a sphere
wedge n[C] 1 V-shaped piece of wood or metal, used to split wood or rock (by being hammered) to widen an opening or to keep two things separate , *the thin end of the wedge* , (fig) a small change or demand likely to lead to big changes or demands 2 something shaped like or used like a wedge *: ~heels (on shoes)* *vt* fix tightly (as) with a wedge*: ~ a door open, by placing a wedge under it. be tightly ~d between two fat women on the bus*

3.4.8.2. Teaching Speaking and Listening

Listening activities can also be employed by using drawings, pictures, real objects, symbols, etc. In addition, those types of exercises will be more effective and enjoyable in terms of students. Listening to tape cassettes can aid comprehension by stressing the tone, pitch and the intonation. An

exercise that could help the development of this skill would be listening to understand the general mood of the speaker; happy, angry, excited, patient, friendly, etc. as an introduction to the listening exercise. Video and CD players however, are the ideal tools because all the visual signals are present to aid understanding. Various techniques can be employed during video teaching For example, teacher play the cassette with its sound off because this technique will focus on the non-linguistic signs for the students to interpret. It's also worth stopping the video at particular frames and discuss the dress of people, and thereby guess either their characters or what others will think of them. Here, some activities are handled for teaching speaking and listening process.

3.4.8.2.1. Exercise 1: Listen and Choose-Listen and Do

In the first part of this exercise, students are listened a passage from a cassette and asked to choose the correct picture. In the second part of the activity, this time, students are asked to say the rhyme as it is stated in the cassette. In this way, students are encouraged to develop both their listening and speaking abilities with the help of the pictures. For example,



RHYME

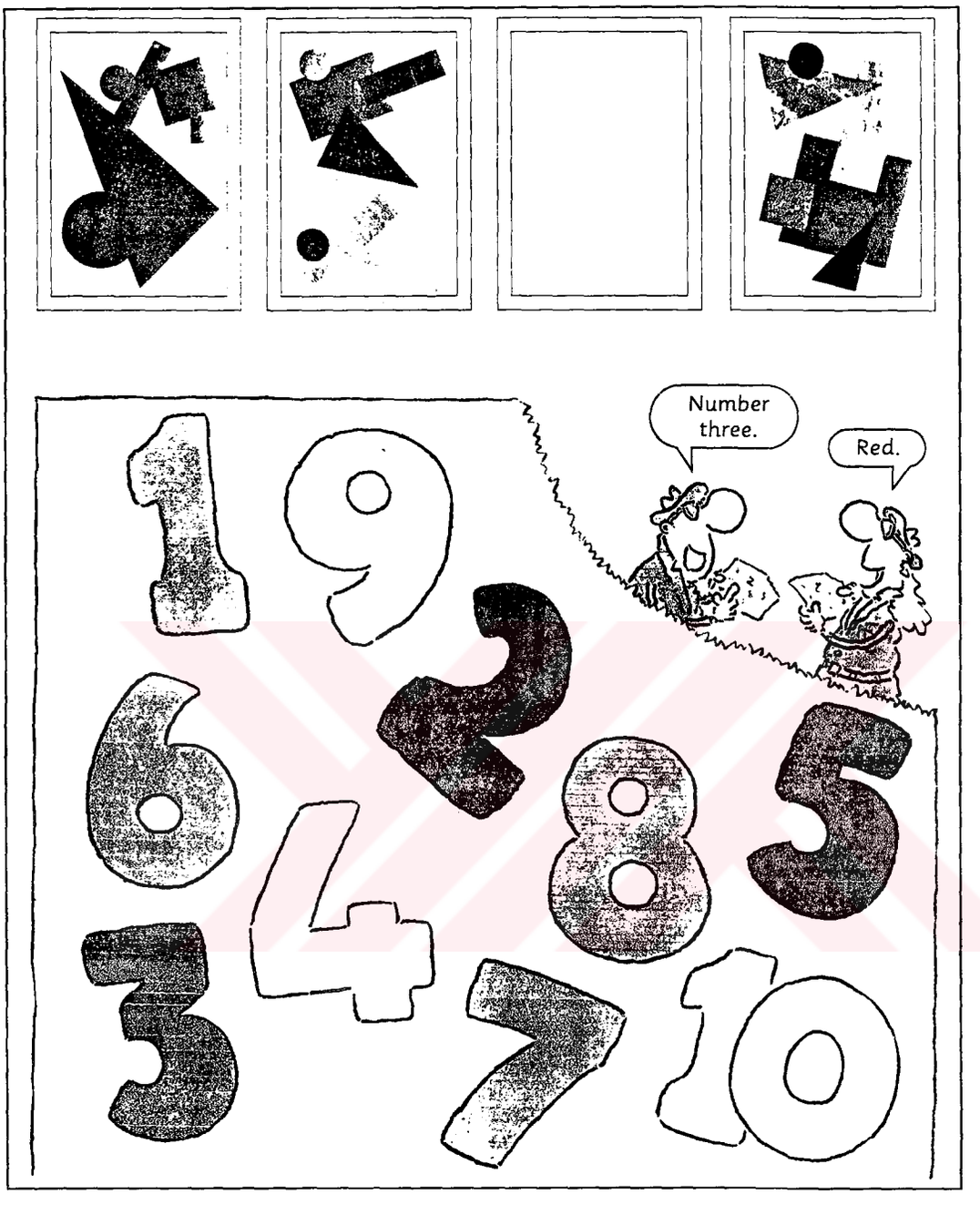
One Potato

One potato,
Two potato,
Three potato,
Four!
Five potato,
Six potato,
Seven potato,
MORE!



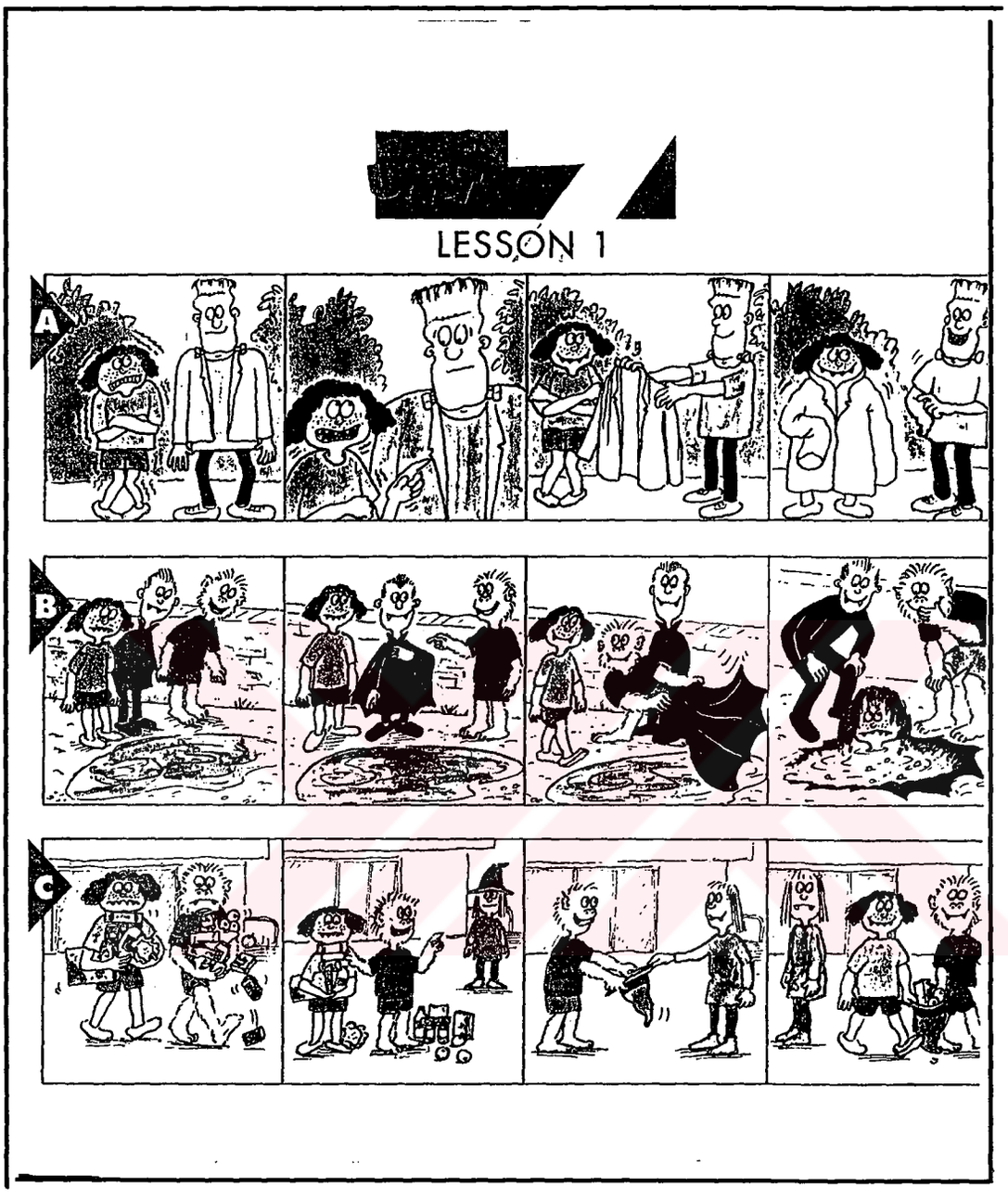
3.4.8.2.2. Exercise 2: Listen and Point

This activity is similar to the one given above. Students are asked to listen to the instructions from the cassette and then point at the correct pictures. Later they are asked to point out the correct numbers according to their colors. For example,

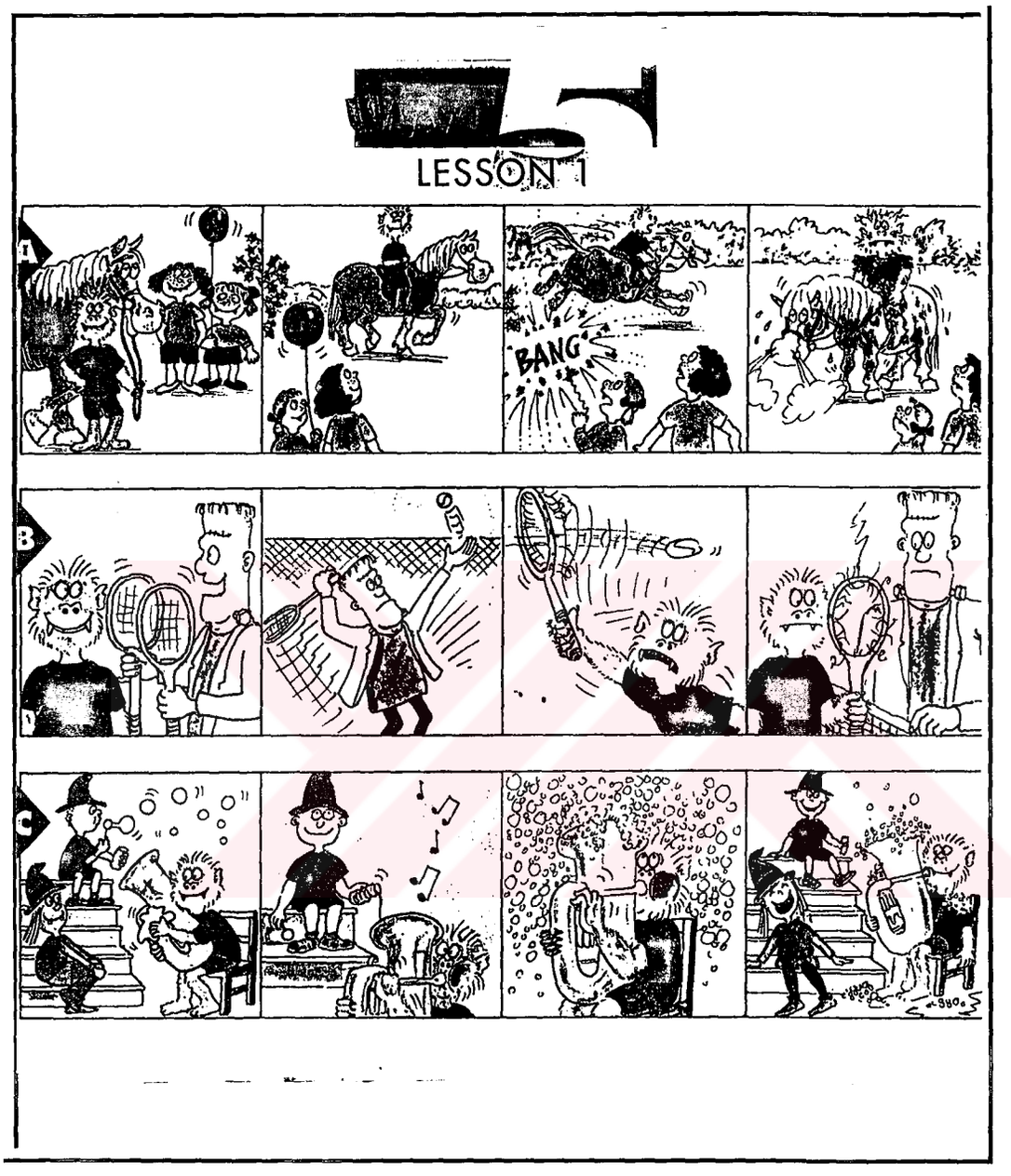


3.4.8 .2.3. Exercise 3: Listen and Choose

Here two different strip stories are given to test the listening abilities of the students. They are asked to listen to a story from a cassette and wanted to choose the correct order of the pictures or only the picture which is told at the cassette. For example, **Task 1** (Ashworth & Clark, 1997:50)


LESSON 1
A
B
C

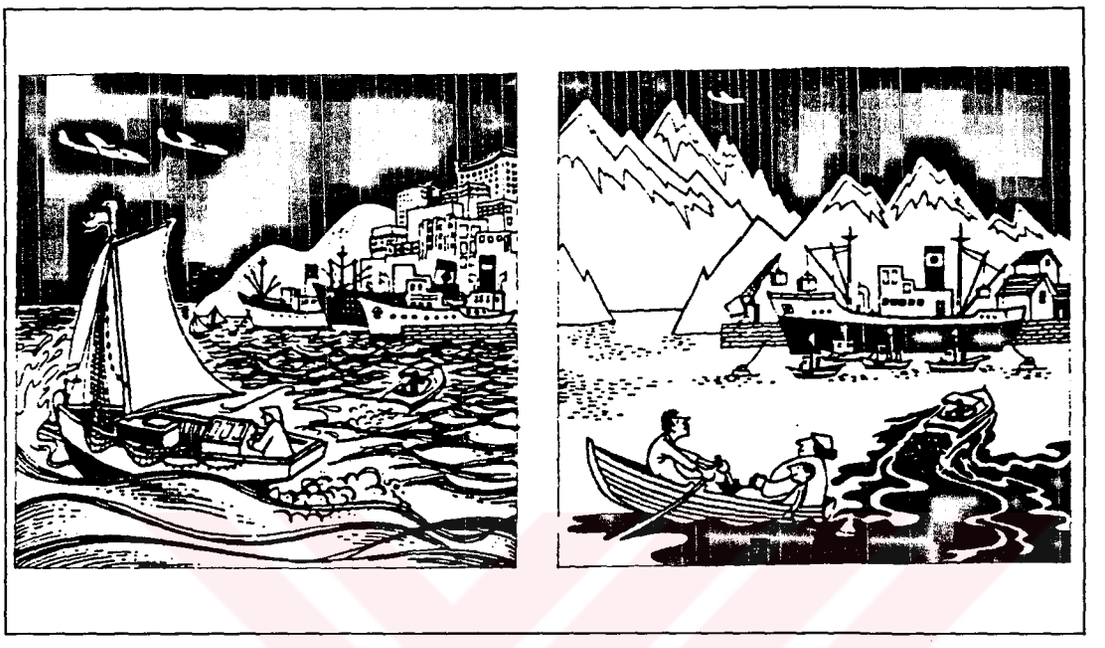
Task 2: (Ashworth & Clark, 1997:36)



3.4.8.2.4. Exercise 4: Description

Another effective way of assessing a student's ability to speak is to give pairs or groups of students a simple task to perform. Working impairs, students can describe their own picture before listening to their partner's description of a similar picture. They then can discuss in which ways the two

pictures are the same and in which way they differ. Here is an example taken from *Heaton, 1990:95.*



3.4.8.2.5. Exercise 5: Dialog

In this activity, first the visuals and sounds are presented. The students take the roles in the second and third presentation by groups. This choral stage is followed by handing out a ditto (a symbol written under a word in a list to show that you want to repeat that word) of the dialog, which the students practice in pairs. The teacher will check linguistic performance during this paired practice. When the students perform the dialog before the class in pairs, they will be encouraged to use their own words and to improvise on the dialog as if it were a role-play. In this stage, the visuals will be superseded by the real improvised situation. The aim is for the students to be able to deal with the language in a related manner. At this stage of improvised dialog, videotaping has been found to be an excellent means of providing the students with feedback on the quality of their performance. For example,

SOUND	VISUAL
1- (George) : Do you want to go to the movies, Hilda?	**1-** Medium-long shot of George and Hilda standing on a sidewalk downtown.
2- (Hilda): I'd like to, but I'm broke You'll have to pay for both of us.	**2-** Medium shot of Hilda, face to camera.
3- (George): Well, I'm nearly broke, too.Maybe we could get something To eat anyway.	**3-** Reverse angle to George.
4- (Hilda): Oh, good. I never get to eat out!	**4-** Two shot, Hilda facing camera Looking pleased.
5- (George): Where would you like to go?	**5-** Two shot, reverse angle with George facing camera.
6- (Hilda): I'd like to eat at the Pizza Palace.	**6-** Medium-long shot of Hilda, Pointing to Pizza Palace sign.
7- (George): The sign says it's closed. We'll have to go somewhere else.	**7-** Close-up hand-lettered sign In window
8- (Hilda): Do you want to get a hamburger at Woody's?	**8-**Medium-shot of Hilda and George Hilda pointing out of picture in the direction of Woody's.
9- (George): Yeah, let us do that. Then we won't have to wait so long.	**9-** Two shot, George facing camera.
10- (Hilda): And Woody's is cheap. We will get to go the movies, too.	**10-** Two shot, reverse angle, Hilda looks joyful.

3.4.8.2.6. Exercise 6: Drill – Teaching mass / count nouns

This activity is an example for a situation where the language is, typically and naturally, limited to one structure. The presentation will be followed by question-answer and improvised dialog. After practicing the improvised dialog, the class will do a written fill-in exercise of the cloze type with one possible dialog. This lesson will follow a lesson on food nouns, and will precede work with nouns for building materials, clothes, and abstract nouns around which more contexts will be built. For example,

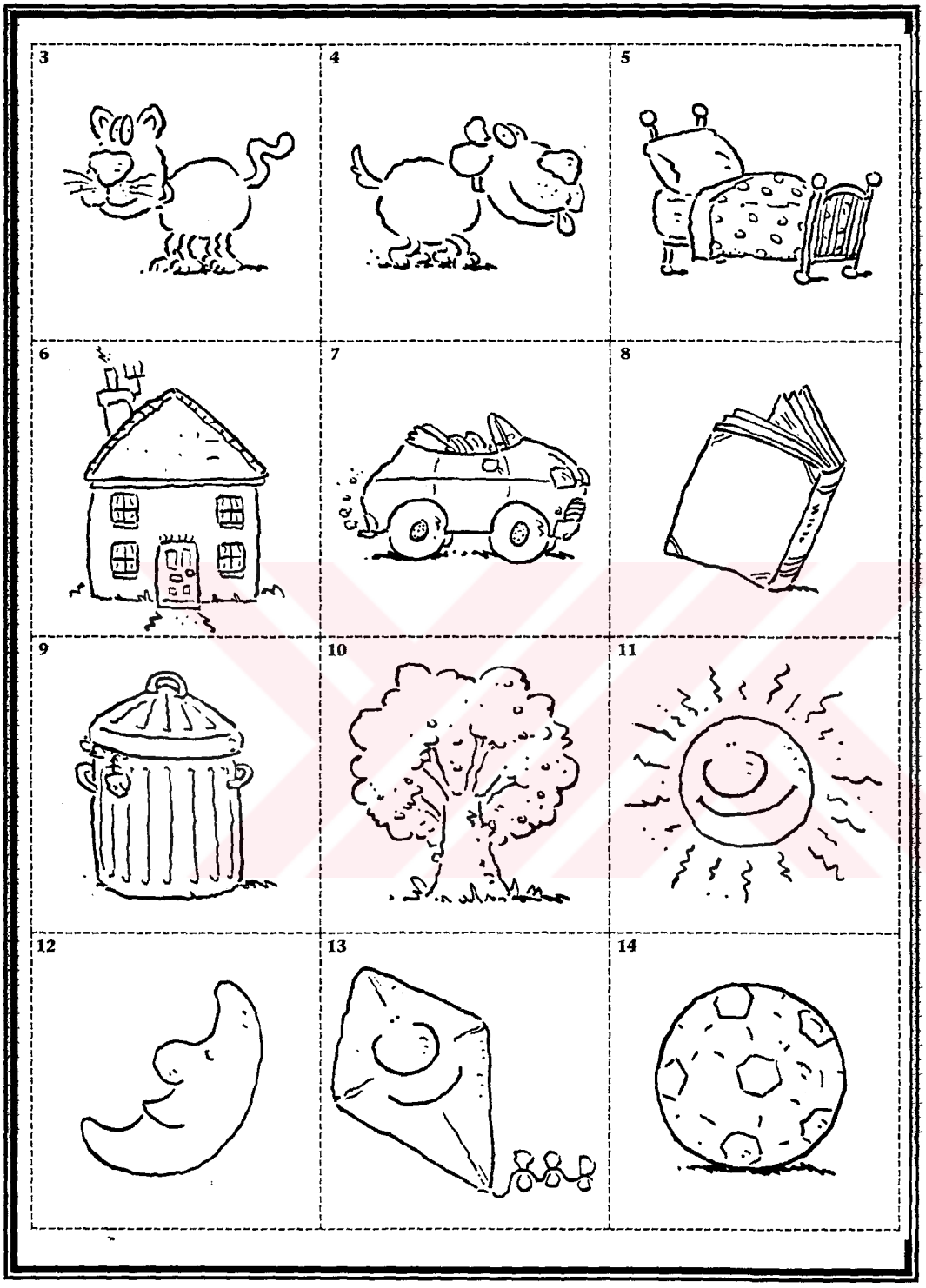
SOUNDS	VISUALS
1- This is the Pacific Avenue filling station	1- Long shot of filling station
2- Fred and Bill work here, and they sell gasoline, oil, tires, and sparkplugs.	2- Medium shot of Fred and Bill servicing car
3- Yesterday, Rafael drove his brother's car to the filling station	3- Medium shot of Rafael driving into the station.
4- First he got some gasoline	4- Close-up gas hole in filler.
5- How much gasoline did he get?	5- Black slide (no image)
6- He got 10 gallons.	6- Close-up meter on gas pump showing ten gallons.
7- Then he got some oil.	7- Medium shot of front of car, hood up, with Fred holding dip stick.
8- How much oil did he get?	8- Black slide
9- He got two quarts.	9- Medium shot of Fred carrying two cans toward the camera.
10- Oh, oh! He needed a tire.	10- Close-up of Rafael looking worriedly at a worn out tire.

3.4.8.3. Teaching Vocabulary

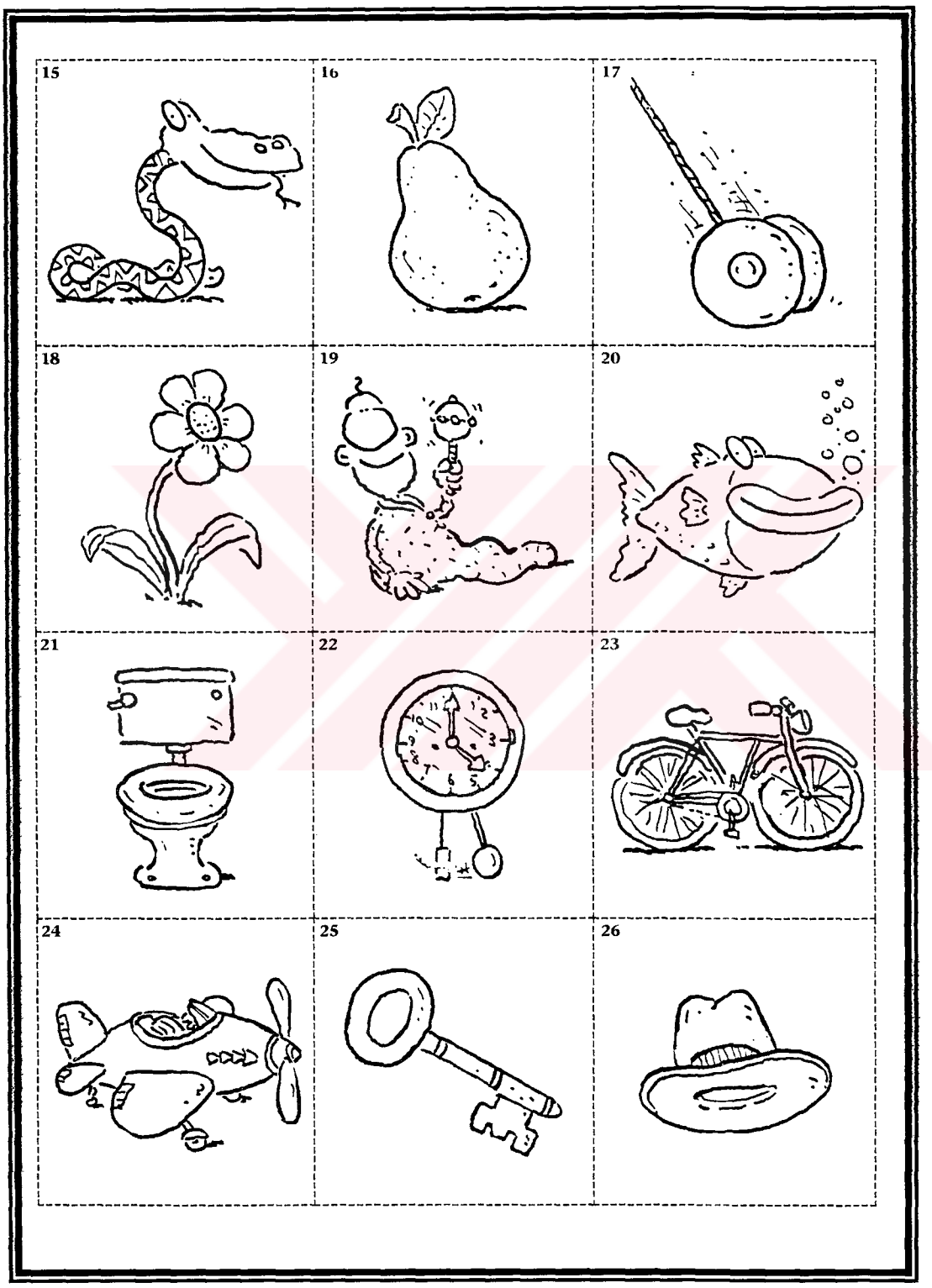
As it is mentioned above there are lots of ways teaching the vocabulary items in terms of the Audiovisual method, the best way of doing this is to use authentic materials, visuals, drawings, charts, or pictures, if possible, because it is believed that learners can learn best by visual aids. Clearly speaking, both aural and visual equipments reinforce language learning. Therefore, the Audiovisual method advocates pictures, objects, gestures, etc to illustrate meaning better. Here some examples given to make clear the idea of teaching vocabulary in the Audiovisual classes.

3.4.8.3.1. Task 1: Using Pictures

The following example was taken from *Ashworth, 1996:2-3.* This is a very useful and effective way of teaching the vocabulary items especially to the elementary level students. Teachers ask the students to tell the English equivalents of the pictures which they refer to a specific noun or word. This activity can also be applied to writing courses by telling students to write the English names for each picture.

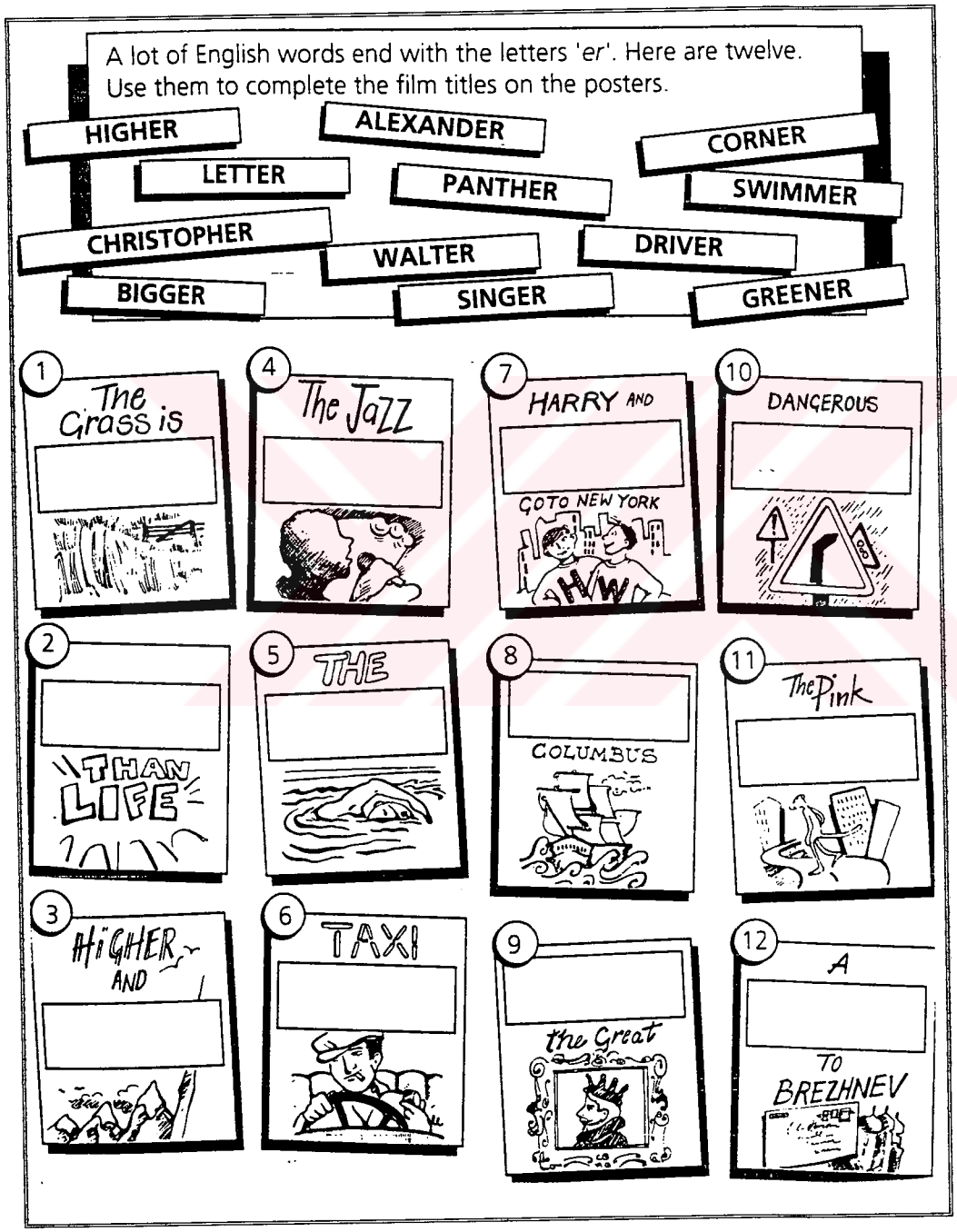

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3.4.8.3.2. Task 2:



3.4.8.3.3. Task 3: Guessing the Names

This activity helps learners get the nouns / names in English ending with (–er). Here some pictures are given to the students and then they are wanted to fill-in the blanks / complete the titles in given blanks.



This example is taken from English Puzzles, 1994: 31 and the pictures are from the famous movies.

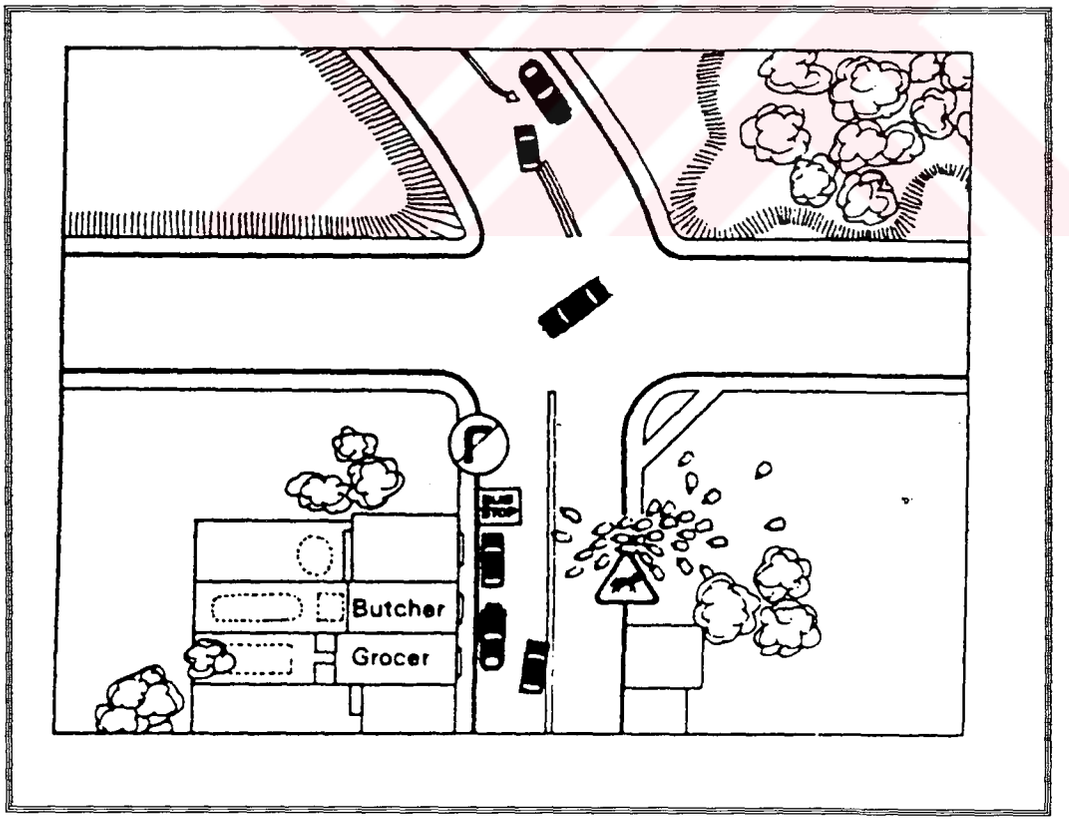
3.4.8.4. Teaching Writing

Pictures, real objects, charts, film or story strips, and diagrams serving as stimuli for descriptions of objects, people, places and processes are mainly used in the Audiovisual method to teach writing .

3.4.8.4.1. Activity 1: Writing with Picture(s)

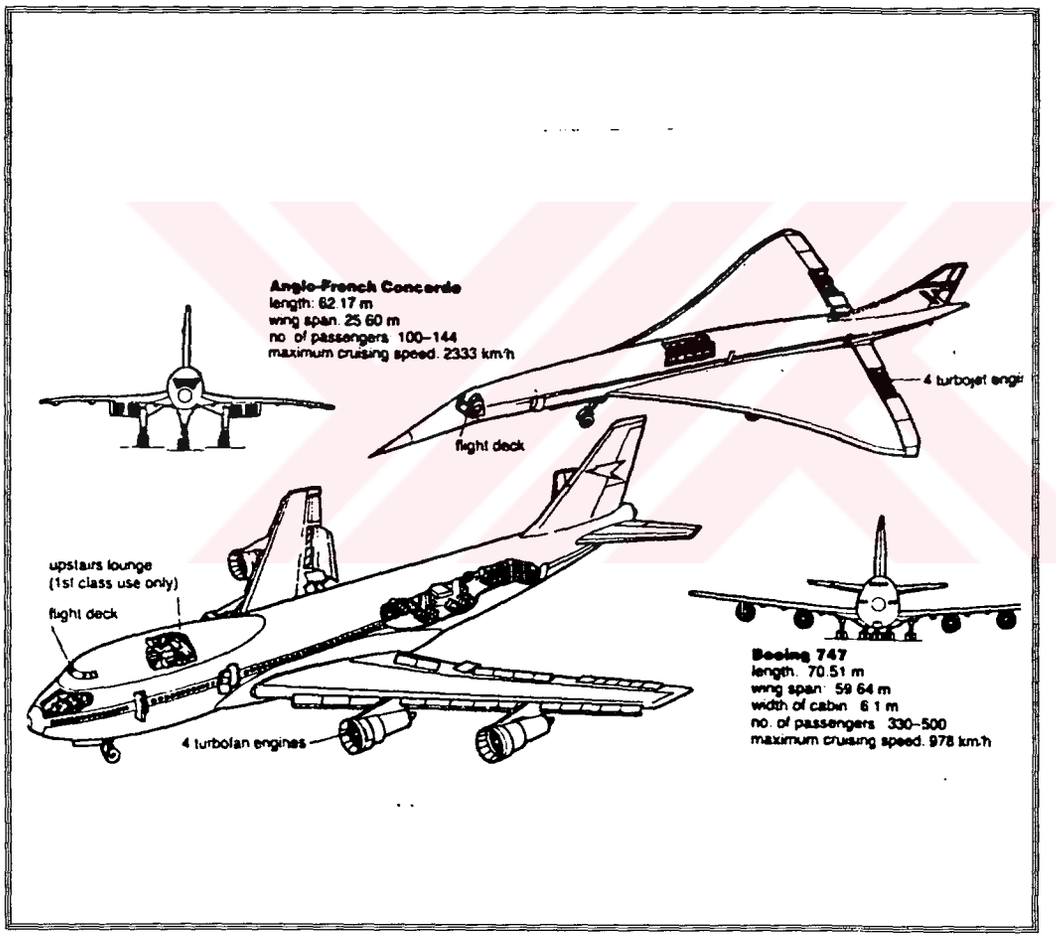
In this activity, some pictures are given to the students. Students are asked to write letters, advertisements, prescriptions, petitions, or something else depending upon the topic of the pictures. Here is the example taken from Heaton, 1990:142.

Instruction: The picture below shows a dangerous junction where accidents often happen. Write a letter to their local newspaper describing the junction and mentioning some of the dangers and causes of accidents.



3.4.8.4.2. Activity 2: Writing with Illustrations-1

In this activity the illustrations of two aircraft has been used as a basis for a fairly detailed comparison. Students are asked to write a composition by using the given information about the planes by making a comparison or contrast. In this way they will be able to review the structures used to make comparison and contrast. The following example is taken from *Heaton, 1990:143.*



3.4.8.4.3. Activity 3: Writing with Illustrations-2

The following example tests students' ability to describe shapes and linear forms as it is assumed that none of them will have any knowledge of the technical terms required for reference to each picture. For example,

Instruction: The pictures below are arranged from the oldest (1) to the most recent (3). Use them to comment on developments in a warrior's clothes and equipment. (Heaton, 1990: 143)



3.4.8.4.4. Activity 4: Writing with Topics

Here are some different activities for writing course in the Audiovisual classes:

a- Look at three TV Soap operas and write a short paragraph to determine whether these would have useful cultural or language content.

b- Find out a dialog and change the speeches of the persons into indirect-quoted narrative.

c- Find a comic strip of four to six frames. White out the words in the speech balloons. Work in pairs in the classroom and ask your friend to fill-in the erased speech balloons.

d- Assemble six photographic prints into a situation and write a short dialog around the sequence. Use the present progressive tense or the past tense as exclusively as possible.

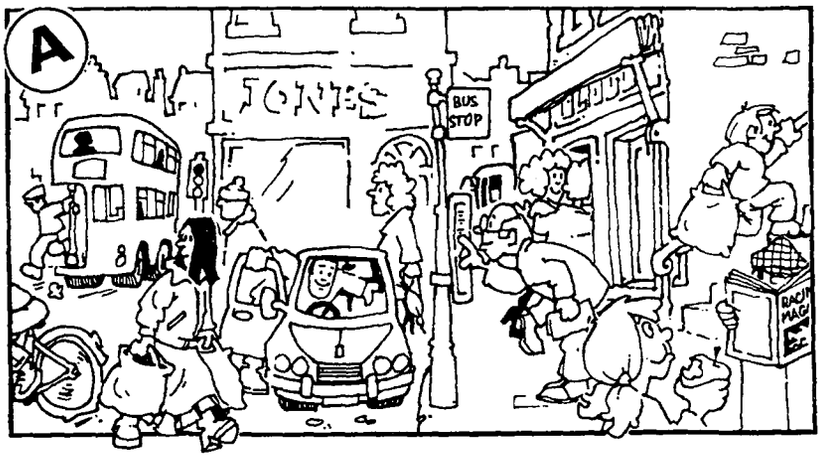
e- Record an actual unrehearsed conversation between you and your friend. Write a transcription of a representative portion.

f- Write a dialog dealing with one of the following. Keep the dialog to within ten lines and use English appropriate to your level.

* buying a shirt, sweater, or pair of shoes
* calling up the local movie theater to ask what's playing
* asking for something at the supermarket
* registration at the university
* buying books
* asking for directions to a shopping center from somewhere
* asking a librarian how to find information about a topic

3.4.8.4.5. Activity 5: Spot the Difference

Students are given two pictures with some differences. They are wanted to find out what these differences are and by using the verbs in the charts, they are asked to write these differences. Number of the differences is not given to make students creative and compare / contrast their findings with their classmates. This example was taken from Play Games with English 2, 1995: 39.





Use these verbs: read eat run down wear get on rain get out smoke come out of look at open carry

The woman is opening her umbrella. It is raining.

In short, the Audiovisual method assumes language as a means of communication, and claims that if students feel that they are learning something useful, they will be more wiling to learn. Pictures, films, filmstrips, slides, tape recordings, etc can be used as a valuable aids to teach the

second language. For example, while watching a film, the students not only focus on the structures of the second language but also they can see ways of behaviors, the setting and clothing style of the natives. Moreover, these materials appeal to eye and ear of the students. Much of learning takes place when listening and watching. A good teacher uses audio – visual aids whenever possible to encourage students in learning. They are helpful in stimulating interest, providing variety, and promoting understanding of structure, vocabulary and culture. Especially in teaching culture, students can overcome the difficulties of learning be traditions, customs, life styles with the help of these aids.

It is obvious that the Audiovisual method also facilitates learning gestures, mimes, body language, paralanguage, etc by audiovisual aids. Pictures cannot display the movements of a body, or action. Yet, films, videos are very useful for presenting a variety of physical and facial types, a variety of ages, people form different social groupings, different physical behaviors, variety of cars, towns, etc. Of course, audiovisual aids help student make a direct bond between these aids and meaning. On the other hand, these aids not only provide visual clues but also aural input. Especially if the written and spoken forms of the words are different, like the English language, it is advisable to use audiovisual aids in early stages. The students who are not familiar with the sounds of the second language may fail to use them appropriately. Thus, the audiovisual method aims to eradicate pronunciation errors form the first of the lessons.

3.5. STRUCTURAL APPROACH

As Rogers and Richards (2201:21-26) state structural view refers language is a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning. The target of language learning is seen to be the mastery of elements of this system, which are generally defined in terms of phonological units, grammatical units, grammatical operations, and lexical items. In

addition to, scholars of this view and approach were interested in everyday speech rather than the language of literary works. In other words, they studied what people said not what grammarians prescribed as the standards of correctness. This new approach, known as descriptivism, tried to describe the components of language hierarchically at the levels of sounds, words and structures.

3.5.1. Principles and Theory of Learning

Structural Approach was mainly based upon the principles of the Structural linguistics, which was developed as a reaction to the Traditional Grammar. The result was more practical interest in language study. Furthermore, a new interest in phonetics, phonology, morphology, and syntax was developed because of the new sound types and new patterns of linguistic invention and organization that were discovered by linguists. By the 1930s, it was accepted that the study of language comprised examples of what speakers said and analyzing them according to different levels of structural organization rather than categories of Latin grammar. It was thought that learning a language requires mastering the elements or building blocks of the language and learning the principles by which these elements are combined from phoneme to morpheme, to word, to phrase and finally to sentence. Those found elements are explained by the phonological system that differentiates meaningfully with each other in the language, their phonetic realizations in particular environments and their permissible sequences. The grammatical system is a combination of a list of grammatical elements and principles for their linear combination into words, phrases, and sentences.

Then, in the 1940s, three major occurrences in America forced a change in the reading only objective (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983:6-7) When the USA entered the World War, II , it found that there were few people who could speak a foreign language. So crash programs of eight or more hours a

day to teach the aural-oral skills were started in many parts of the United States. The other two occurrences were more theoretical. The ideas of the psychologist Skinner began to be used as a way of explaining what happens when we teach and learn languages, and linguists like Bloomfield and Fries started to apply the ideas of structural linguistics to language teaching. What emerged has been loosely called the Structural Approach (or even the Linguistic Approach). The aspect of Skinner's work, which was associated most strongly with this approach, was the view of language learning as habit formation. It was held that the patterns of the language, as defined by structural linguistics, needed to be over-learned by students so that they would be produced correctly as a matter of unconscious habit. Consequently, meaningless repetition of correct forms was considered valuable. At the same time, it was maintained that contrasts between the structure of the native language and the target language caused conflict because the patterns of the target language would fight against the established patterns of the native language and the target language caused conflict because the patterns of the target language would fight against the established patterns of the native language.

3.5.2. Syllabus

This approach is used a structural syllabus which is a list of the basic structures and sentence patterns arranged according to their order of presentation. The order of introducing grammatical items and structures in a structural syllabus may be based on such factors such as frequency, difficulty, usefulness, or a combination of these.

Consequently, it can be said that the primacy and the most important thesis of the Structural Approach is the priority of the oral language. According to Structural linguistics, language is speech since many languages do not have a written form and the first skill that takes place in language acquisition of children is speaking. Here are some other significant elements

about language learning suggested by descriptive practices of the Structural linguistics:

1- Language learning is a verbal behavior and that is what the students should be involved in.
2- If the spoken form of language precedes the written form, language skills are learned more effectively.
3- Analogy is better than analysis in language learning, To form correct analogies, students must practice drills.
4- Language should be presented in cultural context.

3.5.3. Discussion Questions for Students

1- What are the basic tenets of this approach?
2- Discuss the differences / similarities between the Behavioristic Approach and the Structural Approach.
3- What are the significant points of the syllabus of this approach?

3.5.4. Basic Techniques and Exercise / Activity Types

Audiolingual method and the audiovisual method can be used in the implementation stage of this approach. As a basic technique *drilling* can be used effectively. The language teachers have the learners listen to a particular passage books closed, or have them repeat, or respond. Then, s/he gives some questions and asks the students to answer with the other. This is a mechanical step, but forces the students to manipulate the subject.

3.5.4.1. Activity 1: Dialog

The following dialogs can be used to teach the learner how to speak when they are at a hotel or at a bank. By the help of these types of dialogs learners can also learn the necessary vocabularies to be used in certain situations. The following dialogs were taken from *More Dialogs for Everyday Use,1984:14-16.*

AT THE HOTEL

***Clerk**: Yes, sir. May I help you?*

***Tony:** I have a reservation for tonight. Tony Davis.*

***Clerk:** Just a moment, please, while I check. That is correct. You have a reservation for a three-room suite for tonight.*

***Tony:** I am afraid there has been a mistake. I only asked for a single room, not a suit.*

***Clerk:** I'm sorry Mr. Davis, but we have only the suite available. Your request arrived too late to reserve a single. There's a large convention in town this week and we're full up.*

Step 1: Repetition of the lines of the dialog for several times.

In this first step, students are asked to repeat after the teacher the lines of the dialog by taking the teacher as a model for themselves. This activity is done as accurately and as fast as possible. The aim of this activity is to teach the lines of the dialog.

Step 2: Chain Drills:

This is a kind of chain exercise. Teacher begins to ask a question or greets a student. Then student responds his/her question or greeting. Later, the student turns his/her friend and asks a question or greets him/ her, and it goes on until the last students respond to the questions or greetings. For example,

Teacher: Now, I will begin by asking a question one of your friends. S/he will respond to my question, and then s/he will turn to her/his friend sitting next to her/him and will ask a question and the chain will continue. Let's begin.

T: *Do you have a reservation at a hotel for tonight, Jim?*

Jim: *Yes, sir.*

T: *Good. Have you reserved a three-room suite?*

Jim: *Yes, right. (He understands from the gestures of the teacher that he is to turn to his friend sitting next to him and ask the same question)*

Jim: *Helen, Do you have a reservation at a hotel for tonight*

Helen: *Yes, Jim.*

Jim: *Have you reserved a three-room suite?*

Helen: *Yes, Jim. I've reserved a three-room suite…..*

(The chain continues in the same way until every students has a chance to ask and answer)

Step 3: Single-Slot Drills:

Teacher says a line from the dialog. Next, s/he says a word or a phrase, namely Cue. Students repeat the line, substituting the cue in the line in its proper place. So, they will have a chance to understand or review parts of the speech. For example,

T: *You have a reservation for a three-room suite for tonight.*
→ ***tomorrow***

T: *You have a reservation for three-room suite for* ***tomorrow.***

T: the weekend

Students: *You have a reservation for a two-room suite for* ***the weekend..***

T: ***next week***

Students: You have a reservation for a two-room suite for ***next week****.*

T: next Saturday

Students: *You have a reservation for a two-room suite for* ***next Saturday.***

T: .....

S: .....

Step 4: Multiple-slot Substitution Drill

Teacher gives cue phrases, one at a time that fit into different slots in the dialog line. Students must recognize what part of speech each cue is and make any other changes such as Subject-verb agreement. For example,

T: You have a reservation for a three-room suite for tonight. We

*T: **We** have a reservation for a three-room suite for tonight.*

T: She

*S: **She has** a reservation for a three-room suite for tonight.*

T: Sunday

*S: She has a reservation for a three-room suite for **Sunday.***

T: My wife and I

*S: **My wife and I** have a reservation for a three-room suite for Sunday*

Step 5: Question-and-answer Drills

Students answer the questions of the teacher very quickly. Teacher can give some cues for the students to make them ask questions which will give them practice with the question patterns. This activity can be done using some pictures, real objects, or drawings which will help the learners get the necessary vocabulary to answer the questions. If the pictures are not related to the words in the questions, the answers will be given in negative forms. For example,

T: *(showing a picture of a hotel) Is there a large convention at the hotel?*

T: *Yes, there is a large convention at the hotel.*

T: *(showing a picture of a museum) Is there a large convention at the museum?*

T: *Yes, there is. (showing a picture of a park this time) Is there a large convention at the subway?*

T: *No, there is not. Now, you do the same !*

T: *(showing the picture of a hotel) Is there a large convention at the café ?*

S: *No, there is not a large convention at the hotel.*

This activity continues in this way until students are able to answer the questions correctly and without hesitation.

Step 6: Writing Activity

In order to test the writing abilities of the students, teacher writes the dialog on the blackboard and erases some selected words, nouns, or phrases from it. Students are asked to fill in these erased parts with the missing words that they have learned from the dialog. For example,

AT THE HOTEL

***Clerk**: Yes, sir. May I help you?*

***Tony:** I have a ..... for tonight. Tony Davis.*

***Clerk:** Just a moment, please, while I check. That is correct. You have a reservation for a..... for tonight.*

***Tony:** I am afraid there has been a ..... I only asked for a ....., not a .....*

***Clerk:** I'm sorry Mr. Davis, but we have only the suite available. Your ..... arrived too late to reserve a single. There's a large ..... in town this week and we're full up.*

3.5.4.2. Activity 2: Dialog Teaching

AT THE BANK

***Teller:** May I help you?*

***Nancy:** I'd like to cash this check, please.*

***Teller:** Do you have an account with us?*

***Nancy:** Yeah. Here's my identification card.*

***Teller:** Do you want large or small bills?*

***Nancy:** Actually, I want to buy some traveler's checks.*

***Teller:** What denomination?*

***Nancy:** Twenties would be fine.*

***Teller:** Do you want the whole amount in traveler's checks?*

***Nancy:** Yes, please.*

The dialog given above was taken from *More Dialogs for Everyday Use,1984:14-16.* With the help of this dialog students are taught intonation, stress, pronunciation, structures, vocabulary, and some grammatical patterns. Some exercises for these are taken into consideration here. For example,

Step 1: Introducing the Dialog / Repetition

As it is mentioned, all Oral Approach classes begin with a dialog and the repetition of that dialog by taking the teacher as a mode. Here, teacher provides students with a native-like model so that students can have the opportunity to get the correct pronunciation of the words, phrases, and get the correct intonation, stress, etc. At the same time, in this way students get a process of habit formation.

Step 2: Participation Drill

In this activity, students are divided into two groups as A and B. Student A asks a question related to the main concern of the dialog and wants the student B to answer the question. Each time s/he changes the necessary word / or phrase in the question. For example,

Student A	**Student B**
Did you have *an account* with us ?	Yes, we did. We had an account.
..... *a date* ..... ?	Yes, we did. We had a date.
..... *a contact* ..... ?	Yes, ...
..... *an appointment* .....?	Yes, ...
..... *an interview* ..... ?	Yes, ...

Step 3: Transformation Drill

Students are given a sentence, for example, an affirmative one, and they are asked to transform this sentence into a negative sentence. Or students are asked to transform sentences from active to passive ; from direct to indirect; from affirmative to interrogative, and so on. This activity helps learners to use their knowledge about the different structures and gives learners to make practice with different structures. For example,

T: *I want to buy some travelers checks . Put this sentence into negative.*

S. *I don't want to buy some travelers check.*

T. *Right. Now put the same sentence into interrogative form.*

S: *Don't I want to buy some travelers check?*

T: *Ok. Now put the same sentence into Tag Question form.*

S: Don't I want to buy some travelers check, do I ?

This activity goes on like this until teachers become sure that the structures have been learned well.

3.5.4.3. Teaching Pronunciation

In teaching pronunciation, integrated forms of pronunciation teaching have been used as Kenworthy (1987) says. That is, teaching pronunciation takes place as an incidental to the other aspects of language, which may indirectly help students gain awareness of pronunciation. In pronunciation teaching teachers should apply the odd-one-out, multiple choice exercises, keyword technique, tongue twisters, minimal pairs, etc. as the main types of activities and techniques. The control of the learners in acquiring a foreign

pronunciation, speech training and practical phonetics play an important role; therefore, exercises focus on a direct and practical way on sound features.

3.5.4.3.1. Odd One Out

It is also used in pronunciation teaching in which the teacher gives a list of words and short phrases, then s/he wants students to identify which one is different. That is, learners try to spot the pattern, which is different from the other.

e.g. at dinner – the paper – potato – not enough - forever – teaspoon *(Kenworthy, 1987 : 62)*

3.5.4.3.2. Multiple Choice Exercises

They are very beneficial in pronunciation in order to increase the mental abilities of the learners. The following are some examples of the multiple choice exercises prepared for Intermediate level students to teach the differences between the / Λ / and the / æ / sound.

Which of the following word has / Λ / sound ?

1- a) pass	b) poll	c) pun	d) pact	e) pond
2- a) abate	b) abbey	c) ably	d) above	e) aboard
3- a) public	b) poker	c) panic	d) pancy	e) popular
4- a) socket	b) sudden	c) song	d) southward	e) sound
5- a) donkey	b) donor	c) dust	d) dotty	e) dowdy

Which of the word does not have an / æ / sound ?

1- a) solvage	*b) saloon*	*c) saddle*	*d) sadden*	*e) sacred*
2- a) Monaco	*b) Sudan*	*c) Surinam*	*d) Zambia*	*e) Vietnam*
3- a) massive	*b) mastery*	*c) matinee*	*d) matter*	*e) matron*
4- a) laryngitis	*b) after*	*c) laden*	*d) latter*	*e) lavish*
5- a) alibi	*b) after*	*c) afresh*	*d) alcohol*	*e) album*

3.5.4.3.3. Minimal Pairs

These are also used in practice part because they have important roles in teaching pronunciation and in speech training. At least six examples should be given by the teacher. Minimal pairs can be used in three different types: *same-different, 1-2-3,* and *Column a – b* . The following exemplifies these recognition exercises. While applying the same-different exercises, teacher gives the following instruction :

T: *I am going to pronounce two words at a time. Listen carefully and say same if you hear the same sound or say different if you hear different sounds. First listen to the example:*

Then, s/he utters such pairs of words: *trash – trash / sadden – sudden / cram – cream / branch – brunch / mass – muss / slam – slam / track –truck / adder –adder, etc.*

While applying *1-2-3 exercise teacher* says that, *" I am going to pronounce three words. Listen carefully and tell me the number of the one which is different "* Then, s/he utters such group words : *hit – hit – hit / feel – fill – feel / beat – beat – bit / sleep – slip – slip / sheep – ship – sheep / seat – seat – seat / bean – bin – bin , etc.*

3.5.4.3.4. Pair-matching Type

This is one of the production exercises, which is also employed in the cognitive classes. Teacher asks students to tell the other word of pair after giving one word from the pair. S/he can give the first words from the following minimal pairs and asks for the other one while teaching the / ʌ / and / æ / sounds. For example,

snug –snag	track – truck	uncle – arcle
jungle – jangle	butter – batter	rabble – rubble
brunch – branch	stump – stamp	mashed – mushed
hutch – hatch	rapture – rupture	suck – sack
stuff – staff	lust – last	mud – mad

After dealing with these kind of exercises, students become ready for the application part. Application stage generally takes place in the speaking processes through various activities. For example, *shadowing* is one of them (Kenworthy, 1987 :33) In this activity the role cards of a spokesman and aide are given. The cards should be slightly different from the other. When the spokesman says different introduction, the aide should notice and interrupt politely and correct the mistake. It is helpful in memorizing the roles.

3.5.4.3.5. Dialogs

Dialogs and conversation may also be used in a creative manner in order to refer to the learner's perceptional links. For example, teacher prepares and hands out a menu to the students to prepare a dialog using the items in the menu. The conversation takes place at a restaurant. The names of the food on the menu consist of either / æ / or / Λ / sound in order to make students distinguish these two problematic sounds. The menu consists of these items : *cup of tea / coffee / mixed ham sandwich with mustard / mixed salad / mixed salad with onion / current bun / jam sponge / apple pie / butter / plum jam / honey / custard.* Teacher may also ask them to find intonation patterns, stress, pitch and juncture besides some certain sounds.

3.5.4.3.6. Tongue Twisters

Tongue twister is a word or phrase that is difficult to say because it contains many difficult sounds, especially ones that are very similar. This type of activity may be useful to make necessary repetitions about some

problematic sounds in the target language. After having been determined the problematic sounds by teachers, students can be given some sentences or phrases that include these similar sounds. That is to say, words that contain the same or similar sounds are juxtaposed and the exercise is to say them as rapidly as possible. Here are some examples:

Exercise 1: Sentences including /-iy/ and /-ey/ sounds

1- The grainy green lake leaks.
2- The wheat wait when grain is green.
3- Teal with a tail flew to air.
4- The feel when you fail is not fair.
5- Keep the cape over the seat.

Exercise 2: Sentences including / v/ and /w/ sounds

1- White wine of Vermont village
2- Virginia and Vancouver valley with warm wind
3- View of the valley from white window
4- Vote in favor of wife of Wilson
5- Warm wind blew from Vincent's vineyard

3.5.4.3.7. Keyword Technique

It is a learning strategy in which the learner thinks of a homophone – the keyword – in the native language for the word s/he is trying to remember in the target language. The learner then imagines a situation in which the homophone and the target language word are interacting in some way. In remembering the target word, the learner recalls the homophone and the situation in which it was used. For example, in learning the French word for "door" – *porte* – a learner might think of a near homophone in English such as "*a porter*". Then the learner thinks of a situation involving a porter such as "*a porter opening a door to carry in a bag* ". When the learner wants to remember the French word for "door", s/he thinks of the situation and the

keyword – *porter.* This helps recall the French word – *porte.* For instance, students are given some words/verbs in the target language and they are wanted to find out homophones for each in their native language. Here are some examples with some alternative samples:

ENGLISH	TURKISH HOMOPHONES
fish	fiş (ticket)
highly	hayli (too much)
dish	diş (tooth)
tell	tel (wire)
car	kar (snow)
far	far (headlights)
cork	kork (be afraid)
bay	bey (Mr)
neigh	ney (instrument)
tie	tay (pony)
boy	boy (length)
dull	dal (branch of a tree)

3.6. THE ORAL APPROACH (SITUATIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHING)

The term Oral Approach that refers to an approach to language teaching was developed by British applied linguists from the 1930s to the 1960s. The Oral Approach was developed by British applied linguists like Harold Palmer and A. S. Hornby who were among the most prominent figures in Britain on 20th century language teaching. They reacted against the

Direct Method and tried to find a more scientific basis for foreign language teaching. The impact of the approach can be clearly observed in textbooks published not only in the times the approach emerged but also in 1970s, for example, *Streamline English* (1979) by Hartley and Viney ; *Kernel Lessons Plus* (1973) by O'Neill ; *Access to English* (1975) by Coles and Lord and many books of L.G. Alexander explicitly adopt the Situational Language Teaching and reflect its principles. This approach should not be confused with the Direct method since the former entails a gradation from simple to complex which does not exist in the latter.

The Oral Approach also accepts reading and writing skills, but in actual practice these skills come into their own after the first stage of learning, that is, present yourself in an oral by speaking. The aim of the Oral Approach is to train the students to produce orally, automatically, and without hesitation. In this linguistic approach, oral features such as intonation, stress, pitch, and structural signals come under close examination. Rules of grammar are learned incidentally as a result of pattern practice, first in meaningful situations and then in reinforcement exercises. In fact, it is basically the ability to use the target language at normal speed and with freedom with native or native-like.

3.6.1. Principles and Theory of Language Learning

According to Rodgers, the Oral Approach was firmly established by the foundations of the British approach in TEFL / TESL. The Oral Approach was set up the efforts of Palmer and Hornby and with the development of approaches to the lexical and grammatical content of a language course. The theory of learning underlying Oral Approach is a type of behaviorist habit-learning theory; it attaches importance to processes in learning a language. One is receiving the knowledge and the second is fixing it in the memory by repetition, the last is using it in actual practice until it becomes a personal skill (Palmer, 1967: 136) The Oral Approach was built on some peculiar principles which are to be taken up one by one below :

1- Since speech is viewed as the basis of language, presentation should be done first in the oral form, then in the written form.
2- Target language is the language of the classroom.
3- New language points are introduced and practiced situationally.
4- Grammar and vocabulary are immensely important. A grammatical syllabus and a word list are used in the lessons. In the syllabus there takes place a list of basic structures and sentence patterns of English arranged according to the order of presentation
5- All language points should be introduced and practiced in situational contexts. This is the most distinctive feature of this approach.
6- Native language is never used in the lessons. Translation does not take place in grammar or vocabulary teaching as well. Billows (1961:28) plays up this principle by the following words:

> *If we give the meaning of a new word, either by translation into the home language or by an equivalent in the same language, as soon as we introduce it, we weaken the impression which the word makes on the mind.*

7- An inductive teaching style is adopted.
8- The grammar points should be graded from easy to complex and be presented according to this graduation.
9- Reading and writing come after a sufficient lexical and grammatical proficiency is established.
10- The practitioners of the approach adopts Structuralism but not in the way the proponents of the Grammar-Translation. It advocates that the knowledge of structures must be linked to situations.
11- Language learning is habit formation, so memorization through repetition can be observed during the lessons. Frisby (1957 :136) clarified this point as follows :

> *As Palmer has pointed out, there are three processes in learning a language- receiving the knowledge of materials, fixing it in memory by repetition, and using it in actual practice until it becomes a personal skill.*

12-Accuracy in both pronunciation and grammar is fundamental and errors are not tolerated.

13-Visuals and realia are frequently used during the lessons.

The main idea of the Oral Approach is to teach the language through speech. This enables this approach advantageous if it is decided that language must be taught situationally because language is primarily speech; the first language is learnt through speech; speech is a useful instrument for practice than writing, and so on.

3.6.2. Syllabus

This approach advocates the importance of Structural syllabus with situational contexts. A structural syllabus is a list of the basic structures and sentence patterns arranged according to their order of presentation. Structures are always taught within sentences and vocabulary is chosen according to how well it enables sentence patterns to be taught. Lessons are generally teacher directed and teacher sets the pace. For example, Frisby (1957:134) illustrated a typical structural syllabus employed in classes following the Oral Approach as follows:

	Sentence Pattern	*Vocabulary*
1st lesson	*This is…….*	*book, pencil*
	That is …….	*ruler, desk*
2nd lesson	*These are……*	*chair, picture*
	Those are……	*door, window*
3rd lesson	*Is this…..? Yes, it is.*	*watch, box*
	Is that …..?Yes, it is.	*pen, blackboard*

A sample lesson according to the Oral Approach can be employed as follow:

1- Listening practice in which the hearer obtains students' attention and repeats an example of the patterns of a word in isolation clearly several times, probably saying it slowly at least once

2- Choral imitation in which students all together or in large groups repeat what the teacher has said. This works best if the teacher gives a clear instruction like "Repeat" or "Everybody" and hand "signals to mark time and stress".

3- Individual imitation in which the teacher asks several individual students to repeat the model he has given in order to check their pronunciation.

4- Isolation in which the teacher isolates sounds words or groups of words which cause trouble

5- Building up to a new model in which the teacher gets students to ask and answer questions using patterns they already know

6- Elicitation in which the teacher uses mime, prompt words, gestures, etc.

7- Substitution drilling in which the teacher uses cue words to get students to mix the examples of the new patterns

8- Question-answer drilling in which the teacher gets one student to ask a question and another to answer until most students in the class have practiced asking and answering the new question form.

9- Correction in which the teacher indicates by shaking his his/her head repeating the error that there is a mistake and invites the student or a different student to correct it.

Generally speaking, any Oral skill lessons should have three divisions: Contextualization, Drill, and Communication.

3.6.3. Learner and Teacher Roles

Learners are expected to deduce the meaning of a structure or a word from the situation in which it is introduced. They are also expected to apply what they learned in the classroom to the situations outside the classroom. In the initial stages, learners are passive and they only listen, make repetitions, answers questions and have no control on the content of learning. In the subsequent stages, they are more active and are allowed to initiate responses and ask questions. During the practice phase of the lessons, students are given more of an opportunity to use the language in less controlled situations.

As the roles of the teachers, Richards and Rogers (1988: 38-39) divide them into three. In the presentation stage of the lesson the teacher serves as a model, setting up situations in which the need for the target structure is created and then modeling the new structure for the students to repeat. Then the teacher behaves as an orchestra conductor. The teacher is required to be a skillful manipulator, using questions, commands and other clues to elicit correct sentences from the learners.

3.6.4. Strong Sides

In the light of the ideas and principles given above, here, some strong sides of this approach are handled:

1- To teach a practical command of the four basic skills of language is the objective of this approach.

2- Accuracy in both pronunciation and grammar is regarded as crucial.

3- Students are given more opportunities to use the language.

4- The target language is used in classroom situations, so learners have the opportunity to hear as much as target language during the course hours.

5- Actions are simulated to illustrate the utterances; numerous pictures and other real objects are used. It is possible to practice many questions and answers with the dialog utterances and even talk about likes and dislikes.

3.6.5. Weak Sides

Like every approach and method, the Oral Approach has also some defects or shortcomings. For example,

1- Since this approach is mainly concerned with the spoken form of the language, it somewhat ignores the written forms.

2- In classes there is no or limited reading activities; therefore, it will be difficult to improve the reading abilities of the learners as well as their understanding in the written texts.

3- Once started on the texts such as *At the Supermarket, At the Hotel*, etc., there was little or no deviation. Learners were generally not shown how the structure or an expression in a particular unit could be used in another.

4- More important, situations cannot be graded. The sequencing of situations was generally random, making it difficult or impossible to grade the structures without falsifying the situation.

5- Today, many situationally based texts are encouraging greater leeway. There is awareness that in real-life speech we do not generally adhere to the same vocabulary area in conversation.

3.6.6. Contributions to ELT

The Oral Approach, or the Situational Language Teaching, acquired a deserved fame all over the world as a British approach to foreign language teaching. It had a widespread effect on schools, and at course teachers in 1960s and 1970s. The textbooks written with this approach are still exploited in many countries at the world. Moreover, its principles and techniques have

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influenced other methods on a large scale, anyway, the Communicative Approach which is another British approach to language teaching is a modified version of the Oral Approach.

Thanks to Oral Approach, especially the real-life expressions come into being in the field of language teaching / learning. In this way, learners are taught how they should speak in some certain situations. For example, how to speak when they are at a hotel, at a restaurant, at the barbershop, and so on. In addition they became aware of to talk about their likes, dislikes, interests, hobbies, etc. By Oral Approach, one can attain the ability to use the target language at normal speed with freedom. The oral features such as intonation, stress, pitch, and structural signals are learned incidentally in Oral Approach.

3.6.7. Related Methods

There are no related methods for this approach since it stayed only at the approach level.

3.6.8. Discussion Questions for Students

1- What are the goals of the teachers in the Oral Approach?

2- .Do you really think that Oral Approach supports the expectations of the learners in terms of learning a foreign language?

3- State the shortcomings of this approach.

4- How do you understand that this approach has been supported by the behaviorism?

5- State the basic characteristics of learning / teaching process

6- Is Oral Approach used today? Why?

As a result, it can be said that the Oral Approach, otherwise known as Situational Language Teaching, acquired a deserved fame all over the world

as a British approach to foreign language teaching. It put forward the importance of the spoken form of language. It presented an interesting way of teaching a language by combining the structural syllabus with situational contexts. It was really a very different concept in the years it emerged when such a synthesis of structures and situations were put forward for the first time. Presentation, Practice and Production are the three most important stages in language teaching according to the Oral Approach. The basic tenets of the Situational Language teaching are, of course, oral practice, grammar, sentence patterns, and national syllabuses.

CHAPTER 4

COGNITIVE APPROACHES FROM 1950 to 1970

In this chapter, cognitive-based approaches such as Cognitive Approach and Cognitive-code Approach emerged during the periods between 1950 and 1970 will be handled. This period is generally known as the *"Modern Era"* in the language teaching and learning field. However, the Humanistic Approach can also be included in this Modern Era period. These approaches basically emerged as a reaction to Behaviorist view and the Audiolingualism. Before starting with the principles and contributions of these approaches to language teaching and learning field, some knowledge will be given about the term cognitive approaches in general.

4.1. GENERAL DEFINITION ABOUT COGNITIVE APPROACHES

Cognitive principles began to exert greater influence on learning and teaching during the same period that the Audio-lingual method (1950-1960) was at the height of its popularity. Leaders, authors, and teachers gradually placed less importance on conditioning techniques and more on cognitive processing as a basis for language learning and put forward Cognitive Approaches as a reaction to the behavioristic features of the Audiolingual method. The Cognitive development theory of Piaget and the Structural linguist Saussure influenced the existence of the Cognitive theory. It is based on the studies of psychologists and psycholinguists. Cognitive psychologists claim that what an organism knows about its environment has been transformed not only by the sense organs but also by complex structures or systems that process, interpret, and reinterpret the sensory input. So, the organism is considered an active participant that selects only the meaningful stimuli from its environment. It does this by means of a set of psychological operations called memory operations, structurally distinguishable in three parts, namely sensory memory, short-term memory and long-term memory.

With the contribution of Cognitive psychology, Transformational Generative Grammar was developed by Chomsky. (Henceforth,TGG). According to Chomsky, *"....acquisition of the rules of sound structure, depending upon fixed principles governing possible sound systems for human languages, the elements of which they are constituted the manner of their combination and modification that may undergo in various contexts."* (Chomsky, 1988:26) Therefore, it is known that Cognitive psychology has received most of its theoretical thrust from TGG. Cognitive psycholinguistics maintain that language learning cannot be explained solely as the acquisition of a set of habits by he process of conditioning as the Behaviorists declared (Titone, et. al., 1985:58). The type of rote learning stressed by Behaviorists is valid only for short-term memory whereas for long-term memory meaningful learning is almost always involved. Meaningful learning means the process of relating new material to the relevant schemata or areas of Cognitive structure. When new material enters the cognitive field, it interacts with the existing schemata. Piagetean approach contempt that new information should first be assimilated. In other words, new connections should be made as attributes to the concept, which would in term, modified the taxonomic architecture of the concept. Piaget calls this later process accommodation through which a permanent and stable learning of new information occurs. But rote-learning involves the mental storage of items without connecting them to existing cognitive structure. In Cognitive learning theory, therefore, rote-learning procedures such as repetition, imitation, and reinforcement have taken only a small role. Too much use of grammatical explanations may be counterproductive unless it is made useful by integration of examples into already well-established semantic items and they are usually not conceptual units and therefore cannot mediate the information of higher level learning process.

Basic tenets of the Cognitive Approaches conform to the general learning theories of the Cognitive psychology and the language models of the transformational-generative linguists as it mentioned before. The goal is to

develop students' competence to the point at which they can formulate their own replies to previously unmet language situations. Teacher first establishes in the students' cognitive structure the necessary prerequisites that enable them to perform in communicative situations. During the entire learning process both learning and language should always be meaningful. So, it can be said that one of the most important factor, in addition to the TGG, promoting the shift to the Cognitive approaches was growing disenchantment with the results being achieved by students in Audio-lingual classes. Graduates of Audio-lingual programs were not bilingual. Reliance solely upon the ear in beginning language classes hindered eye-oriented students. Teachers found it very difficult to eliminate English from the classroom and they did not think it necessary to do so. Avoiding any discussion of grammar until after the structure had been drilled took longer and frustrated many students. Spending long periods of class time on oral drills was monotonous and tiresome both to students and to teachers (Childers, 1964: 48)

When a comparison is made between Linguistic and Cognitive approaches, all linguistic approaches assume that language has a structure or grammar that is somewhat independent of language use. (Bohannon, 1997: 269) This independent rule system specifies the sentences that are "grammatical" or permissible in any particular language. The linguistic approach has followed several lines. The first attempted to support the concept of grammatical rules as links between what is meant and what is said. Such evidence would support Chomsky's distinction between underlying structure and the overt surface structure. On the other hand, the cross-cultural or cross-linguistic perspective has also proven to be a rich source of data concerning the biological basis of language.(Slobin, 1986:15) Because LAD is assumed to function in all children, it must allow the acquisition of any language. According to the theory of the linguistic approach, LAD could construct a grammar from any kind of linguistic textual presentation, no matter how abstract, complex, or error-filled. Linguistic

approach tends to resort to innateness as an explanation without considering alternative hypotheses.

Therefore, the main difference between Linguistic approaches and Cognitive Approaches to language learning is that whereas the former believe human beings to be endowed with a language-specific module in the mind, the latter do not believe that language is separate from other aspects of cognition; the human mind is geared to the processing of all kinds of information (information being understood in a broad sense), and linguistic information is just one type, albeit highly complex (Mitchell & Myles,1998:73). They also state that three approaches, namely the *perceptual saliency approach*, *connectionism*, and the *information processing approach*, affected the cognitivists in terms of language learning. Of these, the perceptual saliency approach is largely based on the work of Dan Slobin in the 1970s and 1980s, culminating with the publication of a two-volume cross-linguistic study of child language development in 1985. He argues that the similarity in that human beings are programmed to perceive and organize information in certain ways. It is this perceptual saliency which drives the learning process rather than an innate language-specific module.

Another approach put forward by Slobin in 1979 is Operating principles which are based on the claim that "*certain linguistic forms are more accessible or more salient to the child than other.*" (Mitchell & Myles, 1998:74). These principles are studied under two main headlines. These are: Operating principles for L_1 and operating principles for L_2. For the first one, Slobin gave 5 principles such as paying attention to the ends of the words; linguistic elements which encode relations between words; avoiding exceptions; being marked overtly and clearly for underlying semantic relations; using of grammatical markers to make semantic sense. On the other hand, in second language acquisition, operating principles have been investigated by Andersen. His principles are based on Slobin's, but are then adapted to the learning of second language. These are one-to-one principle

which refers to an interlanguage system should be constructed in such a way that an intended underlying meaning is expressed with one clear invariant surface form. The other is multifunctionary principle that refers trying to discover the additional meanings of the form in the input when there is evidence that the same form has in the input. Third principle is formal determinism. It means the clear, transparent encoding of the linguistic feature in the input forces the learner to discover it.

In addition to these, one of the most important features of the Cognitive Approaches is Information Processing Models. First one is McLaughlin's information processing model and the other one is Anderson's ACT Model. According to McLaughlin's Information Processing Model,

1- human are viewed as autonomus and active
2- the mind is a general-purpose, symbol-processing system,
3- complex behavior is composed of simpler processes,
4- component processes can be isolated and studied independently of other processes
5- processes take time
6- the mind is a limited-capacity processor

As it is seen, when these principles are applied to second language learning, it is viewed as the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill (McLaughlin, 1987:133-134). Therefore, to learn a second language is to learn skills because various aspects of the task must be practiced and integrated into fluent performance. Learning is a cognitive process because it is thought to involve internal representations that regulate and guide performance.

Another processing model from Cognitive psychology, which has also been applied to aspects of second language learning, is Anderson's ACT model as it is mentioned before. First of all, he mentioned the presence of two different knowledge in language learning field. He enables *declarative knowledge* (i.e. knowledge *that*, not unlike controlled process) and *procedural*

knowledge (i.e. knowledge *how*, not unlike automatic knowledge). One of the major differences is that Anderson points out three different memories: working memory and two kinds of long-term memories. Working memory is similar to McLaughlin's short-term memory and the other memories are declarative and procedural. That is to say, Anderson's model is a general Cognitive model of skills acquisition and it can be applied to those aspects of second language learning.

In sum, it can be said that Cognitive Approaches have also been able to enlighten us on what processes are involved in the language teaching field and in the acquisition process as well. They put forward the importance of pedagogical implications and the influence of psycholinguistics. They involved the learners thinking about the language and working out rules from examples or instances. Utterances were provided by teachers, text books, or tape recorders in order to illustrate specific language points to learners. That is to say, they refer deductive language teaching which means referring to the process of consciously working out rules of the language from an analysis of samples of the language. Here, in relation to this concern, the Cognitive-Code Approach and Cognitive Approach will be handled, examined, and exemplified with several exercises and activities.

4.2. THE COGNITIVE-CODE APPROACH

The origin of the Cognitive-Code Approach also dates back to the Gestalt Theory. Rejecting Mentalism, memorization and habit formation some linguists and cognitive psychologists adopted the Cognitive-code Approach. This approach takes its basic tenets from Chomsky's *Transformational Generative Grammar* (Henceforth, TGG). It is possible to claim that the Cognitive-code approach should be both a new manifestation of the Audio-lingualism and a modification of the GTM keeping basic features of the cognitive psychology. That is to say, the Cognitive-code approach was first proposed by Bruner in 1964 and developed by Carroll in 1966 and Chastain in 1971 and lost its importance.

4.2.1. Principles and Theory of Language and Learning

In the developmental stages of the Cognitive approach during 1950s and 1970s, some cognitivists like Bruner, Ausubel, Gagne, Carroll and Chastain did not completely adopt the Cognitive approach, but they selected the most valuable parts of it and created an eclectic approach, called the Cognitive-code approach. Bruner and Gagne denied neither the Behaviorist stimulus-response theory nor the Cognitive approach. Stern (1991 : 308) states that ,

> *Among those who adopt a cognitive position there are those who reject the behaviorist position completely while others (for example Bruner and Gagne) have adopted a less extreme point of view , in their view certain kinds of learning are adequately covered by a behaviorsit view, but conceptual learning or the learning of principles require a cognitive theoy.*

In 1960s, Bruner's ideas about the presentation of Cognitive-code approach in L_2 teaching and learning made a powerful impact on developing methods. Bruner's ideas may be observed to take place in Cattegno's *Silent Way* of teaching and learning L_2. The decline of Audio-lingualism and its weak sides created conditions for the emergence of the Cognitive-code approach. The Audio-lingualism learners did not understand what they were doing totally, They were practicing drills, but they had no ideas of the possibilities and limitations they were practicing. Therefore, they had certain problems in expressing their own meanings (Rivers, 1981 : 19)

On the other hand, students had no idea about either the meaning of the communicative functions or the utterances they were producing. The other problems were teachers' having a heavy responsibility and students' being passive, immediate error correction, a boring classroom atmosphere, easy forgetting. These weak sides are mentioned strongly by Chomsky, and then in 1960s the Cognitive Approach led to the development of Cognitive-

code approach. The *cognitive* part is the meaningfulness and the *code* part is the mannerism and the rule of this approach.

Besides Bruner, Carroll was also a supporter of the Cognitive-code approach in 1966. He expressed his ideas through articles focusing on the importance of both the rule-governed behavior and language habits. In 1966 Chastain compared the Audio-lingualism and the Cognitive-code approach. He emphasized that four skills should be developed and the grammatical rules should precede practice. This approach concentrating on the cognitive processes of the learners keeps a learner-centered education. It signals the encouragement of deliberate grammar teaching as an aid to learning.

The Cognitive-Code Approach, in short, generally points out deductive learning techniques. Ellis (1992:38) states the cognitive-code learning theory placed considerable store on deductive learning at least as a basis for practice. The students are not expected to study on new structures prior to explanation of these forms. The term cognitive implies proceeding from mental understanding and awareness to the practice and applications in creative, realistic and meaningful context. Accordingly, materials are so arranged that the learner is first exposed to the parts to be learned and then to the total communicative picture (Rivers, 1981 : 50) The Cognitive-code approach, like GTM, is sequenced and *the structure of the day* dominates all parts of the lesson. According to Nunan (2000 : 233) the emphasis at all times be on language learning as an active, intelligent, rule-seeking, problem solving process in which learners are encouraged to reflect and discuss the way of the L_2 operates.

Here, some basic principles of the Cognitive-Code Approach will be handled in order to give some reasonable ideas about the function and at the application of this approach in the field of language teaching learning.

1- The Cognitive-code Approach emphasizes the teaching of four skills, giving importance to the linguistic competence of the learners.

Competence is equated with explicit knowledge of grammatical rules while performance is equated with the memorization of their use.

2- The Cognitive-code Approach places emphasis on deductive learning that provides the rules first and then the application in meaningful situations. Thus in classroom *the rule of the day* teaching is applied. The lessons begin with the representation of *the new grammatical concepts* followed by practice of the linguistic forms and the study of reading and listening materials.

3- The use of auditory materials, visuals, body language, gestures, facial expressions are essentials part of teaching L_2. They help to contextualize the material which should be meaningful in the learning process since functions are highly important in this type of learning.

4- Mistakes are unavoidable but a non-tolerant approach is used towards the mistakes in the classroom. Error correction is immediate without discouraging the students.

5- Language development is a rule-governed creativity. Chastain emphasizes the importance of providing opportunities for learners to create language in language demanding situations.

6- The Cognitive-Code learning approach deemphasizes the role of rote learning, along with the techniques of mimicry and memorization. New knowledge should be linked to prior knowledge. So, at the beginning of the lesson a mental set should be established.

7- This approach reflects mechanical practice as a means of forming new grammatical rules. Practice is useful, but first a grammatical concept should be acquired. Transformational exercises are better because they deal with deep structure. Except for pronunciation, pattern drills are rejected (Ellis, R. 1992 : 39)

8- It is a learner-centered approach. Reasoning is essential for foreign language learning. Student-centered activities are selected for classroom application.

9- Competence precedes performance while teaching a second language. Learning becomes acquisition

10-The first language is not used in the classroom. Actions, manners, body language, pictures or realia are used to give meaning. L_1 and L_2 should be kept a part so that the students' native language interferes as little as possible with the students' attempts to acquire the target language.

As it is seen, the Cognitive-code Approach tries to teach the all four skills at once for the communicative purposes. The Cognitive-code textbooks should also be designed in such a way that the rules are presented in details with the examples and they are practiced through various creative exercises and activities depending upon the principles mentioned here. In addition to the ideas, by putting into practice the deductive teaching into the field of language teaching and learning , the Cognitive-code Approach has started a kind of language teaching in which learners are taught rules and given specific information about a language.

4.2.2. Syllabus

The Cognitive-Code Approach generally points out *deductive* learning techniques. Ellis (1992:38) states." The Cognitive-Code learning theory placed considerable store on deductive learning, at least as a basis for practice." The students are not expected to study on new structures prior to the explanation of these forms. The term cognitive implies proceeding from mental understanding and awareness to the practice and applications in creative, realistic and meaningful contexts. Accordingly the materials are so arranged that the learner is first exposed to the parts to be learned and then

to the total communicative picture (Rivers, 1981: 50). This communicative competence is planned to be reached within reading and listening sectors.

The Cognitive-Code Approach is sequenced and the structure of the day dominates all parts of the lesson. To Nunan (2000:233) ," the emphasis at all times should be on language learning as an active , intelligent, rule-seeking, problem solving process in which learners are encouraged to reflect and discuss the way the L_2 operates." Since creativity is one of the basic principles of the Cognitive-code Approach, creative thinking should be developed through classroom applications. To do this, the syllabus of the lessons should be designed to develop the learners' creative talents, encourage manipulation of the objects and ideas, and test their ideas. Therefore, to provide a creative classroom atmosphere the language teachers should ask conversational questions, confront students with provocative problems.

4.2.3. Learner and Teacher Roles

In this approach and in cognitive-code learning teachers should see mistakes as an important part of the language learning process. Their errors are signs to the teachers that students are actively testing their hypothesis to discover L_2. Error correction is immediate without discouraging the students. At the beginning of the lessons teachers should establish a mental set because it encourages learners to relate the new and previous knowledge. Teachers, on the other hand, use only the target language. However, outside the class L_1 is used to make a contrastive analysis. At the same time, teachers make sure their students learn concepts, use examples, emphasize meaningfulness; make learning active and creative to minimize forgetting. Since some students may learn more efficiently with abstract explanations while others need to visualize the problematic issues teachers should consider different types of memories.

Since this approach is a learner-centered one, students are encouraged to become aware of the rules and to talk about the language in the class. The study of skills is provided for students to produce messages intended to communicate their thoughts to someone else. With a limited number of grammatical rules and vocabulary, students can create an infinite number of sentences many of which may never have been uttered before (Nunan, 2000: 233). Learners are much more actively responsible for their own learning. They are engaged in formulation hypothesis in order to discover rules of L_2. Activities selected for teaching are all student-centered activities. Students have a proper degree of cognitive control over the structures of a language; they can use the language in meaningful situations.

4.2.4. Strong Sides

The Cognitive-Code Approach is a very useful approach since it has brought some new dimensions to the second language learning. Here are some advantageous:

1- The use of mannerism through body language, kinesics, proxemics and other nonverbal communication means make the contextualisation of the materials to be learnt better and easier. It makes the learning process more communicative, effective and enjoyable.

2- This approach selects the good sides of the Audio-lingualism, GTM and the Cognitive Approach. Since no method or approach is the best, this kind of formation is valuable. It emphasizes the teaching of rules but not in a mechanical way. It uses creative activities to practice these rules. Some cognitive-code courses have drills, especially substitution and transformational ones, but those have a different rationale and use behavioristic drills.

3- According to the Cognitive-Code approach, the knowledge of individuals does not have conditioned behavior but assimilated information in his / her

cognitive storage. Rote learning is considered to be unimportant in the explanation of higher mental activity learning outcomes from animals to human is rejected. Consequently, although the period it covers in the history of second language learning is very short when compared with the Behaviorism or Cognitivism, the Cognitive-code approach provides lots of new and useful techniques for L_2 teachers and learners.

4.2.5. Weak Sides

The applications of the Cognitive-Code Approach have not been emphasized well enough. Although it brought some valuable views for second language teaching, it had some weak points as the other approaches. For example,

1- First, the Cognitive-code Approach does not have enough detailed techniques to apply in ELT. On this issue, Rivers (1981: 50) claims that,

> *No distinctively new articles are proposed for this form of cognitive teaching, but rather a return to the traditional order which moves from deductive explanation of rules to exercises in the use of those rules followed by demonstration of the rules in action and it stretches of discourse.*

It is also the same for the application of the rules in contriving messages in the language. Thus, it could never reach the popularity of the Cognitive Approach.

2- Overemphasis of the rule does not leave space for communicative competence in the cognitive-code classes. It should provide more comprehensible input in order to limit the structures used.

3- The focus is generally on form, not on meaning. So, this approach seems to be weak in reaching its objective of developing four skills preventing the discussion and creativity of the learners. On the other hand, this approach cannot reach its aims in terms of providing meaningful learning to the

learners. Learners are subjected to *the rule of the day* and how they will combine these rules are left as a question. In other words, a definite way of the combination of the rules to daily life is not provided (Brown, D, 1980: 65). Another weak point is that this approach claims that the language will take place through the development of the linguistic competence. It demands its students be accurate rather than fluent. However, both of them should be given importance. This approach fails to develop the fluency of the learners.

4- The Cognitive-Code Approach considers errors as aids to learning immediate error correction. However, immediate error correction may not give consistent results in reaching language teaching objectives. Moreover, it may give way to discouragement of the students (Lightbown and Spada, 1999 : 167) In some aspects, the cognitive-code theory seems to be more suitable for the adult learners. Krashen (1983: 148) puts forward adults who have their first language habits may like to adopt the rules of the target language to their habits of first language while comparing and contrasting the languages. However, children should have precise difficulties in understanding the rules before practicing them. Consequently, the cognitive-code approach was problematic in a number of respects although it caused to appear some methods such as Silent Way.

4.2.6. Contributions to ELT

The Cognitive-Code Approach brought new dimensions to ELT using non-verbal communication techniques such as body language, eye contact, kinesics, proxemics, silence and manner. These contribute to meaningful learning. Moreover, the use of mim-mem technique helps the learners to acquire the new material easily. By the help of the Cognitive-code approach teachers become aware of the different kind of information in the sentence have to be processed in different ways and at different levels of memory in order to serve for an effective L_2 learning.

This approach, at the same time, put forward the importance of teaching of the new material in relation to the previously learned material(s) which improve(s) learning and memory. This approach has also had a major influence on cooperative learning methods and on constructivism. English teachers gain self-confidence in preparing activities to be taught and suitable hierarchical stages. It also contributes to the preparation of textbooks and other supplementary teaching materials.

4.2.7. Related Methods

Silent Way, Suggestopedia, and Total Physical Response are frequently used with this approach. Of these methods, Suggestopedia aims to develop advanced conversational proficiency quickly. It takes mastery of long lists of vocabulary pairs as basis and indeed suggests to the students that it should be appropriate if they set the necessary goals for themselves. Primary goal of teaching si not memorization, as it is suggested by the Cognitive-code Approach, but understanding and solving the problems creatively. Learning can be facilitated in a relaxed, comfortable environment; peripheral learning is important; making the learners' use their imagination promotes learning; giving new identity increases the students feeling of security; dramatization is a good way of activating the materials which can overcome the psychological barriers of the learners; everyday communication is aimed, and so on.

Lessons in Suggestopedia consist of three parts. The first part is an oral review section in which students sit in a circle and the discussion goes on like a seminar. Special emphasis is given to grammar, vocabulary, and precise questions and answers. Later, this time emphasis is given to role-playings and innovative language constructions. The second part consists of the presentation and the discussion of the new material. The new material is generally a new dialog together with its native language translation. In this section students are let ask their questions either in the target or in the native language. In fact, Suggestopedia is best known with its third session. This

section is conducted by classical music. In the first concert part teacher reads the dialog with a slow pace. His reading appears to be molded by the music as his intonation and volume rise and fall with the music. In the second concert session, this time teacher changes the music and reads the dialog by matching his voice according to the voice of the music. At the end of the second reading the class is over. The comments about Suggestopedic learning are really very impressive. It is claimed that there is no area in public life that suggestology will not work. However, it is one of the most common and effective methods provided by the Cognitive-code Approach. The techniques used in this method are classroom set-up, peripheral learning, positive suggestion, visualization, choosing a new identity, role-plays, first and second concert sessions, primary and secondary activation.

Silent Way, on the other hand, generally follows a structural syllabus with lessons around grammatical items and related vocabulary and shares certain principles with the Cognitive-code approach. According to the cognitive psychologists and transformational-generative linguists, people cannot learn a language by repeating what they hear spoken around them. They also claim that language learning does not take place through mimicry since people can create utterances they have never heard before. So, language acquisition must be a procedure whereby people use their own thinking process, or cognition to discover the rules of the language they are acquiring (Freeman, 1983:52) For that reasons, Silent Way shares many features with other learning theories and educational philosophies, especially with the Cognitive-code Approach, such as language cannot be learned repetition; language learning is a problem solving and discovering ability; errors are important and necessary for learning since they state the problematic areas; translation is not used to make the meaning clear; and so on.

In Silent way, vocabulary is selected according to the probability of application within a given structure and according to its productivity within the

classroom settings. Simple linguistic tasks, in which the teacher models a word, phrase, or sentence and then elicits learner responses, are basic to this method. Charts, rods, and other aids may be used to elicit responses. Teachers create situations that focus students' attention on the structures of the language. These situations are created in such a way that they will help the students in perceiving the meaning as in the Cognitive-code Approach. The students are guided to produce the structure with minimal spoken cues. Teacher takes the students' errors a s a guide in locating the problematic areas. Students are provided with considerable amount of practice with a given target language structure without repetition. They gain autonomy in the language by exploring it and making choices. Teacher asks the students' opinion about the lesson and about what they have learned. That is to say, since Silent Way and the Cognitive-code Approach share the similar principles related to the teaching and learning, Silent Way can be applied with its techniques to the Cognitive-code classes. The techniques used in this method are sound-color charts, teacher's silence, peer correction, rods, self-correction gestures, word charts, Fidel charts, and structured feedback.

Total Physical Response (TPR) Method is a natural method with its acceptation of first language acquisition and foreign language learning as parallel processes. Thus, a person who wants to learn a foreign language should first form a "cognitive map" of the target language in his brain with the help of listening exercises. Then, listening and physical movement should go together. Speaking and other productive skills should be worked together on later. TPR states that the process of learning a foreign language is similar as that of the child's first language acquisition; the primary aim is to help the students gain oral proficiency at a beginning level; grammar and vocabulary items are selected according to the situations appropriate to be used in the classroom and the ease with which they can be learned; teachers can easily evaluate their students; the primary role of students is listening and performing; errors are accepted natural when students first start speaking, and so on.

In TPR as soon as the teacher enters the class, s/he introduces himself/herself and the method s/he is going to use. S/he explains what they will be doing in the class. This introduction phase is conducted in the students' native language. After the introduction, the teacher starts giving commands in the target language and performs it with the students. While the teacher giving instructions, the students say nothing since the first skill to be developed is listening not speaking. They perform the actions with the teacher. When teacher feels sure that the students can respond the commands without any help, s/he sits down and gives command first to the volunteers and then the whole class. The teacher gives new commands gradually and changes the order of the commands since memorization is not accepted in TPR. If students make errors, the teacher just repeats the command while acting them out. The teacher then writes the commands on the board. Spoken language is emphasized over written language. When the students feel ready to speak, they will change the roles with the teacher and start directing the class with their own commands. The whole course goes on like that.

As it is seen TPR does not have a complex procedure. The prominent material is command and each language teacher can easily use this material in a different style in language classes. It can be said that the general objective of the TPR is to make the students achieve an oral proficiency at the beginning level. It also aims at providing students with such communicative ability that is intelligible to a native speaker. The techniques used in the TPR are using commands to direct behavior, role reversal, and action sequence.

4.2.8. Discussion Questions for Students

1- Criticize the Cognitive-code Approach.

2- What is the teaching / learning process like in the Cognitive-code Approach?

3- What are the shortcomings of the Cognitive-code Approach?

4- Compare and contrast the teachers' roles.

5- How do the methods related to this approach support the techniques used in this approach?

6- Which approach (es) / method(s) can be prototype of the Cognitive-code Approach? Why?

7- Is Cognitive-code Approach abandoned today? Why?

4.2.9. Basic Techniques and Exercise / Activity Types

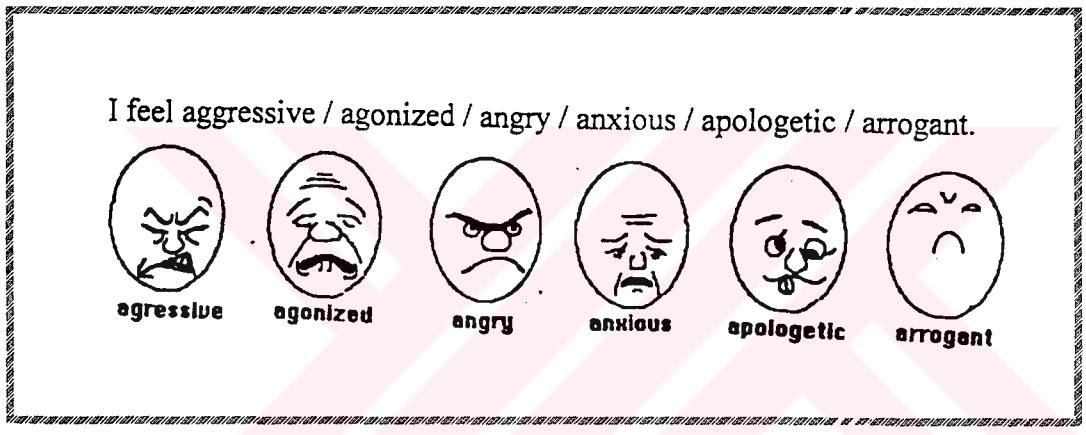
The applications and the activities of the Cognitive-Code Approach have many similarities with that of the Cognitive Approach. However, the code part of the approach has some additional and valuable implications for ELT. The code part covers the overemphasis of rule and mannerism that have brought new dimensions to L_2 teaching. First, the different applications of general teaching procedures will be handled then its implications for pronunciation and vocabulary teaching and for developing four skills will be explained with some kind of activities.

4.2.9.1. Presentation of the New Material

The presentation of the new material is related to the previous knowledge of the learners to achieve meaningful learning as in the Cognitive approach. Before introducing any new language item, the forms, functions and patterns are analyzed and explained in details. This explanation is done in context with examples. If the teacher is teaching students *Inviting* , for example, s/he might introduce the form : *Would you like to + V .?* The latter part of this pattern is changeable, so s/he can introduce the model such as,

Would	*you*	*like*	*to come to*	*the cinema ?*
			to have	*lunch*
			to play	*tennis*
			to drink	*something*

After giving a few examples, teacher makes the students repeat the newly learned items. In the classroom, objects, pictures, actions, body language, gestures, etc. can be used with aural-oral work to illustrate the meaning. Actions, in particular, are probably better explained by mime. Concepts like running or smoking in the progressive tenses are easy to present in this way. For example, when the teacher is teaching to give an answer to a question like, *How do you feel today ?* to the elementary level students, s/he may use some pictures including several facial expressions as follows :



The following is a sample presentation part of a grammar lesson. The teacher will teach the Adverbial *Clauses of Result*, so s/he relates the previous material Adverbial Clauses of Purpose to the new material after warm-up and motivation session. S/he presents the new item first giving the rule as follow

* *so + adj / adv. + that*
* *such + a(n) + adj. + a singular noun*
* *such + adj. + plural noun*
* *such + adj. + uncountable noun*

Then, s/he gives examples.

The lecture was so boring that I had to go out.

She is such an arrogant that we can't bear her.

(The teacher makes the meaning clear with her / his facial expressions and tone of her / his voice. S/he can also draw some facial expression on the board after the sentences.)

4.2.9.1.2. Practice

The techniques used in the practice part also cover the techniques of the Cognitive Approach but the Cognitive-Code Approach employs other drills such as substitution, immediate constituent, transformation and conversational drills. These drills are not done automatically, but they are also done consciously after learning the rule. Among the substitution drills, moving-slot substitution drills which may be changed by the students are more preferable because they require mental process. While doing moving-slot substitution drills, teacher gives a sentence and the cue and wants the students to put the cue in the right place in the statement.

e.g. *T : There is a girl in the garden. (house)*
S : There is a girl in the house.
T : boy
S : There is a boy in the house.
T : child
S : There is a child in the house

In an integration drill, the teachers gives sentences to the students and asks them to combine the sentences using the learned pattern such as *neither.....nor , either .... or*, etc. The following is the practice part of the grammar lesson that is presented previously. The teacher practices Adverbial Clauses of Purpose through some drills. Then s/he delivers a Fill-in Blanks Drill as follows:

1-	*Her throat was..... sore that she couldn't speak. She had .....sore throat that she couldn't speak.*
2-	*I have got ..... shock when I heard the news I didn't know what to say. I was ..... Shocked when I heard the news I didn't know what to say.*

Later, s/he may assign a Transformational Drill and s/he wants students to rewrite the sentences using "*such*" instead of "*so*".

1- *The suggestion is so ridicules that I cannot believe you made it.*
2- *The supporters of our team are so keen that they never miss the matches.*
3- *Whales are so interesting animals that they should be protected.*

Teacher may also assign a Transformational Drill and this time s/he wants students to rewrite the sentences using "*so*" instead of "*such*".

1- *She took such a long time to pack that she nearly missed the train.*
2- *It was such an expensive trip that very few people could afford to go on it.*

After several drills teacher applies the last activity. S/he hangs a picture on the board. The picture of *Annabell Lee* and a poem written for her. S/he wants students to establish statements looking at the picture and the poem using the structures *so ..... that / such ..... that.* (Students can be asked to work in groups after an example given by teacher.)

e.g. T: Annabell Lee was such a beautiful girl that everyone admired her.

Teacher may also ask students to match sentences with the pictures. They can do this exercise in pairs. Students then ask questions to the teacher and the teacher replies from the basis for modeling. Students use the words connected with the body asking each other to touch parts of their bodies before they move on to making statements using *have got*, then they are asked to create their own sentences as a part of an immediate creativity session. This activity is employed by the Cognitive-code approach in the practice part to teach *have got / has got* to the elementary level students.

Teachers can also use *games* such as *"Guess what I am doing?"* which can be used to teach recognition in the target language for activities such as taking a bath, doing homework, etc? Students give verbal and non-verbal hints as to what object is being described or the students are asked questions about the object in order to guess what it is. Students both enjoy and learn with such a problem solving game.

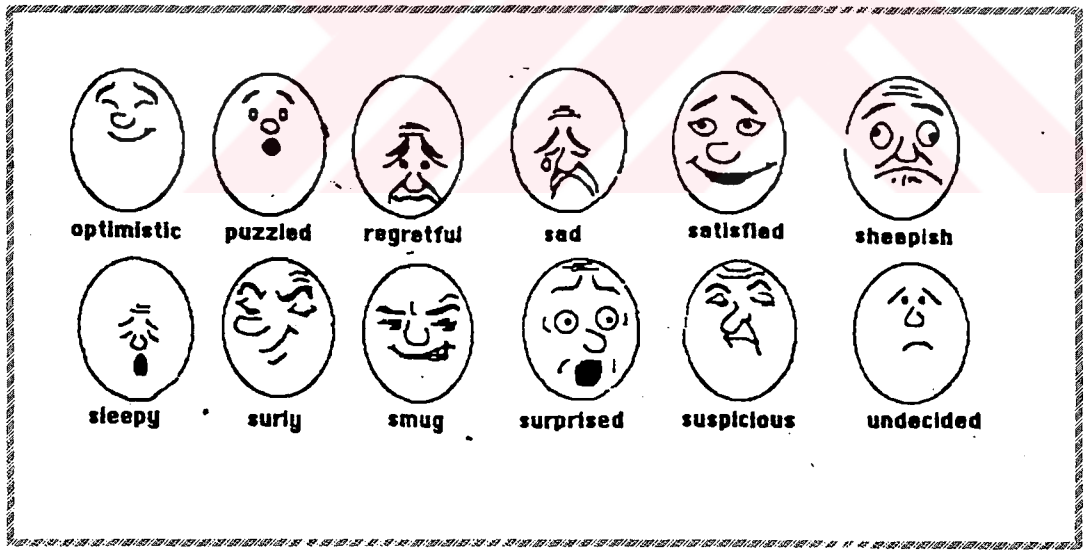
4.2. 9.1.3. Application

This part requires the real language use so learners convert their thought into the target language after becoming competent to produce the language needed. Therefore, they show their performance by reading, speaking, writing and listening. Dramatization, role-plays, story-telling, puzzles, games and problem solving activities are widely used in the application part. It should be borne in mind that all activities employed during the lesson must give an opportunity to the students to practice and apply *the rule of the day* because the rule learning is emphasized in the Cognitive-Code Approach.

4.2. 9.2. Teaching Vocabulary

Teaching of new vocabulary items is stressed because according to the Cognitive-Code Approach the learner should know the meanings of the words before studying on a listening or a reading text. The deductive teaching is also applied to vocabulary teaching. Teacher proceeds from competence to performance following the presentation, examples and the practice step.

In order to teach vocabulary items in a meaningful way teacher must contextualize the words using the students, environment or acting himself. For effective demonstrations s/he must visualize the material via realia, pictures, drawings, wall pictures, or flashcards. Teacher can also use mimicry, gestures, body language and facial expressions to make the instructions clear, interesting and understandable. For example, while teaching adjectives of feelings s/he can use such facial expressions:



Then teacher gives model sentences using the new words and s/he wants the learners to constitute statements. Hyponym, semantic field, cognitive depth and antonyms-synonyms techniques are also employed by this approach. The uses of pictures are very influential to refer to the

learners' photographic and sensory memories. The following are some examples of presenting the new vocabulary instead.

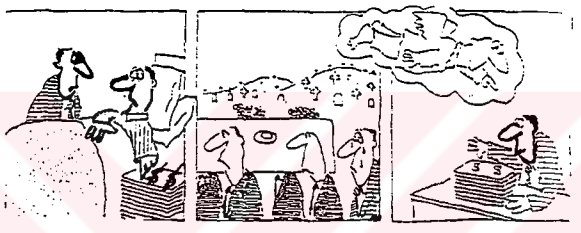
- to get round sb,



explanation: to persuade someone to do what you want or to let you do what you want

model sentence: After five minutes of persuasion, Tim managed to *get round his father* to buy the ball.

- to inherit



In the Cognitive-Code Approach to practice the new vocabulary, the use of games, puzzles, word-ladder exercises, and matching exercises are explained and exemplified. All of these are used in the Cognitive-Code Approach, but some others such as completion drills, multiple choice tests, substitution drills and question-answer drills are added. For example, the following exercise can be given to fill in the necessary vocabulary: *get round / catch on / move to / come into / fall through.....*

1- *We could ..... the problem by borrowing some money.*
2- *It is a great new product and the sales figures show that its ..... very quickly.*
3- *Susan ..... a lot of money when her grandfather died.*
4- *Janet planned to ..... a smaller flat when she lost her job.*

Teacher asks questions whose answers necessitate the use of the newly learned vocabulary items. For example, s/he may give the words to use while

answering such as give in / *catch* on / *come* into, etc. Then, s/he asks the following questions:

1- *Where did you get all the money ?*
2- *What do you think of my new dress ?*
3- *Do you think we should continue our struggle ?*

Teacher may give the following puzzle and wants students to find as many verbs as possible and then to form sentences:

```
G O F O R       C
  A             A
  L   C O M E I N T O
  L   H         C
C O M E I N T O   H
  V   C         O
  T   K   S T A N D F O R
      I
S T A N D F O R
```

Another technique is to use *charts, groups* and *tables* to practice the words with their meaning. To differentiate the meanings easily the teacher may give the following table and wants students to put a cross into the right box to match each of the verbs with its meanings:

4.2.9.2.1. Table: Word Chart

In such creative ways teacher of the Cognitive-Code Approach class practices the new vocabulary items. The applications of the words naturally

occur while studying on grammar, pronunciation and four skills. Students overlearn the meanings of the words in the presentation part and internalize them through practice

	stroll	wander	march	limp	hike	tiptoe	crawl	stagger
With each step equal			x					
Quietly on your toes								
Pressing more on one foot than the other								
In a slow, relaxed way								
In an unsteady way								
on your hands and knees								
In the countryside								
In no particular direction								

4.2.9.3. Teaching Pronunciation

This approach employs the deductive teaching of pronunciation, so first the rule is explained in details with examples and then the practice is done. Students repeat the new item several times until they have no difficulty with it. The new material is also related to the previous material via minimal pairs, contextual clues, tongue twisters and dialogs. First technique is minimal pairs as it mentioned below:

4.2.9.3.1. Minimal Pairs

After reminding the previous item, teacher gives the rule for the new item. If the teacher will teach how to pronounce the / ow / sound, s/he relates it to the / uw / sound and s/he makes such an explanation while showing the picture for the articulation of these sounds:

T : During the production of the / ow / sound you raise your dorsum upwards and backwards while you are rounding your lips. It is a back rounded tense, long and mid vowel. e.g. hope / coal / hole / pole / cope ....

Minimal pairs : slow – slew flow – flew hope- hoop *throw – threw mode – mood rose – ruse*

After repeating the rule and examples, students deal with the repetition of tongue twisters, sentences and contextual clues. Apart from the cognitive approach, the Cognitive-Code Approach uses mim-mem method for the better internalization of the sounds or intonation items. For example, while teacher has been teaching the intonation of question forms, s/he gives the rule and examples:

Yes-No Questions : / 2 3 3 ↑ / ^{2} Have you seen ^{3} Jim ^{3} ↑ *Wh-questions : / 2 3 1 ↓ / ^{2} Where is ^{3} Ann ^{1} ↓* *Tag Question : / 2 3 2 → 2 3 3 ↑ / ^{2} He is ^{3} trying ^{2} → $^{2\,3}$ isn't he^{3} ↑*

While students are repeating the sentences with correct intonation, teacher also moves his / her tongue and lips to guide them at the same time s/he uses body movements to show them stressed items and to motivate them. In the practice part teacher uses the same-different, 1-2(A-B), 1-2-3, pair matching drills, odd one out activity, multiple choice exercises and minimal pairs. Additionally, teacher also uses dialogs and dramatization. Students may also given such a traditional task as underlining the stressed words after listening the following part of the tape like the following:

Head to Circular Quary and discover Sydney with a famous explorer. You can join Urban Transport's big red explorer bus for unlimited one-day travel around 20 of Sydney's mos tpopular sightseeing attractions on an 18 kms circuit around the city from 9:30 a.m. to 5 p.m. seven days a week. Travel at your own pace. Eaton and off as often as you like during the day. (Bowler and Porminter, 2000 : 160)

4.2.9.3.2. Dictation

On the one hand, dictation can also be very useful technique for verifying whether students have learned to make certain discrimination among sounds or contracted forms. To Rivers (1981 : 134-135) , dictation serves for three aims for advanced learners : as a test of the students knowledge of combination of letters representing specific sounds; as a test of knowledge of structural elements ; and as an exercise in aural comprehension and discrimination. Therefore, the test of dictation should be very carefully constructed.

4.2.9.3.3. Using Rhymes, Poems, and Songs

These are more suitable than the dialogs to repeat and to practice problematic sounds because when frequently repeated sentences of dialogs become boring. For young learners, nursery rhymes and counting rhymes may be suitable. Singing the simple sounds frequently establishes good production of some sounds if attention is paid to the articulation.

4.2.9.3.4. Story-telling or Role-play

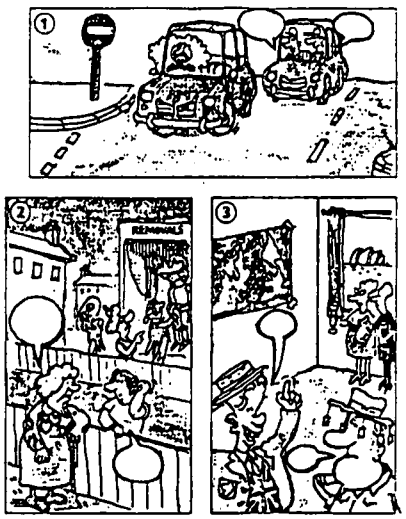
These can also be applied in different ways to practice pronunciation. For example, after teaching to discriminate two sounds such as the / æ / and the / ʌ / sounds, teacher shows the corpus to the students and s/he chooses 15 words from the corpus. Then- s/he tells students to tell a story

using these words with their correct pronunciation. S/he can also want students to write a dialog using those words and to act it out. Consequently, the Cognitive-code Approach uses various activities to practice pronunciation in meaningful, creative and enjoyable ways.

4.2.9.4. Teaching Listening and Reading

As well as overemphasizing the teaching of the rules, the communicative competence is focused in the Cognitive-Code Approach. Therefore, all four skills are worked on from the beginning. Student's progress in accomplished little by little with a lot of imperfection expected at the beginning. The conscious knowledge precedes performance. Anderson (2001: 586) considers if students are provided by a cognitive control over the structures, facility will develop automatically with the use of the language in meaningful situations. So, all activities are to be in meaningful situations while developing the four skills.

It is clear that receptive skills are dealt before the productive skills. The listening and reading tests must also focus on the functions of the language acquired during the grammar teaching session because the rule of the day principle should be carried through the listening and reading activities. Thus, learners have the opportunity to see the real use of the language they have learned. Like the Cognitive Approach, the Cognitive-Code Approach focuses on the three sequential components of listening: *discrimination, perception* and *comprehension*. Discrimination level covers the teaching of sounds, stress and intonation. Perception and the auditory memory level include the ability to remember longer items such phrases or sentences. At the comprehension level, exercises and follow-up activities are assigned. Students come to the stage of comprehension knowing all the grammar items, words and phonological knowledge included in the text. The listening materials should be presented in context. For example, the next activity is given with pictures and body language of that figures are very clear to give the meanings.



Picture 1
M1 : The red car's turning into a no entry street
M2 : Typical woman driver
Picture 2
W1: Look who's moving in next door
W2: Yeah. Another aristocrat!
Picture: 3
British Man: But Australia isn't at the top of the world.
Australian Man: Not for us, mate.

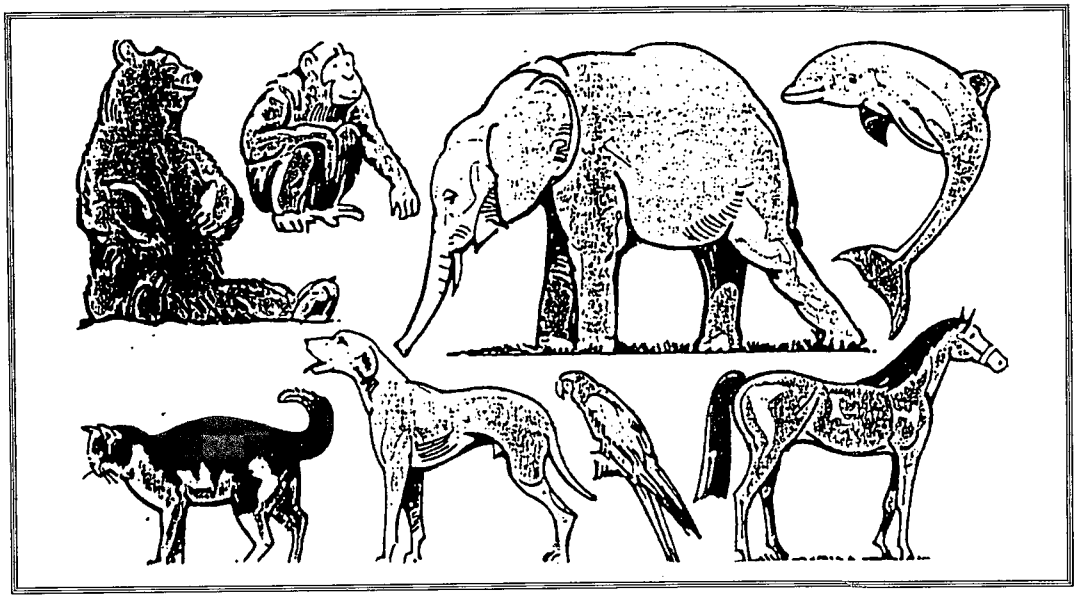
Before listening to the above text, looking at the pictures students make guess about where people are, who they are, what they are talking about, how many of them are men / women, etc. After listening they act them out using their body language and facial expressions. Then, teacher may ask some listening comprehension and opinion questions. Secondly, as a receptive skill, reading requires similar procedures with the teaching of listening skill. Generally, the cognitive and the cognitive-code approaches have similarities in studying on the reading texts. However, in the Cognitive-code approach the reading comprehension tasks emphasize *the rule of the day*. A text which is about the Empire State Building is given to the students. Naturally, the text is composed of passive sentences. For a text-related task, students can role-play an interview between a reporter and someone who works at the Empire Building. Teacher may tell them that it is the year 1931 and they are asked to write a paragraph at the end of the lesson or an assignment about a famous building in their city area. This follow-up activity produces a great deal of spoken and written forms of the language.

4.2.9.5. Teaching Speaking and Writing

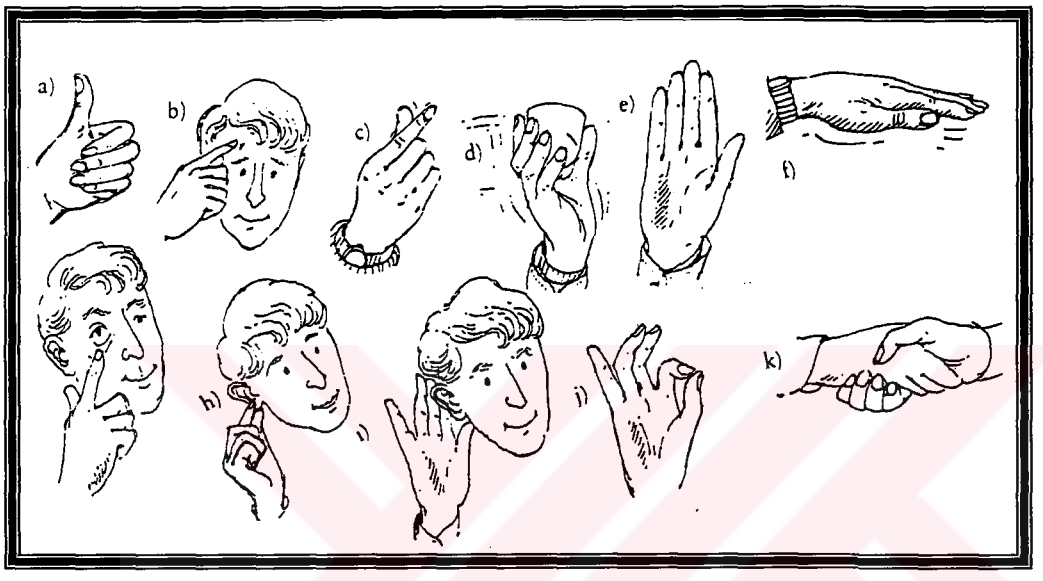
Speaking is the first productive skill to be developed before the writing skill according to the natural order of language acquisition in the performance stage. The teacher is to provide realistic context to use the language orally and to produce participation in communicative activities. Both verbal and non-verbal dimensions of the communication should be emphasized while developing the speaking ability. At the first stages of the speaking courses, students are given some drills such as wh-question exercises to focus *the rule of the day*. The discussion sessions may also take place, for example, " *discussing the behavior of animals* " activity in which students look at the list of feelings that animals may experience, and try to find which of these animals have these feelings and why. Then more creative and communicative activities such as problem solving activities, guessing games, competitions, interviews, story telling activities, role-plays, and dramatizations.

e.g. Match the following words according to the characters or feelings of the following animals.

Grief – happiness – love – suspicion – jealousy – regret – fear – ecstasy



This activity can be assigned for discussion. For example, teacher says that in most cultures people communicate with gestures or mimicry as well as words and speech. Then, s/he wants the students to think for a few minutes and guess the meaning of the following gestures according to the nationalities they belong.



While using the drama technique, teacher selects students to read the dialog aloud then s/he discusses the drama with the students to create interest in the problems of the characters. Teacher models the roles and the students read again with adding their feelings. Then, they perform the scripts.

To make students competent in writing, teacher may assign scrambled sentences or words to be arranged. In addition, question-answer drills, competition and recognition drills may be assigned. For the performance activities, s/he uses the techniques that the cognitive approach employs such as completing a story, writing paragraphs about a picture or a real object, etc. For example, teacher uses split cartoons for the following activity. The class is divided into groups and each examines the cartoons and takes notes. Then, any group tries to find out about its picture. Any group may also receive one visitor at a time. Thus, each group tries to build up a detailed idea of the picture contained in the series. Afterwards the groups write the

story and then organize a dialog for dramatization. Only after the dramatization each group writes the complete sequence together. It should be borne in mind that dialogs and conversations are cognitive exercises in that they require the students to think through the rules and select the ones applicable to the particular case under consideration. Here the following three exercises were taken from *Rivers, 1978:298-300.*

4.2.9.5.1. Activity 1: Making a Discussion

You have just bought two films, but unfortunately, they are the wrong size. You have a similar experience: the shopkeeper tells you he did not sell you the films because he does not keep that size. Write down the discussion between you. Here is a possible discussion:

Customer: *Excuse me, I bought this film here on Saturday, but they're the wrong size. Will you change them, please?*

Shopkeeper: *You didn't buy those films her. I don't sell films like that. I'm afraid I can't do anything about it. You'll have to take them back to the shop where you bought them.....*

.....

4.2.9.5.2. Activity 2: Expressive Writing

Steinbeck writes of the deep desire of poor immigrants arriving in the United States for a better life for their children. "No longer." he says, " was it even acceptable that the child should be like his parents and live as they did; he must be better, live better, know more, dress more richly, and is possible change from his father's trade to a profession...." For example,

Teacher: *You are an immigrant from Calabria in Italy. Write a letter to your old mother at home telling her your aspirations for Sergio and Maria in their new homeland.*

4.2.9.5.3. Activity 3: Problem Solving

As a speaking activity in this exercise students should learn early to try to express similar ideas in different forms from various points of view. One amusing way to do this is to take a particular situation and ask the students to express the reactions of a number of people to it. For example, teacher says*: A young doctor hurries out of a hospital and quickly crosses a narrow street which is filled with rush-hour traffic. This action provokes comments from all kinds of people. What do you think the following people said?* The indications are given as follows:

The doctor's wife → exclamation, order, question
Policeman→ question
A child to her mother→ question, observation
A bus driver→ question, observation
A pedestrian to the policeman→ question, observation
A young man on a motorcycle→ exclamation
An old lady to the child→ order, question
A shopkeeper from the door of his shop→ observation

As a result, although the Cognitive-Code Approach could not reach the popularity of the Audio-lingualism, it could show the weak sides of the Audio- lingual and the Grammar Translation Method successfully. It must be born in mind that this approach could draw attention to the important features of language learning that the audio-lingual method had not emphasized. The nature of the Cognitive-Code Approach paved the way for the advancement of communicative and the Humanistic Approaches which were inspired by the individual mental processing idea of the theory. It is also possible that this theory caused to the appearance of the Eclectic method because it also bears some eclectic features in its foundation.

4.3. THE COGNITIVE APPROACH

At the end of the 1960s and beginning of the 70s, as a reaction against the defects of the Audio-lingual Approach and its behavioristic features, and taking as its theoretical base the Transformational-Generative Grammar of Chomsky, the so-called Cognitive Approach became popular in the USA by Ausubel. That is to say, a "rationalist" or "cognitive" theory emerged in which transformational generative concepts represented the linguistic component and became associated with a "Cognitive view" of the psychology of language learning. This theory was placed, as it mentioned above, in opposition to an "empiricist theory", that is, pedagogically audiolingualism, psychologically behaviorism, and linguistically structuralism (Stern, 1983: 169)

The origin of the Cognitive Approach dates back to the Gestalt and especially to the Cognitive psychologies. Cognitive psychology was dealing with the study of the nature and learning system of knowledge, particularly those processes involved in thought, perception, comprehension, memory, and learning. For that reason, Cognitive psychologists did not accept the results of experiments with animal behavior as valid models for human learning. Instead, they had turned to Neurophysiological and Information-Processing models as a basis for trying to understand the learning process. They were attempting to go beyond earlier solutions to problems regarding learning. So, the Cognitive definition of learning stressed the role of mind in processing the information required. It stated that learning was the perception, acquisition, and storage of knowledge in such a way that it became an active part of the individual's cognitive structure. The central component in the learning process was the thought to be the learner, not the agent in the environment controlling the stimuli and the reinforcers.

Later, in the light of the ideas, in 1957 with Chomsky there had been great changes in the field of language and psychology by the help of his work *Syntactic Structures*. It was about a critique of Behaviorism and Skinner. On

this issue, Stern (1989:169) states that, " *A cognitive approach emerged in which transformation at generative concepts represented the linguistic component and became associated with a cognitive view of psychology of language learning".* This theory can be accepted as opposition to the Empricist theory. Some other psychologists have developed a Cognitive Approach of language learning with the effects of that criticism in 1960s. Bruner, Ausubel, Gagne, Lenneberg, Chastain, Carroll, and Krashen were the ones who studied on cognitive structure, information processing, meaningful learning, and innate mechanism of language in the brain. However, no single theorist can be said to the originator of the Cognitive approach. Descartes, Gestalt, Piaget and Chomsky had some signs, but Carroll was the first to characterize it. Then, Ausubel, Chastain, Bruner and Gagne gave some interpretation of the Cognitive Approach and language teaching.

4.3.1. Principles and Theory of Language and Learning

The Cognitive Approach emphasizes the control of the language in all its manifestations as a coherent and meaningful system in the mind. It attaches importance to learners understanding of the structure rather than using that structure. It is believed that if the learners have cognitive control over the structures, they will be able to use them automatically in meaningful situations. Therefore, in the Cognitive approach, second language learning is considered to be the conscious acquisition of competence in a meaningful manner. This competence is prerequisite in the acquisition of the performance skills.

According to this approach, the learning of a language consists in acquiring a conscious control of its structures and its phonetic, lexical and grammatical elements, by means of, above all, the study and analysis of these structures, organized into coherent groups of knowledge. Once the student has reached a certain level of cognitive command of these elements,

he will develop almost automatically the ability and capacity to use the language in realistic situations.

Here, some basic principles of Cognitive Approach will be handled:

1- Man is specially equipped to learn languages. It is a biological endowment for the first language acquisition and also affects the second language learning. Learning language is a human characteristic. Children are born with LAD and universal grammar has some functions in L_2 learning to make some generalizations.

2- The mind is an active agent in the learning process. Nunan (1999:30-31) states cognitive psychologists viewed the learning process between the organism and its environment. Conscious learning requires active mental participation. The mind is engaged actively in the production of the language. Learning is the perception, acquisition, organization, and storage of knowledge in the mind.

3- The teaching of the language rule system is necessary for the varied and innovative nature of the language. Chastain (1988:162) states that attention and the acquisition of the basic aspects of the language system cannot be omitted. That is, acquisition of these aspects guides learners to create the language and to express their thoughts. Moreover, this system should be learned as a functional system which can be used in communicative contexts.

4- Cognitive Approach uses neoropsychological and information processing models as a basis. It does not accept the experiments with animal behavior as models for human learning. To the cognitivists the central component is the learner not the agent controlling the stimuli and the reinforces.

5- The rules of grammar are psychologically real because the learner can apply them automatically. However, they are not learned automatically. A new language is best learnt with demonstrations,

contextualization and practice of the actions. It is an intrinsic, deliberate and conscious learning. Therefore, the rules of grammar are psychologically real.

6- Language learners should have a cognitive control over the language before they start to use it. The Cognitive approach tries to bring to language teaching the new applications of psychology, psycholinguistics, and modern developments in linguistics (Stern, 1991: 169). Individuals control their mental processing during L_2 learning. Their knowledge is not a conditioned behavior. It is assimilated information in their cognitive resources that makes the behavior possible.

7- The Cognitive approach brought the learner-centered instruction to language teaching.

8- The functional use of grammatical patterns should be stressed. Since the aim is to make the learners to be able to use real language in real situations, the functions become very prominent.

9- Making mistakes is an important part of L_2 learning process. The cognitivists have a positive attitude towards mistakes because mistakes provide disconfirming instances which are important in learning a new concept or rule.

10- Learning should be meaningful because meaningful learning requires organizing the data into meaningful chunks, relating it to information already in the mind, and storing it for the future use.

11- Native-like abilities should be developed in learners because this approach attempts to help learners in all four skills by taking into consideration the *linguistic competence* of the learners. Linguistic competence involves the learners' intuitive knowledge of the grammar of L_2.

12-"A living language is characterized by rule-governed creativity " (Diller, 1978: 62) Language development was believed to be characterized by rule-governed creativity. This principle is clearly based on two concepts derived from Chomsky: Language is rule-governed and creative. It implies that the teaching of a language is a consciously learnt system.

In sum, Cognitive Approach has its own procedures conducted by its techniques and basic principles. It put forward the importance of meaningful learning which requires the consciously acquiring the rules of the second language. Learning process became a learner-centered and a kind of inductive language learning process started. It also stressed the effective factors of individual differences that influence the language learning. This brought into the mind that there are different types of memories since there are varied types of learners. So, teachers were enlightened about that teaching styles should be adjusted to learning requirements of the learners.

4.3.2. Syllabus

The Cognitive Approach has its own procedures conducted by its techniques and basic principles. Cognitive learning strategies which require mental processing affect the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge. All students employ some of these strategies although some are successful and some are not. Thus, the language teachers have two important tasks in class, one is to teach the target language and the other one is to teach students how to learn to facilitate the former one.

In a cognitive class, as a first step the teacher should teach the concepts, principles and often necessary background information. S/he should encourage a classroom atmosphere which is conductive to free questioning to produce ideas. Teacher should set a good example as an intuitive thinker. When appropriate, the teacher should teach the techniques

of problem solving. For example, s/he encourages students to state their own problems to find information relating to the problem. To do this, s/he can teach how to use the library or resources.

To the cognitivists, language learning is internal, mental operations are under the control of the individuals. The teaching process proceeds from competence to performance in cognitive classes, so learners should consciously acquire competence in a meaningful manner then they should practice. Teachers assist learners but s/he does not take the full responsibility. Meaningful learning and meaningful practice have the major emphasis. Teachers aim at developing students' ability to create meaningful replies.

A cognitive classroom procedure includes three important stages: Presentation, practice and application. Presentation stage begins with the presentation of the new material. While doing this, teacher first introduces the new material with relation to the previously learned one. S/he presents the new structures, new sounds, new patterns and new vocabulary items in context. While teaching concepts and principles teacher informs students about the functions and the use of the form. Teacher lets students to discuss the previously learned concepts that make up the principle. Students are expected to make up principles in the proper order. New structures are presented by means of visuals, contrastive comparisons, explanations, examples and demonstrations. The term practice, on the other hand, involves the application of the rules in examples in order to give students the opportunity to rehearse items. In cognitive classes meaningful exercises and some contextualized drills serve for this aim. They demand a mental process and creativity rather than habit formation, memorization or mechanism. The exercises are prepared to make students completely understand the new material, to help them learn to manipulate and to remember these forms and to demonstrate comprehension of the usage. Stern (1992: 149) suggests that transition from formal grammar practice to independent language should be

guided by appropriately graded exercises. So, the Cognitive Approach employs a few drills which are creative and meaningful. Through the application activities, learners are supposed to convert their thoughts into the second language, to use their acquired competence to generate the language needed, and to conceptualize the structures to manipulate the forms. In short, learners become ready to undertake performance activities. That is, it is time to assign the reading or listening comprehension passages for the learners to study, which will also allow learners to see the learned forms used in the context. For that reason lessons are generally organized in the light of task-based courses.

4.3.3. Learner and Teacher Roles

In this approach teachers proceed from competence to performance while teaching. While developing students' language ability, first their cognitive structures should be established. It consists of the necessary prerequisites that enable students to perform. The foundation of the knowledge is the primary process. After students understand the underlying structure, they are asked to perform. They should be able to create specific utterances required. The students must have active practice in going from thought to performance by means of competence. Teachers, on the other hand, should consider the importance of the students' existing cognitive structure. They should recognize the importance of the students' mental activity in learning. It helps them organize the material in a suitable manner.

Teachers, again, use inductive, deductive or discovery learning procedures as the situation warrants (Chastain, 1988: 147). Since the language is rule-governed the teaching of rules and then practicing them in meaningful and creative activities is very important. However, before giving the rules, the new material is presented by teachers with relation to the previous material to construct something in the learners' mind. This inductive learning is different from the inductive techniques used in audio-lingualism

because in audio-lingualism the learner is not expected to come to a conscious formulation of the rules.

Teachers act as a guide to create a reflective thinking atmosphere. They are to facilitate student acquisition, organization and storage of knowledge. They are to expand students' ability to create meaningful replies. In addition, language teachers employ the first language of the learners when necessary. Conceptualization is an indispensable part of the meaningful teaching. Therefore, visuals and demonstrations are used by teachers to build conceptualization of meaning. L_1 is also employed as a base to build form in the second language. Teachers introduce situations that promote the creativity use of language. Teachers should attempt to involve learners in communicative activities. Teachers' task is to help students to discover strategies for organizing their knowledge into meaningful hierarchies.

Teachers may suggest learners to repeat, formally practice with sounds and writing system, use formulas. Teachers should also encourage them to work in groups and to analyze expressions contrastively. S/he should also remind them to underline, use key words, take notes and summarize. Teachers, therefore, should train the learners to develop problem solving skills. They should also keep in their mind that the nature of individual differences in problem solving because not all the students are equal problem solvers.

On the other hand, learners are active and creative participants in learning L_2. They receive information and create patterns. Learners are given the opportunity to create needed language communications. The aim is to make the learners to be able to use real language in real situations, therefore, functions are important. Since abstract values do not have any values, learners are encouraged to acquire the language by means of the functions of the language. Learners become completely competent before using L_2. Therefore, they feel better while producing the language patterns. Since the learners are active participants in second language learning, they

are highly creative. Learners are also given the opportunity to create needed language items.

4.3.4. Strong Sides

The emergence of the Cognitive Approach was an attempt to bring to language pedagogy the new insights of psycholinguistics. Its criticism changed the negative or useless parts of Behaviorism in L_2 teaching. Therefore, it has lots of strong points in the teaching process of second or foreign languages.

1- The first and the most important side is its being a reaction to Audio-lingualism. That is, the Cognitive approach does not consider learning as a habit formation. L_2 learning is a mental process, so it is not only repetition and reinforcement but also perception, acquisition, organization and storage of knowledge. For that reason, learning a language is not a matter of habit; it is the slow acquisition by associations and generalizations.

2- Secondly, it is not deniable that meaningful learning, one of the most important features of this approach, helps learners to learn better and easier. It is the most affective and efficient learning style. So, the Cognitive Approach focuses the importance to the organization of the material. McDonough (1981: 73) says the teachers should help the students discover strategies for organizing their knowledge into meaningful hierarchies. The newly learnt material should be related to existing ideas. On the other hand, rotely-learnt materials are isolated entities. If someone acquires the information through using his conscious or mental ability in such a meaningful way, it can be very easy to keep the information in long-term memory and recall it whenever it is needed. So, thanks to Cognitive Approach " *forgetting*" is minimized.

3- Thirdly, since the Transformational Generative Grammar stresses the productive and creative characteristics of language, learners, therefore, just need the rule to create and understand language. Cognitivists support that

language is both rule-governed and creative. Thus, L_2 learners make up their own rules and impose their interpretations on the second language.

4- The last point is that the instructions in L_2 teaching follow some sequential order. It proceeds from competence to performance so learners feel better while producing the language patterns. That is to say, by the help of this approach learning became more meaningful and easier and creative and active learners, meaningful learning, and transfer of the knowledge from STM to LTM were provided.

4.3.5. Weak Sides

Although the Cognitive Approach was a positive renovation in ELT, it has some weak sides like the other approaches. For example,

1- Overemphasis on linguistic rules and grammar may cause an underemphasis on meaning. Since the meanings are associated with communicative situation and they are driven from the perceptions on intentions of speaker and hearer, the meanings should also have enough emphasis on teaching / learning situations. So, great attention should be paid to the formation of true functional habits.

2- Cognitive Approach does not have enough emphasis on cultural and social factors affecting second / foreign language teaching. Foreign culture sometimes becomes the most prominent handicap in learning a foreign language. As a result of this, students may undergo a mild case of culture shock. The feeling caused by a completely different culture may be uncomfortable and difficult for students to handle. However, Cognitive approach has almost no attempt to solve these kinds of problems.

3- Cognitive Approach does not have enough attempts to include affective variables of learner in L_2 teaching. The most influential learner variable may be those related to learners' emotions, attitudes, and personalities. As Chastain (1988: 122) claims the affective domain plays an important role in

developing second-language skills than does the cognitive ones. Since the emotions control the performance and will activate the cognitive functions, the affective variables should be neglected.

4- It can also be claimed that the Cognitive Approach cannot be applied to all learners / people. As Krashen (1982:91) cites adults' cognitive maturity should allow them to deal with the abstract nature of language better than children. One should complete his cognitive development to learn more complex subjects. For example, adults can talk about the rules like subject-verb agreement or relative clause formation. Adults can use the patterns of their first language and insert second language vocabulary words in the slots. This allows them immediate participation in simple conversations. Thus, the Cognitive Approach may not be very useful for all learners who are at different ages.

5- Self-monitoring and self-evaluation are not considered to be important in the Cognitive Approach. In self-monitoring, students check their comprehension during listening or reading. They also check the accuracy and appropriateness of their oral or written production. In self-evaluation, the learners judge how well they have accomplished a learning activity after it has been completed. People learn better if they check their processes, accuracy and if they judge their performance and correct the errors by themselves. However, there is not enough emphasis on this aspect of learning / teaching process in the Cognitive Approach.

6- The Cognitive Approach is derived of other affective elements in L_2 teaching. It does not deal with some problems caused by interim language, culture, and communicative competence, affective variables of learners, emotions and motivation. Consequently, its weak points may be mainly grouped into the socio-cultural aspects and affective learning elements.

4.3.6. Contributions to ELT

Meaningful learning requires consciously acquiring the rules of the second language, not automatically repetition or habit formation. The outcomes of the meaningful learning are influenced by cumulatively established ideational system in cognitive structures. So, one of the most important contribution of this approach into ELT is to teach the new material in relation to the previously learned material. This approach states that every item should be taught in context to help learners to transfer the knowledge. However, this conceptualization depends upon that learners have different perceptual styles so they prefer to learn with different kinds of sensory information.

Thanks to this approach and the cognitive factors, motivation gained importance in language classes. Learners should be strongly motivated to reduce cognitive conflicts by either changing their attitudes, seeking more information or restructuring the information available to them. In studying the motivation of thinking in a problem-solving activity, the effect of instructional set is noteworthy. The Cognitive Approach informs teachers about the readiness which refers to the adequacy of existing cognitive capacity to cope with learning task. General cognitive maturity reflects the age-level differences in intellectual capacity. It also reflects the individual differences in educational background. Thus, the teacher determines whether the materials s/he chooses to teach are learnable or not.

Another contribution of this approach to ELT is *rehearsal* which is one of the most important strategies used in ELT to pronounce better. Secondly, through the inductive inferencing, learners use their cognition to discover or find the meaning of new words and grammatical functions. As Rivers (1981: 90) states many new directions opened up by research in linguistics and psychology have provided teachers with many ideas for program development and teaching approaches. It should be borne in mind that the most important contribution of this approach to ELT is that it caused

the emergence of many related language teaching methods and theories, so it also opens up many research areas in ELT.

In addition to the views mentioned above, in the Cognitive Approach the new material is taught in relation to the previously learned material which improves learning and memory. Every item should be taught in context to help learners to transfer the knowledge. However, this conceptualization depends on that learners have different perceptual styles, so they prefer to learn with different kinds of sensory information.

4.3.7. Related Methods

According to the principles and the type of activities, it can be said Community Language Learning can be a method to be used. Community Language Learning accepts a kind of *"true"* human learning which is both cognitive and affective. It demands a holistic approach to language teaching. According to the principles of CLL, language is for communication; the goal of the teachers should be teach the students how to use the language communicatively; students' native language is used to make them feel relaxed and secure; students' mistakes must be emphasized, and so on. In CLL, students generally sit in a circle facing the teacher. Teacher begins with greeting the students, introducing himself and having students introduce themselves since building a relationship with and among students is considered very important. After the teacher writes the sentences and answers the students' questions, s/he reads the transcript of the recorded conversation several times. During this period, the students just relax and listen since they need quiet reflection time in order to learn. The next step of the lesson consists of pronunciation practice which is called Human Computer activity. In which students choose which phrase they want to practice pronouncing; the teacher, following the students' lead, repeats the phrase until the learner is satisfied and stops (Freeman, 1983: 98)

4.3.8. Discussion Questions for Students

1- Why did this approach emerge as a reaction to the Audiolingualism?
2- State the main difference between the Cognitive and the Cognitive-code Approach.
3- Do you really think that all the principles of the Cognitive Approach are suitable for foreign language teaching? Why?
4- What is the role of the learners in the Cognitive Approach?
5- What are the weak sides of this approach?
6- Discuss the birth and development of Cognitive Approach.
7- How are the mistakes in this approach corrected?

4.3.9. Basic Techniques and Exercise / Activity Types

Exercises and activities can be used in this approach are as follow: question-answer exercises, completion exercises, cloze tests, multiple choice exercises, structure signals, establishing a context or situation, problem solving activities, synonyms-antonyms, odd one out, etc.. Rivers (1978:277) states whether the grammar has been presented deductively or inductively, a time comes when the students need to try for themselves whether they can use the various parts of it in novel contexts to express specific meanings. Several very commonly used types of exercises may be termed cognitive in the sense that they require of the student an abstract comprehension of the workings of the grammatical system. Therefore, according to Rivers, multiple-choice exercises, fill-in-the-blank and completion exercises, the cloze procedure, and exercises in living language should be considered for the inductive exploration of particular problems of the grammar. On the other hand, conversations, restatements, expansions and combinations will be considered under Production. Here, these drills and activities will be exemplified in order to give some ideas about the cognitive approach courses.

4.3.9.1. Teaching Grammar and Structure

4.3.9.1.1. Multiple-choice Exercise

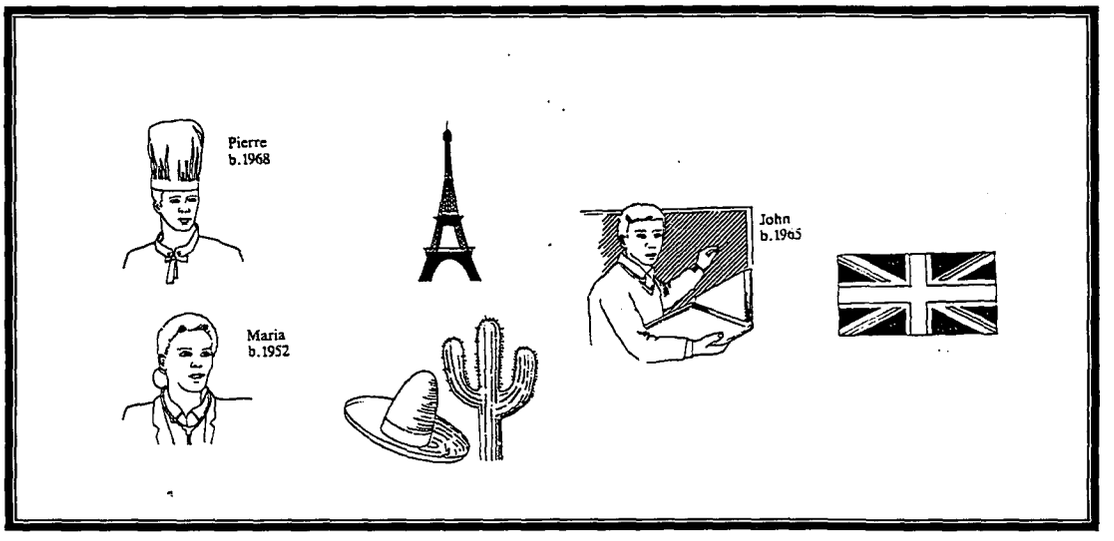
T: Read the following sentences carefully. Circle in the margin the letter corresponding to the tense or to the tense and aspect of the verb that you would use to complete the sentence when:

A= simple past B= past cont. C= present perfect D= past perf.	
a- That's the best film I .....(see) this year.	*A B C D*
b- They .....(live) in Europe 6 months when I first met them	*A B C D*
c- If she .....(understand) the situation, she'd explain it to us.	*A B C D*
d- While we ....(walk) for the bus, we heard a loud bang.	*A B C D*
e- The cake'd have been better if it ....(be) in the oven longer	*.A B C D*

As it is seen, this exercise requires comparative knowledge of the use of the tenses mentioned above including the choice of the appropriate form for the if-clauses of conditional sentences. The exercise tests knowledge of the functioning of the language system, not ability to produce the forms required. It useful as an objectively corrected test of cognitive assimilation of the rules.

4.3.9.1.2. Question-Answer Exercise

This type of exercise may be referred to establish meaningful and contextualized drills. Students are given some pictures, drawings, or charts and then they are asked to answer the questions related to the these visuals. In some case, some cues or definitions can be given as written in the pictures. Pair works or group works can be employed. For example,



Teacher asks following questions for the elementary level students:

1- *What is his / her name?*
2- *Where is he / she from?*
3- *What is his / her job?*
4- *What is his / her job?*
5- *How old is he / she?*

Afterwards teacher applies a group work or pair work to work with pictures and students to write a short paragraph.

4.3.9.1.3. Games

Games may also be applied in the practice stage of the lessons. *Noughts and crosses* are a popular child game which enables the teacher to ensure practice of specific language items in an amusing context. Teacher divides the class into two teams. The first group is the noughts *(0)* and the second one is the *crosses (x)* . Teacher writes the following on the board:

This	never	running
Their	cannot	Are
is not	play	Can

The teams select the square they wish to play and a student from the team has to say a sentence using the word on that square. If the sentence is correct, on the square a nought or a cross is drawn depending on the teams players. The game may have more fun if the teacher brings the game on a card and a square which are all covered. Students select a square which the teacher uncovers and then the team has to make sentences with whatever is underneath. (Harmer, 1996)

4.3.9.1.4. Completion Exercise

Teacher delivers the sheets of papers on which some information is written and then students work in pairs or groups to complete the sentences on the cards.

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Dear .....N...
Well, here we are in ...I...,
....W....., and we are having a/an ....A...time. I'm sitting/lying ....Pr...., writing postcards, drinking .....D.... and looking at .....L....., N.... is ..... V.....Pr.....PL....
Tomorrow we are going to .....I..... I'm sure it will be .....A.....</td><td>N(name)
John
Mary
Mother
etc.</td><td>W(weather)
The sun is shining
It is raining
It is snowing
Etc.</td><td>L(things to)
look at
the sea
the rain
the sheep</td></tr>
<tr><td>Pl(Place)
my room
the bar
a cafe
etc.</td><td>Pr(Preposition)
In by on near
Under opposite</td><td>D(drink)
coffee
Tea
wine
etc.</td></tr>
</table>

4.3.9.1.5. Cloze Test

Cloze tests are prose passages, usually a paragraph or more in length, from which words have been deleted. The students rely on the context in order to supply the missing words. A cloze test is very good way of practicing some grammar items, reading comprehension, listening comprehension. In brief, it is a good measure of overall proficiency. The following one is prepared for testing the general ability of the students. Here is a short passage for Intermediate level students from an ESL text that illustrates this procedure.

Every day thousands of people jog. Why has jogging – running slowly for long distances – become so popular ? Donald Robbins, who is 40 years old .....(1) works in an office, began jogging .....(2) few years ago because he felt .....(3) was too fat. At first he .....(4) only run about 100 yards and .....(5) took him almost three months to .....(6) able to run a full mile. ..... (7) two years later, he ran in ..... (8) eastern marathon race – over 26 miles.....(9) you jog too ? If you decide ..... (10) , be sure to ask your doctor .....(11) advice.

(From Madsen, 1983)

4.3.9.1.6. Multiple Choice Exercises

These exercises are also meaningful and valuable items .Carefully planned multiple-choice questions require high mental activity. These types of activities can be employed to review tenses, phrases, clauses, idioms, vocabulary, and so on. Here are some examples for advanced level students to practice tenses.

1- When they suddenly .....that something strong ..... in the bank, the guards who .....their lunch ..... in the tea room for sometime.

a-realized / happened / had / were chatting
b-realized / happened / had had / had been chatting
c-realized / happened / had had / were chatting
d-realized / was happening / had had / had been chatting
e-realized / happened / were having / had been chatting

2- She .....for about 20 minutes and .....round a corner when she ..... a loud explosion.

a-was driving / was turning / heard
b-had been driving / had been turning / heard
c-had been driving / was turning / heard
d-was driving / had been turning / heard
e-had been driving / turned / had heard

3-On the way home, she .....(1) that a man .....(2) her for several blocks. When she.....(3) the bus stop, she .....(4).

1- a) noticed
b) was noticing
c) had been noticing
d) had noticed
e) has noticed

2- a) was following
b) followed
c) had been following
d) had followed
e) is following

3- a) had reached
b) reaches
c) had been reaching
d) reached
e) was reaching

4- a) had been sitting down
b) is sitting down
c) had sat down
d) was sitting down
e) sat down

4.3.9.1.7. Structure Signals

This is another kind of meaningful exercise that is used in the cognitive classes. The learner demonstrates comprehension without actually manipulating language forms. Teacher wants students listen to the sentences and after each sentence s/he wants them to write ***P*** if the object is plural, and write ***S*** if the object is singular.

1-I haven't seen his gold tooth.
2-Have you broken your feet?
3-She bought the white fish.
4- I can't get onto the old.
5- Ann had seen the deer.

4.3.9.1.8. Establishing a Context or a Situation

This is another way of practicing foreign / second language. The students' response will show whether they understand the sentences or whether they can choose the correct forms to use the proper language. In KPDS, these types of questions are asked. For example,

1- A friend of yours has asked for your honest opinion about someone you know to be an unreliable and unpleasant person. You answer bluntly:
2- A friend of yours has had an accident and his car is badly smashed up. He is very upset. So to cheer him up, you say :
3- You are visiting a neighbor who is back from hospital after quite a serious operation. He is the type who does not like to be ill and won't admit being ill and is talking of going back to work within a week. You don't want to upset or worry him, but you want him to stay at home and rest a little longer. You say : .....

4.3.9.1.9. Problem Solving Activities

These activities are very productive and they can be applied both the practice and the application sessions of the cognitive classes. These activities can be done in order to practice structures, patterns, vocabulary, and so on. Here are some examples for these types of activities:

4.3.9.1.9.1. Activity 1: Reviewing of the Tenses

The following activity is prepared by Maley and Doff (1988: 92) for Intermediate level students to practice the Simple Present Tense. For example, the class is divided into pairs. One partner listens, the other talks. The listener gives the following instructions before the other begins to talk:

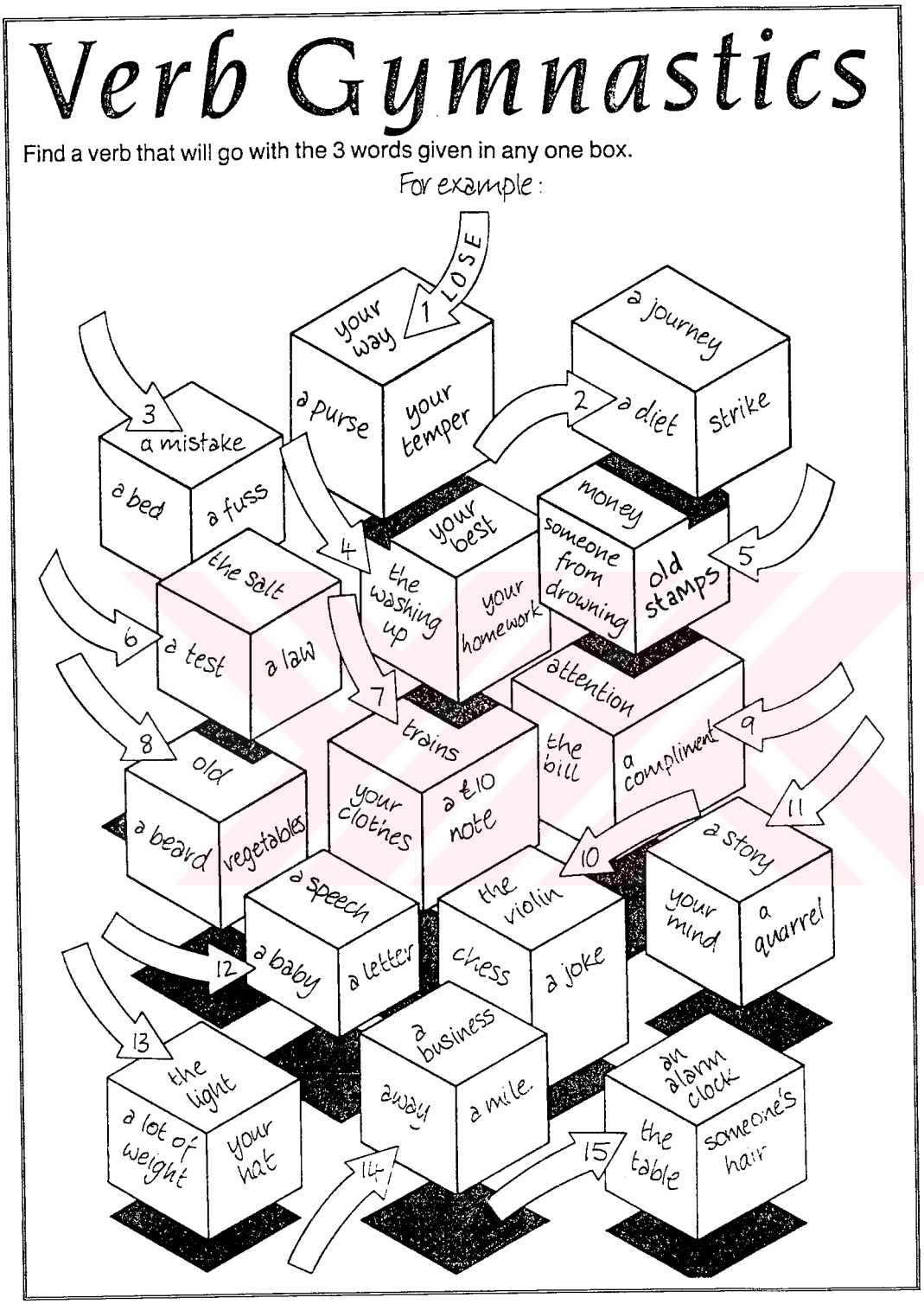
> " *I want you to imagine you are entering a forest. Describe it to me.*" The partner should say whatever comes into his / her mind about an imaginary forest. The listener may prompt him / her asking: *Tell me about the trees..... Do you follow a path or do you strike off in an unknown direction? ...* As the storyteller continues through the forest, the listener breaks him / her at intervals with the following remarks:

* *You find a glass. What is it like ? What do you do with it ;*
* *You meet a bear. Describe the bear. What happens?*
* *You come to a river. What do you do ?*
* *You come to a wall. Describe it.*
* *You come to a house. What do you do ?*

Once the last question has been answered, the listener will interpret the story. Only he or she knows the symbolic meaning of the objects mentioned in the question. The listener must now interpret the storyteller's attitude through his / her reaction to these objects. This exercise demands great attention on the part of the listener and some ingenuity on the part of the storyteller.

4.3.9.1.9.2. Activity 2: Brainstorming Activity

The following exercise is a kind of brain storming activity. In this exercise there are some blocks with written some words or phrases on them. Students are asked to find a verb that will go with the 3 words given in any one box. First word is written as an example. *(Word games with English, 1994:63)*



The cognitive exercises shown here do not require immediate reinforcement because they are not designed to trigger automatic responses. The correct answer can be included in the activity itself or be given i the next

lesson by the teacher. Chastain (1988: 142) emphasizes the importance of these exercises saying that the advantage of employing cognitive exercises is that given a successful and meaningful learning preparation more class time is freed for other activities. Thus, students become ready for the application of the new material and they have enough time for more productive activities.

4.3.9.2. Teaching Vocabulary

The acquisition of an adequate vocabulary is essential for successful second language use because without an extensive vocabulary. The students will be unable to use the structures and functions that may have learned for comprehensible communication. In a cognitive class teacher should proceed from competence to performance. In other words, s/he has to follow the presentation, practice and the application stages. Conveying the meaning of vocabulary items is carried out by various techniques and activities for meaningful learning. This is provided by contextualization, demonstrations, drawings, real objects, flashcards, and OHP. There are also other verbal techniques such as explanation, synonyms – antonyms, hyponym, word-formation, collocations, cognates, semantic field, context clues and cognitive depth.

4.3.9.2.1. Using Realia

This is one way presenting words by bringing the things into the class. Some words such as *pen, matchbox, ball, fruit, ruler, shoe*, *watch*, etc. can be taught in this way. Pictures, drawings, wall pictures, flashcards and charts can be very helpful to demonstrate the vocabulary items, especially to the young learners since these vehicles help learners to form an image for the new item in their minds. On the other hand, explanation of the meaning of the vocabulary items can also be helpful especially for beginner and elementary level students. However, teachers should be careful in teaching the words with the explanation of the meanings in order to avoid the stretched

meanings of the words. That is to say, when a teacher teaches the word "*hiss*" , for example, s/he describes the nose that snakes make. But, we can stretch its meaning to describe a way of talking to each other. For example, *"Don't move or you're dead!", He hissed ! "Collaboration* also governs the word meaning. Therefore, in order to know how to use the word *" sprained "*, we should know that although we can say *" sprained ankle, sprained wrist "*, we cannot say *" sprained rib ".* Therefore, these explanations should not be left unclear while explaining the words.

4.3.9.2.2. Hyponym and Semantic Field

This reflects the sense relations of words. Sometimes words have meanings in relation to others. Thus, students need to know the meaning of "vegetable" as a word to describe any one of a number of other things such as *carrot, cabbage, potato, eggplant*, etc. Vegetable has a general meaning whereas carrot has a specific meaning. In Hyponym technique teachers can use the word *vegetable* as a super ordinate, but the others cannot be used. Meanwhile, s/he can also use visuals, realia or demonstration to make the meaning clear. For more advanced learners, semantically related words can be taught using Semantic *Fields* which consist of words sharing the certain semantic features or components. A componential analysis can show what relates and differentiates the members of a particular semantic network. Here is a table for this technique. (Rudzka, Channell, Putseys, Ostyn, 1981 : 186)

	Dividing line between two countries	*Part of the surface of sth along its limit*	*Part not written on at two sides of a page*	*Line dividing off that part*	*Narrow strip of land beside a road*	*Line or part of a line marking the limit of sth*	*Often circular or curved*	*Upper limits, usually of a container when full*	*Flat part which extends round the face of a hat*	*Usually with a steep / vertical side*	*Of water, especially when deep*	*Usually outdoors and natural*	*Dividing line between two areas of land*	The limits of something
border	+	+												
margin			+	+										
verge					+									
edge						+								
rim						+	+							
brim								+	+					
brink						+				+	+	+		
boundary													+	
bounds														+

4.3.9.2.3. Context Clue

This is another technique in vocabulary teaching for guessing vocabulary from context. This technique includes activating background knowledge from the topic if a text obtains clues from grammatical structure, pronunciation and punctuation. It also includes the natural redundancy of surrounding words. Nunan (2000: 134) exemplifies this technique in such a way. The reader should be able to guess the meaning of workaholic in the following sentence: *My father was a workaholic, he worked so long and so hard that we rarely saw him.* Through such context some words may be taught meaningfully.

4.3.9.2.4. Cognitive Depth

This technique was developed by Craik and Lockhart. Stevick (1976:124) made a great deal of the notion of depth by which he meant the amount of intellectual and emotional effort which the learner invests in the learning process. Nunan (2000:135) explains this as another technique. Oxford (1990:56) explains that "challenging" language activities are those

which have "cognitive depth;" that is to say they draw on a variety of intellectual processes. These are exemplified below, together with links to the lesson plan shown in parentheses: thinking about both form and meaning (recoding meaning into L2 form); understanding (recoding content so meaning is consistent with the original text); reasoning and inferencing (interacting with the text; choosing the appropriate vocabulary and form); generalising (extracting the gist); solving problems (circumlocuting and simplifying form); monitoring output (checking translated version); evaluating and comparing alternatives (completing the comparison chart); and deduction (noting patterns). Here is an example:

According to this technique, students are asked one of the following questions in relation to each word. Each question forces successively deeper levels of processing and there is superior remembering when words were related to questions 4 or 5 than 1 or 2. For example,

1- Is there a word present?	*4- Is it a member of ...category?*
2- Is the word present?	*5-Does it fit into the following sentence*
3- Does it rhyme with...?	

Words have antonyms, e.g. *good* and *bad* and synonyms such as *bad* and *evil.* Even in this example, one thing is clear that words seldom have absolute synonyms although context may take them synonymous on some occasions. Therefore this technique may not be so productive. Antonyms of the words do not have such problems unlike synonyms. For example, some adjectives such as old-young, short-tall, thin-thick, cheap-expensive, big-small, and so on can be taught in this way. However, for synonyms this example is not a good one. For example, the synonyms of the verb "*to start* "can be given as a synonym verb "*to break out*" in the sentence, but in some sentences this synonym can not be used instead of the verb *to start.* That is, *A fire broke out*, but not *The lesson broke out.*

Words can also be taught in *context* by using *inference cognitive learning strategy.* Students read a passage and guess the meanings of unknown words. Such a text may be given to students to guess the meanings of words such as *tiptoed, strolled, crawling, hiking, marching, wander, stagger and limping.* After these explanations it will be helpful and useful to give some activities which are designed to encourage students to use words in an involving way. For example, in a cognitive class odd one out activity, word games, word tour activities, crossword puzzles, hidden words puzzles, word ladder exercises, word ending and beginning exercises, jumbled words activities, word matching exercises, etc. can be carried out.

4.3.9.2.5. Odd Words Out

This technique can also be used in the practice part as in the following example. Teacher can determine the level according to the words that s/he has chosen for the exercise. For example,

SPOT THE ODD WORDS OUT

Example:

radio *computer* *video* *television*

Discuss the following words. Put a circle around the odd word out and say why it is the odd word.

tourist	*visitor*	*traveller*	*student*
İnvestigate	*determine*	*explore*	*enquire*
elderly	*intelligent*	*stupidly*	*talkative*
utilize	*uncover*	*reveal*	*disclose*

4.3.9.2.6. Grouping

This is another technique used again in the practice part at a vocabulary teaching lesson. For example, teacher writes the following words on the board in a muddled order and asks students to sort them into groups according to their origins, structures, features, etc. S/he also asks them to find out what their groups have in common.

e.g. : *walnut – chicken – peach – strawberry – melon – banana – hazelnut – tomato – turkey – lemon – pear – gooseberry – kitchen – grapefruit – raspberry – thyme – currant*

4.3.9.2.7. Word Tour Activity

Ellis and Sinclair (1989: 38) advise the activity word Tour which lets students produce the needed language creatively. In this activity, teacher gives these instructions:

Teacher : *Think of a place you know well and imagine that you are organizing a sightseeing tour for tourists. Think of five places you would include on y our tour and write down the order in which the tourists will visit them. Learn your tour off by heart so that you can picture it in your mind. Wherever you have five new English words to learn. Imagine these words are the tourists on your tour and picture the words in the places on your tour like as follows :*

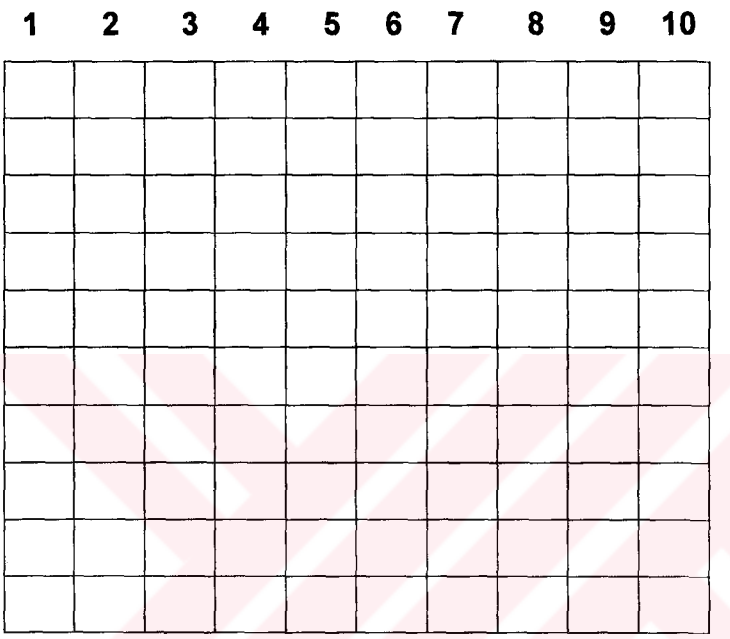
tour	***words to be learned***
Buckingham Place	*apron*
Houses of Parliament	*dustpan*
Westminster Abber	*vacuum cleaner*
	broom

Teacher : *Imagine Nelson wearing an apron, imagine the Queen is brushing the floor of the Buckingham Place and using dustpan....Can you imagine pictures for other words ?*

4.3.9.2.8. Crossword Puzzle

These puzzles may be useful for teachers to teach the different kinds of vocabulary items at one time. So, students can learn and review the vocabulary item related to different topics and issues. If wanted, these types of puzzles can be designed according to the interests of the students or on

some specific topics, for example, animal names, countries in the world, cities of Turkey, and so on. On the other hand, word activities like puzzles, word ladders, jumbled words, matching and word classes can be used to increase the creativity and the mental ability of the learners. Here are some examples:Here is an example:



(Keskil, 1996 :3)

Across

1- sth. to cut with
2- to move the head to mean *yes*
3- a word to start a friendly letter ; to hit with the inside of the hand
4- not " out "
5- sth. to put papers inside
6- 1st person plural pronoun; to be Able to decode writing
7- pictures hung on the wall
8- plural of goose ; a journey
9- a preposition ; what you call
10- not dry ; a place to buy food

Down

1- confusing with a funny answer ; to chew and swallow sth.
2- not needed anymore
3- a slow moving animal
4- a type of crop ; sth. to write with
5- short form of ID card ; a green animal that jumps
6- we have ten.....; short for mother
7- letter for help ; not the farmer
8- sth. we use to climb
9- not to sink or set
10- wonderful ; an exact place

(Keskil, 1996 : 1)

4.3.9.2.9. Hidden Words

This activity can be employed to test the ability of the learners about the letters in a muddled order. This is a kind of brainstorming activity, so it is useful for learners to show their creativity about some certain situations and to learn or review words.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
X	T	H	O	U	G	H	T
C	A	M	E	S	A	T	E
D	U	A	R	Y	V	Z	A
R	G	D	E	W	E	N	T
A	H	E	A	O	R	A	N
N	T	B	D	N	D	I	D
K	N	E	W	R	O	T	E

(Keskil, 1996 : 3)

4.3.9.2.10. Word Ladder

Instruction: Add one letter to teach word to create a new word that fits the definition

1- myself ____

2- I would _____ ____

3- to free or do away with _____ _____ _____ _____

4- to sit on and be carried _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

5- a woman just married _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

6- a building over a river _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

4.3.9.2.11. Jumbled Adjectives

Instruction: Put the letter(s) into the correct order to form an adjective

1- lenders	6- kawe
2- lentis	7- ithck
3- raveb	8- wallosh
4- senterp	9- robing
5- tytiw	10- rean

4.3.9.2.12. Word Classes

Instruction: Classify the following words according to their being vegetable, fruit, animal, parts of body, etc.

1- tulip	7- kidney	13- daisy	19- garlic	25-smallpox
2- tunic	8-daffodil	14- vest	20- lung	26- dog
3- liver	9- cupboard	15- eggplant	21- sofa	27-calendar
4- cat	10- hose	16- flute	22- measles	28- hamster
5- rose	11- slacks	17- fish	23- chest	29-migraine
6- bird	12- organ	18- mumps	24- wardrobe	30- spinach

The application of the words presented and practiced naturally occur while developing language skills and studying on language area. Therefore, students internalize the words through presentation and practice and then transfer them from their short term memories to the long term memories by the help of meaningful activities.

4.3.9.3. Teaching Listening

According to the Cognitive Approach, four skills should be introduced at approximately at the same time in the natural sequence in which teacher should organize a hierarchical organization of tasks from competence to performance. To the cognitivists, the goal is not to teach language skills but also to make students talented language users. What is taught or learned is

triggered by what the children need for the language they are actually using at the time.

Listening activities should be task-based to transfer information for communicative purposes, focusing on the functions of L_2. Listening comprehension has three sequential components: *Discrimination, perception and comprehension.* At the discrimination stage students tend to hear the new sounds in terms of the nearest equivalents in their native language. Thus, teacher should teach the students to perceive and to distinguish those sounds by contrasting the L_1 and L_2 . At the perception stage students listen to sentences for meaning. Teacher develops the students' auditory memory providing them as much language as possible. And the last stage, comprehension, requires recreating the speakers' message, activating relevant background knowledge and using it to anticipate ideas. At this stage teacher should not stress vocabulary building, grammar or translation but s/he should teach transfer. Here are some examples for both these stages.

4.3.9.3.1. Discrimination

Dealing with the discrimination of some elements such as stress, intonation, structure signals may be important for the beginners and elementary level students. So, teachers should use the necessary techniques such as 1-2-3 exercises, pair-matching ones, etc. for decreasing the complexity and difficulty. The following are some examples for discrimination:

T: Which word in each line does not contain the sound on the left ? Listen and cross the odd word out.

a- / I / pick – discord – listen – fight
b- / e / best – fear – friend – them
c- / æ / bad – human – family – black
d- / Λ / comfort – fuss – home – money
e- / a / ignorance – harmony – problem – knowledge
f- / p / what – not – color – tolerance

T: Look at the text and listen it again. Underline the stressed words.

I hear your words listen to mine. Just look at yourself. Let me tell you. My friends prejudice is bad. Not a joke. Not cool. I comfort myself by dreaming of a figure full of harmony with no fear where problems of prejudice just disappear...

4.3.9.3.2. Memory Exercises

Students also develop the ability to remember phrases and sentences. Teacher should apply auditory memory exercises which require students' ability to remember the items in longer chunks. At the *comprehension level*, students are wanted to understand what they hear and to demonstrate. *Wh-questions, multiple-choice exercises, sentence completions, true-false exercises, yes-no questions, opinion and inference questions* are dealt with. The following are some examples:

Instruction: *After listening, complete the chart with information you hear.*

Conversation

W: Hello. What's your name?
M: Mathew Schwarz.
W: Ok. Could you spell please?
M: Of course. M-A-T-T....
W: No, your surname.
M: Ok. S-C-H-W...
W: Please write it down here..
M: Sure.
W: Thanks. What's your address?
M: That's 24 Killburn Road, London.
W: And your phone number?
M: 071 657 7573
W: Ok. And how old are you?
M: Well, 32.W: ok. Thanks

PARACHUTE CLUB

Last Name: .....
First Name : .....
Address : .....
.....
.....
Phone: .....
Age: .....

It should be borne in mind that teacher should inform students about cognitive learning strategies so they can benefit by using them. Teachers may suggest the important points on the key word strategy. S/he can also discuss the imaginary and auditory representation strategy so that they can relate the new information to visual and auditory concepts in the memory. Moreover, teachers can also advise the learners should use inferencing strategy by which they use available information to guess the meaning of the new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information.

4.3.9.4. Teaching Reading

Reading is an active mental process so the readers' role is crucial. In meaningful reading concentration upon the important elements conveying the message is important because attention to each word represents an overwhelming amount of information and the mind cannot process it. Thus, L_2 teachers have to guide the students and help them to read more effectively.

Stages for teaching reading are pre-reading, during (while) and post reading stages. Prereading tasks should be designed in a way that should activate students' cognitive structures and should provide the readers with necessary background to organize activity; in short, they should elicit prior knowledge, build background and focus attention. While reading is the next stage at which the teacher should facilitate learners' reading by giving them guarding questions which help them to read with a purpose. The last stage covers speaking, listening and writing activities. This last stage, post reading section, has an important role in cognitive classes because one of the principles of the Cognitive Approaches is to develop native-like abilities of the learners through practicing four skills.

4.3.9.5. Teaching Speaking

When students began to produce the language needed, the performance period of L_2 acquisition starts according to the cognitivists. Therefore, teacher's role in acquiring competence is to make explanation and to develop performance to provide opportunities for practice, that is, for productive participation in communicative and meaningful speech activities. These activities can be problem solving activities, resumes, guessing games, quizzes, role plays, story telling activities, etc. Here are some explanations for the application of these activities.

4.3.9.5.1. Problem Solving Activities

These are widely used to develop productive skills in L_2 classrooms according to the cognitive approach. For example, teacher describes a situation: " *A fire has broken out where you live. You have 5 minutes to rescue some of your belongings. What would you rescue and what would you do*? " Then, students may work in pairs or groups and they discuss their ideas. Resumes may also be employed to practice speaking. The students may summarize a dialog or a reading passage. Teacher can begin with one student but switch to another one as the summary progress by telling the only important points.

4.3.9.5.2. Guessing Games

All games may be creative and enjoyable ways to develop the speaking skills. The game " *Guess who I am ?* " can be used to teach animals, jobs, people, etc. The student who guesses correctly takes the next turn. Another variation may be like this: Each student writes down five adjectives on a piece of paper. Three adjectives should describe his / her physical appearance and the other two describe his / her character. The papers are later collected and the teacher reads them at random. Students try to guess who is being described.

4.3.9.5.3. Quizzes

Quizzes, on the other hand, are also useful activities to practice language in an enjoyable and meaningful way. The following is an example to show the practice of was / was. The students are divided into two teams, each of which is given time to write a number general questions including was / were. Later, a member of Team A asks a question to a member of Team B, and then they change the roles. These games provide practice in an amusing context.

4.3.9.5.4. Story-telling

This activity is used as an activity to entertain and to practice in L_2. For example, teacher demonstrates the sounds effect that accompanies the following story. Beginner students listen only for the words that cue the appropriate effect. When students understand the whole story they act it out. For example,

> Rosita is alone in the house. Outside she hears the rain to fall..... (patting *of fingertips on the desk*). There is a scratching at the door..... (*light touch of fingernails*) Maybe it is a lion..... (*roaring*) maybe it is a monster.....(*howling*). She is scared. The radio is playing a song. She turns it off..... (it *stops*). The scratching at the door is still continuing. She opens the door..... (creaking) Her dog comes in and gives her a big kiss..... (kissing *sound*) .....
>
> *(Richard, P., 1996: 177)*

4.3.9.6. Teaching Writing

Writing should be practiced lastly according to the natural order of the skills in acquiring L_2 because first of all students should become competent enough to perform in writing. To do this, the L_2 teacher may scramble words and ask students to rearrange them in a proper order or s/he may ask them to answer some questions in written forms. Some meaningful completion drills, reconstruction exercises, integration drills in written forms may be useful and effective. To the cognitive approach before producing a writing

task, learners should have been taught all the necessary vocabulary items, grammar patterns, spelling and functions related to the topic which will be used in the writing process.

4.3.9.6.1. Situation Exercise

Activity 1 : After students become competent in writing they begin to deal with productive performance skills. This step is difficult since psychologically the load on the mental processes is suddenly doubled, so the initial in real language writing should be as simple as possible. For that reason, learners may be wanted to write one or two sentences. For example, teacher explains a situation and wants them to give an appropriate statement:
e.g. You call a friend who you haven't seen for some time and you are interested in her activities. You ask : .....?

4.3.9.6.2. Completion Exercise

Another application can be done by giving a picture. Students may be asked to write a few sentences by looking at the picture. After students learned to write sentences to express meaning, they should be given the opportunity to combine sentences into a paragraph as the cognitive approach stresses the importance of *gradually increasing difficulty* principle.

Activity 2: In the following exercise students' internal mental processes are actively involved as they attempt to send messages via their acquired language system. After students created a group story, they may write it down. They may be given one or two sentences from a story and they are asked to write rest. For example, the story may begin with the sentences, *"The boys see a dark shadow fall across the sidewalk. They look up and see....."*

4.3.9.6.3. Activity 3: Finding Solutions

They may also be given a problem and wanted to write a solution. A more creative activity can be assigned like the following: ***Instruction:*** *Write*

an advertisement to introduce the "Tasty World" restaurant which has the following features.

> *Tasty World is a new chain of fast food restaurants with a difference. They sell food from all over the world – but fast. On their menu, they have food from everywhere – Mexican tacos, French snails, Indian curries and lots more – to eat in the restaurant or to take away. The food is fresh and very tasty, at reasonable prices. All types of people go to Tasty World restaurants – young and old, men and women, business people. students and families. They aim to make their restaurants fun for everyone. (Maley, 1988 : 28)*

Since the real language use is very important for the Cognitive Approach students may be asked to write complaining letters, job application letters, journals and other messages. For example, students are asked to write a complaining letter. They are divided into groups and each group is given an advertisement. They imagine that they have bought the item, but they are not satisfied with it. They should write a letter of complaint to the company. They decide what to write a complaining letter. They should be creative at this stage. Two groups may write a complaining letter and the other may write a reply. This is an enjoyable activity and it includes the real language use as the cognitivist view.

4.3.9.6.4. Activity 4: Conversation Completion

This is a conversation completion exercise. Teacher says: "You've just bought a camera, but unfortunately your first pictures are all dark. You go back to the shop to ask the shopkeeper to exchange it for another one. The shopkeeper does not believe you bought the camera in his shop and an argument develops. Write down the discussion you have with him" (Rivers, 1978:299). Here is a possible discussion:

Customer: *Excuse me, I bought this camera here last week, but it doesn't work. Look at this picture. It is all dark.*

Shopkeeper : *You didn't buy that camera here I am sure. I do not sell that kind. I cannot do anything for you. You will have to take it back to the shop where you bought it.*

Customer: *But I bought it from your wife. She recommended it because she uses one like it herself. Anyway, here is the sales slip*

.....

.....

.....

In second or foreign language learning, native-like abilities should be developed in learners that necessitate the development of four skills equally. Language learners should have a cognitive control over the language before they start to use it, so teachers go from competence to performance. Therefore, the activities or the exercises should be organized in a sequence. These activities and exercises should not be mechanical; they all should be communicative, creative and meaningful in order to increase the mental abilities of the learners. The learners should also develop the language skills consciously because they are always taught the new information in relation to the background knowledge.

In sum, the exercises and activities of Cognitive Approach provide an adequate account of how learners obtain control over the second language knowledge; free practice enables controlled processing to become automatic. It creates interactional opportunities to activate strategies for proceduralized knowledge. The Cognitive Approach can also provide some insights into how learners restructure their L_2 knowledge in order to use it in tasks including the ones requiring decontextualized language use. Cognitive Approach views language learning as a process of detecting patterns in the input, forming hypothesis and revising them in the light of contradictory evidence.

Cognitivists claim that formal instruction, which refers to attempt made to raise the learners' consciousness about the nature of target language rules, is necessary in learning a foreign language. However, this approach is weak in developing the communicative competence and in applying activities, which include teaching the elements of target language.

CHAPTER 5

HUMANISTIC APPROACHES

This chapter involves the main characteristics of the Humanistic Approaches. Humanistic Approach can also be included into the "Modern Era" period since its emergence date, 1970s. Here, some general knowledge will be given about the main principles of the Humanistic Approaches, and then the offspring methods will be taken into consideration while being talked about the Humanistic Approach.

5.1. General Definition about Humanistic Approaches

Humanism would concentrate upon the development of the child's self-concept. If the child feels good about him or herself then that is a positive start. (Sturt, 2001: 2 - 8) Feeling good about oneself would involve an understanding of ones' strengths and weakness and a belief in ones' ability to improve. Therefore, Humanistic approach, where education is really about creating a need with the child or instilling within the child self-motivation. That is to say, Humanism is about rewarding yourself! Humanistic Theory has some instructional implications, for example; *student-centered teaching, social personal development, de-emphasize rigorous, performance-oriented, test-dominated approaches, discovery learning, respects students' feelings and aspirations, and right to self-determination.* According to the Humanistic movement in education, two views are important. These are: 1) uniqueness and importance of the individual and 2) reaction against overly mechanistic and dehumanizing approaches. In addition to the ideas mentioned above, it must be logical to state some common emphasis on Humanistic approaches. These are

affect (emphasis on feeling and thinking), *self-concept* (positive, self-concept important), *communication* (positive and honest), and *personal values* (importance of personal values)

Humanistic psychology has an affective focus rather than a cognitive one, and considers the whole person as a physical, cognitive, but basically emotional being. Therefore, it claims that a person will grow and learn if he is given a non-threatening environment. In other words, it is the entire person who does the learning since language learning is related to the life style, personality and affective psychology. In the affective-based approaches, like Humanistic approaches, much emphasis is given to motivation and personality factors in class, and to make students feel valued by teachers and peers. Teachers have a great responsibility for creating a positive and accepting climate in classes; otherwise, the students will be unwilling to use another language to express themselves. In order to create such an atmosphere, the teachers can use awareness activities based on self-disclosing topics, focus on positive aspects and employ low-risk activities.

The primary goal of Humanistic Approaches is to lead the learner into an affective engagement with the learning process and to develop classroom activities with meaningful exercises which involve the individual as whole person. As Widdowson (1990: 13) states " *Humanistic Approaches serve as a valuable corrective to approaches of the kind that a behaviorist view might encourage approaches which impose conformity on learners, reduce the scope of their participation as persons, and deny them the exercise of individual initiative in the learning process.*" Although the Humanistic approaches are considered to be against Behaviorism in their recognition of the individual's personality on closer inspection, the two theories are essentially alike. Both of the approaches focus on affective factors rather than cognitive factors. One of the main principles of behaviorism is that behavior can be shaped through reinforcement by

reward. In this case, correct responses are reinforced and learning is controlled by affective regulation. In the Humanistic approaches learning is also achieved by reinforcement, but by affective self-regulation.

In short, it can be said that Humanistic approaches to SLA urge better achievement at all grades because group discussion and co-operation promote discovery ; develop higher-quality cognitive strategies ; increase motivation, comprehension (by having the student teach) , enrich learning by having students of different abilities and experiences ; promote highly positive relationships among group members. In Humanistic Approaches, which include Silent Way, Community Language Learning, Total Physical Response, Natural Approach, Humanistic Approach, and Suggestopedia, the extensions of transformational generative grammar are seen.

5.2. THE HUMANISTIC APPROACH

The Humanistic Approach, derived from Humanistic Psychology, criticized this opinion, and introduced the humanistic aspects of foreign language learning and as a reaction to the cognitive thought and memory structure. This approach is otherwise known as *Affective-Humanistic Approach* (Celce-Murcia,1991:7) Once language learning becomes more than the study of rules and paradigms, and their exemplification and demonstration in reading and writing, and moves toward real communication of ideas, emotions, and aspirations, dynamic and personality psychology have a contribution to make. For these reasons, affective based approach to learning began to have an impact on foreign language teaching in the 1970s, in particular Humanistic psychology, as elaborated by Carl Rogers, Maslow, and G.I.Brown.

It is called humanistic because it focuses on the inner thoughts, feelings, psychological needs, and emotions of the individual learner. This approach paved the way for some foreign language teaching methods; Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, Total Physical Response, and Delayed Oral Practice. These methods take their theoretical stems from The Humanistic Approach. As Chastain states (1988: 47) Humanistic Approaches incorporate their ideas into the class in two fundamental ways. First, they are sensitive to their students' emotional states, and they attempt to respond to those emotional needs at the beginning of the course and as it progresses. Second, they include opportunities for expressing one's feelings, for sharing one's values and viewpoints with others, and for developing a better understanding of others' feelings and needs into the class. That is to say, in Humanistic classes students are emotionally involved in the learning; they are encouraged to reflect on how learning happens, and their creativity is fostered (Harmer, 2001: 74-75) The teacher can achieve this by keeping criticism to a minimum and by encouraging them to feel good about themselves. Again, in a humanist classroom learning a language is as much an issue of personal identity, self-knowledge, feelings, and emotions as it is about language.

5.2.1. Principles and Theory of Language Learning

Humanistic education is based on the belief that learners should have a say in what they should be learning and how they should learn it, and reflects the notion that education should be concerned with the development of autonomy in the learner (Nunan, 1993:20-21) He continues saying that apart from philosophical reasons for weaning learners from dependence on teachers and educational systems, it is felt, particularly in systems where there are insufficient resources to provide a complete education, that learners should be taught independent learning

skills so they may continue their education after the completion of formal instruction.

Roger has devoted most of his professional life to clinical work in an attempt to be of therapeutic help to individuals. In his classic work Client-Centered Therapy (1951), Rogers carefully analyzed human behavior in general, including the learning process, by means of the presentation of 19 formal principles of human behavior. All 19 principles are concerned with learning to some degree from a phenomenological perspective, a perspective that is in sharp contrast to that of Skinner. Humanistic teaching is based on a very difficult theoretical conception of men from that of Behaviorists. Some basic tenets of humanistic teaching are as follows:

1- *Humanists see man with cognitive processes mediating between input and output and these processes can change the nature and the meaning of input and output and so this man becomes more than a machine.*
2- *To the Humanists, man is basically active and growing; he has a will of his own and sees a potential for growth. If you let him alone, he will be doing many things.*
3- *Humanists take a generative-dominated view; they are interested in creatively to the situation.*
4- *Humanists say that cognitive processes and structures can be inferred and further, by using them the person can control himself.*
5- *Humanists see feelings on related to thinking and choosing and as one crux of being human.*
6- *According to the Humanists, norms will describe behavior of an individual because he can always make a choice.*
7- *Humanism sees human beings will be able to transcend their self-structures through relationships and commitment to others.*

Legutke and Thomas (1991:269) state their ideas about the Humanistic education as mentioned below:

> *The proponents of humanistic education have broadened our concept of learning by emphasizing the meaningful learning has to be self-initiated. Even if the stimulus comes from outside, the sense of discovery, however, and the motivation which that brings has to come from inside driven by the basic human desire for self-realization, well-being and growth.....In terms of personal and inter-personal competence the process-oriented classroom revolves around issues of risk and security, cooperation and competition, self-directedness and other-directedness; and meaningful and meaningless activities. We have also tried to make clear that teachers who claim it is not their job to take these phenomena into account may miss out on some of the most essential ingredients in the management of successful learning.*

Rogers studied the *whole person* as a physical and cognitive, but primarily emotional being. His formal principles focused on the development of an individual's self-concept and of his / her personal sense of reality, those internal forces that cause a person to act. (Brown, 1993:85-86) The *fully-functioning person* according to Rogers lives at peace with all of his feelings and reactions; he is able to be what he potentially is; he exists as a process of being and becoming himself. This fully-functioning person, in his self-knowledge, is fully open to his experience, is without defensiveness, and creates himself anew at each moment in every action taken and in every decision made.

Rogers' position has important implications for education. The focus is away from *teaching* and toward *learning*. The goal of education is the facilitation of change and learning. Learning how to learn is more important than being *taught* something from the *superior*

vantage point of a teacher who unilaterally decides what shall be taught. Our present system of education, in prescribing curricular goals and dictating what shall be learned, denies persons both freedom and dignity. What is needed, according to Rogers, is real facilitators of learning, and one can only facilitate by establishing an interpersonal relationship with the learner. (Brown, 1993: 86)

In sum, it can be said that Humanistic approach emerged as a kind of reaction to the general lack of affective considerations in both Audio-lingualism and Cognitive Code theories. In other respects it is compatible with much of Cognitive Code Approach because Humanistic Approach;

1- emphasizes communication that is meaningful to the learner,
2- emphasizes respect for the individual and for his / her feelings,
3- instruction involves much work in small groups,
4- translation is permitted and often used heavily in the initial stages and then phased out,
5- classroom atmosphere is viewed as more important than method or materials,
6- peer support and interaction is needed for learning,
7- learning a foreign language is viewed as a self-realization experience,
8- the teacher is viewed as a counselor or facilitator,
9- the teacher should be bilingual in the native language of the students and in the target language.

It can be said that Humanistic Approach emphasizes the importance of cognitive factors in language learning. It insists that students have feelings, attitudes, and opinions as well as a mind and that teachers must meet students' affective needs before they attempt to achieve cognitive classroom objectives. Therefore, the teacher's first objective is to help

students develop positive, productive attitudes; the second is to teach them the cognitive knowledge and skills of the course.

5.2.2. Syllabus

The syllabus of the Humanistic Approach classes is designed according to the view of *whole person* concept which means that learners have affective and biological as well as cognitive dimensions and thus can learn only if they are in emotionally appropriate conditions. Rogers insisted that human beings, before being physical or cognitive, are emotional. If they don't like or want to learn they won't although they can. He emphasized the learner-centered teach approach and believed that the students' toward learning is more important than their aptitude. He presented a non-threatening or non-defensive model of learning. That is, when there is interest and people want to talk, they cannot wait to talk and the entire teacher has to do is value their talk, supply focus and direction and let it happen.

Classrooms are designed in the light of student-centered approach because this type of classroom is more likely to lead to communicate to talk and lead to communicative competence. By building classroom activity, as Featherstone says (1971), on the *interest, experience* and *expressiveness* of teachers and student; by concerning itself with students and teachers feelings; by making the relationship between teacher and students and between student and students are very important.

One of the most important effects of Humanistic approach to education can be seen on the syllabus design, of course. These can be achieved with the application of open classroom and co-operative learning strategies. Of this open classroom idea depends upon the following tenets:

1- *individual growth, critical thinking, co-operation, commitment to lifelong learning,*

2- *not curriculum bound,*
3- *student-centered , but relaxed / pupil contact,*
4- *almost no control or competition*
5- *productive and unproductive time*
6- *students tend to have better self-concepts and more creative and co-operative, but academic achievements are lacking,*
7- *de-emphasizes schedules*

On the other hand, co-operative learning requires that students are often in competition with each other or have to work individually towards achieving their personal goals. Co-operative learning not only combines cognitive and affective engagement. Also stresses academic achievement and clearly defined curricular goals. Here are some reasons for co-operative learning:

1- *decreases dependence on teachers,*
2- *decreases divisiveness and prejudice,*
3- *improves academic performance,*
4- *eradicates feelings of alienation, isolation, purposelessness and social unease amongst students, promotes positive attitudes to schools* (Sturt, 2001:5)

Let us now try to visualize a lesson when Humanistic approach is practiced. It seems that the most effective are such techniques, which provide the learners' group involvement. Therefore, discussions, all kinds of pair work and group work, as well as role-play and games (with kids) seem to work best. Very good are the tasks that make the students' personal experience the topic of the language class, which is natural. It is very important for each little team to have its leader for solving the tasks and for decision-making. A few words should be said here about giving the learner an opportunity for decision-making. Let us visualize three different scenarios for starting a lesson. (Vlasova, 2001 : 21-3)

Scenario1: The teacher may start the lesson with the words:

Here are the things we are going to do today: first, we will read the text and then....

Scenario2 : In another scenario the teacher may say:

We must do quite a few things today. However, it is up to you to decide what we should begin with...

Scenario3: In still another scenario, which is our objective, the students begin the lesson. Last time we had such fun role-playing. Let us try to do it again....

In scenarios 2 and 3 the students are decision-makers. What is important is that though the decisions are made by the learners, the scenarios are orchestrated by the teacher. All the efforts of the learners are supported and encouraged by the teacher. Of all the qualities of the teacher - empathy and unconditional acceptance of the learner are of paramount significance.

5.2.3. Learner and Teacher Roles

Teachers, to be facilitators, must first be real and genuine, discarding masks of superiority and omniscience. Teachers need to have genuine trust, acceptance, and a prizing of the other person-the student- as a worthy, valuable individual. Teachers need to communicate openly and empathically with their students and vice versa. Teachers with these characteristics will not be effective teachers, who having set the optimal stage and context for learning, will succeed in the goals of education.

Teacher should try to set up a friendly atmosphere in which learning can take place more successfully.

In addition, teachers listen to the students, especially to the feelings of the students; tend to pay as much as attention to the students, as a content material of the course; are likely to work out interpersonal functions and problems with students rather than dealing with such issues in a disciplinary or punitive manner and develop a more equalitarian atmosphere in the classroom, conductive to spontaneity, to creative thinking, to independent and self-directed work.

Students learn what they need and want to know. The learner himself/ herself should decide what s/ he should learn. Second, learning how to learn is more important than acquiring factual knowledge. The learners should have their own responsibility on their own learning. They should predict which vocabulary to learn. Third, self-evaluation should be encouraged in vocabulary teaching exercises. Fourth, learners are considered to be active in all vocabulary learning process. At last, the feelings of the learners are taken into account.

Students feel more free to express both positive and negative feelings in class-toward other students, toward the teacher, toward the contest material ; tend to work through these feelings toward a realistic relationship ; have more energy to learning because they feel less fear of continual evaluation and punishment ; feel free to take off on exciting learning ; find that learning process enables him / her to come directly and personally with the problem of the meaning of his / her life ; learn something worthwhile in English or another language ; will be able to use skills in the target language ; integrate new learning styles ; gain esteem ; feel good about himself / herself; discover teachers and administrators to be all human beings relating in imperfect ways to students and feel safe.

It aims to make the learner more independent, since the responsibility for the learning process is to some extent handed over to him. The main idea is that the content of a lesson or syllabus is taught and learned from the point of view of the learner. This new centrality changes the conventional concept of instruction. It radically changes the roles in the classroom and may be hard to accept. Yet it seems worth discussing. It may work very well and be very effective, if it is not the only one but *one* of the approaches used.

The new role of the learner brings about some psychological problems related to his performance in the classroom. It is quite natural that if the burden of what is happening in class is shifted to the learner, while the teacher only facilitates the process creating the appropriate psychological climate, the performance of the learner will most likely involve psychological stress. Or more stress than before. In the new context, being in a group, with the teacher who only coordinates and facilitates the process, the learner, more than before, faces such challenges of psychological nature as: self-assertion, self-determination and self-esteem. He must demonstrate the ability to cooperate with the teacher and compete with his fellow-students; he has to learn to cope with success and failure. The learner has to be very sensitive to how his fellow-students feel in relation to himself and to each other.

On the one hand, the teacher must become a facilitator by giving up the dominating role to the learners. On the other hand, and this seems essential, it is the teacher who creates the special atmosphere of the learners' independence and the new psychological climate in class. If we want Humanistic Approach to work, the teacher must be sensitive and skillful in helping the learners face these issues. It does not seem that any special training is required. What is important for the teacher is tact, empathy, a genuine interest in the learners' performance and of course, friendliness. The teacher cooperates with the students on equal terms,

rather than dominates. This cooperation is special. It calls for finding an appropriate balance in the teacher- learner relationship. This balance is a very sensitive substance: it is individual and different in each particular case. This teacher-learner cooperation should be very skillfully orchestrated by the teacher, who can now be referred to as facilitator.

5.2.4. Strong Sides

Some important strong points of the Humanistic Approach are as follow:

1- The strongest point of The Humanistic Approach is that it gives importance to the meaningful way of teaching foreign language vocabulary items. Instead of using repetition activities, learners are expected to use the language for communicative purposes.

2- Another strong point is that the needs of the learners are taken into account and learners take their own responsibility in their own learning process. If the learners feel that they will need the vocabulary items in real life situations, the motivation of the learners will be at the highest rate to involve in the learning process, so the learners will not have a problem in remembering the vocabulary items. In a friendly and enjoyable atmosphere, teaching of the vocabulary items will be easier for the teacher.

5.2.5. Weak Sides

In spite of its some advantageous in the language teaching process, Humanistic Approach has also some defects like the other approaches mentioned earlier. For example,

1- The Humanistic Approach does not give importance to a systematic work on vocabulary and this is the major weak point of this approach.

Extra activities should be used which deals with the structures of the foreign language vocabulary items. Taking the knowledge and the feelings of the learners into account is a good idea, but they may not be able to carry this responsibility. The learners may not be able to guess their needs in learning foreign language vocabulary items. The teacher should orient their attention to vocabulary items and make them need to learn these items. Teaching foreign language vocabulary requires a systematic study with both the structures and the meanings of the items.

2- According to the Humanistic Approach *learning is persons* which mean that both teachers and learners must trust to each other and the learning process. The learners must also be free. However, the Modern psychological science and many other scholars say that man is unfree and controlled. Words such as purpose, choice and commitment have no significant meaning. Man is nothing but on object which we can more fully understand and control. Therefore, learning cannot be personal.

3- In addition, Humanistic teachers aim for good things, but these are not clearly defined. Also not easily measured. At the same time, Humanistic approach is highly dependent upon the capabilities of the teachers, so this brings extra work and effort upon the shoulders of the teachers. Nowadays, teachers have to enter over 20 hour's English courses a week. For that reason, it won't be easy for a language teacher who tries to carry out the Humanistic approach syllabuses in his / her courses.

5.2.6. Contributions to ELT

The Humanistic Approach, first of all, brought the importance of co-operative learning in the field of language teaching and learning. As it is mentioned above, co-operative learning requires no major restructuring of

school day. It fosters the students' different abilities, ethnic backgrounds, ages and sexes. It also encouraged competition among the learners. In addition, the Humanistic approach promotes highly positive relationships among students. It developed higher quality cognitive strategies. Group discussions gained importance. It also contributed to Community language Teaching Method, Suggestopedia and TPR Method. It suggested emphatic understanding. For example, when the teacher has the ability to understand the students reactions from the inside and has a sensitive awareness of the way the process of education and learning seems to the student, then the learning is increased.

Rogers, apart from the contributions mentioned above, put forward some new techniques and methods which may be used by language teachers to give freedom to learn. These are:

1- building upon problems perceived as real. If self-initiated learning will occur, it is essential that the learner should face with a problem. That is, the students at any level may face by issues which have meaning and relevance for him /her. Most of the teachers have not a tendency to bring the real problems of life into the classroom. But if the teachers want to have their students as free and responsible individuals, then they must be willing for them to confront life and to face its problems.

2- providing resources. When a language teacher is concerned with the facilitation of learning, then s/he organizes his / her time and efforts. Instead spending time in organizing lesson plans and lectures, s/he spends time on providing all kinds of resources relevant to their needs.

3- use of contracts . There is no doubt that the use of contracts also helps to enlighten the uncertainties and insecurities the language

teachers may be experiencing. Daily contracts make students to set a goal for himself / herself and to plan what s/he wishes to do.

4- division of group. It does not seem reasonable to give freedom to anyone who does not desire it. When a group is offered the freedom to learn on their own responsibility, there should also be provision for these who do not wish or desire this freedom and prefer to be instructed and guided. Therefore, language teachers prefer to divide classes into two groups: one is self-directed and the other is conventional.

5- the conduct of inquiry. Teachers should set the stage of inquiry by posing the problems, creating on environment responsive to the learner and giving assistance to the students in the investigative operations. This makes it possible for students to achieve discoveries and to engage self-directed learning. They become scientists themselves on a simple level, searching answers to real questions discovering for themselves and enjoying the scientist's research.

6- simulation as a type of experimental learning. A simulation is a social system, a model of an organization, a nation or a world by which a wide variety of social situations can be replicated (Alger, 1963: 25) The trend toward a more experimental type of learning shows up in increasing use of simulation as a device for the use in the classroom. Thus, more experimental work can be done on the simulation of international relationships than on any other single social system.

7- programmed instructions as experimental learning. In the development of programmed instruction, there is a tendency toward the development of whole courses requiring a total field of knowledge. It is impressed by the fact that the learning involve both

feelings and intellectual and that they have significant personal meaning for the learner. If its is used widely , it gives students immediate experience of satisfaction and a feeling that any context can be learned.

8- basic encounter group. The basic encounter group is an approach that has become an important part of development of teachers in both their personal and professional functioning.

9- self-evaluation. Self-evaluation is, when the individual has to take the responsibility for deciding what criteria are important to him / her, what goals s/he has been trying to achieve these goals that s/he truly learns to take responsibility for himself / herself and his / her directions. For this reason, it seems important that self-evaluation is built on experimental type of learning.

5.2.7. Related Methods

Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, Silent Way, Total Physical Response are the methods used to apply the principles and views of the Humanistic Approach. Charles A. Curran's contribution to CLL method, for example, is treating each other as a whole person, the teacher's role as a counselor and the student's role as a client responding to the feelings of the students and the self-evaluation of students. The theory of learning CLL is that learning is a social process, involving the whole person, in which the learner develops, like a child, from dependence to independence. Language is seen as more than just a system for communication. It involves every aspect of a person's culture and development. The main aim is to foster strong personal links between the teacher / counselor and the learners, and thus to eliminate whatever is found threatening in the foreign language learning (FLL) situations (Crystal, 1997:375). There is no prepared material. The learners talk naturally in their L_1, and seek from the teacher FL equivalents for they

want to say. The teacher provides the translation, and the students repeat it. Each session is tape recorded, and is followed by a discussion with the teacher of what went on. Most of the common techniques of this method are tape recording of student's conversations, reflection on experience, reflective listening, and small group tasks.

In terms of Suggestopedia, learning should be in a relaxed and comfortable environment, recognizing that learners have psychological problems and learning can be easy and enjoyable. The theory of learning underlying Suggestopedia is that learning takes place through suggestion when the learners are asked to choose new names and occupations relevant to the target language. In their opening lessons, learners are presented with large amounts of the foreign language. The text is translated, then it is read aloud in a dramatic way against a background of classical music. The aim is to provide an atmosphere of total relaxation and enjoyment. By using a large amount of linguistic materials, the suggestion is conveyed that language learning is easy and natural (Crystal, 1997: 375). In a later session, students use the material in various communicative activities. The emphasis is wholly on informal communication; no attention is drawn to grammatical errors. Learners, it is claimed, assimilate far more from such an immersion than would traditionally expected. Most of the common techniques of this method are peripheral learning, concerts, role plays, choosing new identities, primary and secondary activations.

The contributions of Rogers to the TPR are also important. Students should speak when they feel ready and learners directing the teacher and the other students have very important views. The aim of TPR is to enable the learners to communicate orally with the native speakers in a relaxed manner, but in the early stages, listening is emphasized. This method stresses the importance of aural comprehension as an exclusive aim in the early months of learning. The name derives from the emphasis

on the actions that learners have to make as they are given simple commands. More advanced language is introduced by building up chains of actions using either spoken or written commands. Most of the common techniques of this method are commands and role reversals.

Silent Way aims to provide an environment, which keeps the amount of teaching to a minimum and encourages learners to develop their own ways of using the language elements introduced (Crystal, 1997:375). In his first lesson teacher introduces a small L_2 vocabulary to talk about a set of colored rods, using a few verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, etc. and gradually extending the length of the sentence; e.g. *Take the green rod and give it to Michael* . The aim is to help the learners to become self-reliant .The teacher does not repeat the material or provide sentences for students to imitate; and no use is made of the learners' L_1. Charts containing vocabulary and colored-coded guides to pronunciation are made available to enable the teacher to guide the student's learning while saying as little as possible. As students say more to each other, so the teacher says less. Most of the common techniques of this method are color rods, sound color charts, peer correction, self-correction gestures, teacher's silence, and Fidel charts.

5.2.8. Discussion Questions for Students

1- What are the main characteristics of the Humanistic Approaches?
2- Discuss the roles of the teachers in the Humanistic Approach?
3- What are the weak points of this approach?
4- What are the weak points of Silent Way in the application phase of the Humanistic Approach?
5- What are your positive implications about the Humanistic learners?

5.2.9. Basic Techniques and Exercise / Activity Types

Most of the activities or exercises may be used in the Humanistic approach are the examples of the methods mentioned above. For example, sentence completions, role-plays, conversations, feedback sheets, asking questions, games, commands, small group tasks, reflective listening, peripheral learning, dialogs, authentic materials, etc. Sentence completion activities may be useful for practicing the structures related to some specific patterns. This activity may also be used as a writing activity in Humanistic classes. Students are given some sentences with some missing parts and they are asked to complete them as wanted. Among the first claim for the beneficial effects of sentence combining were increased syntactic growth and improvement in overall quality of writing. In addition to this advantage, this activity also helps students become superior in five of the six criteria commonly used in composition evaluation: ideas, supporting details, organization, voice, sentence structure, and diction.

Commands, on the one hand, are given to get students to perform an action; the action makes the meaning of the command clear. Commands are generally used to teach vocabulary and some simple structures. At first, to clarify meaning, the teacher performs the action with the students. The students' actions tell the teacher whether or not the students understand. Teachers should not introduce the commands too fast since it is very important that the students feel successful. It is recommended that a teacher present three commands at a time. After students feel successful with these, three more can be taught.

In CLL it is important to introduce the target language as it is used in a real context, so the use of authentic language materials is recommended. A news about sports from a recent newspaper, or a copy of a genuine newspaper article are the examples of the authentic materials, for example. Also the teacher can have the students to listen to

a live radio or television broadcast as an assignment. Another possibility for the use of the authentic materials with a lower level class is to use realia that do not contain too much complex structures. Menus of a restaurant, timetables, schedules for busses or trains, and so on may be some examples of this. Role-plays, on the other hand, give students an opportunity to practice communicate in different social contexts and in different roles. For example, students are given different social identities in different situations. They may act pilots, receptionists, doctors, patients, businessmen, actresses, actors, and so on. This activity gives more of choice to the students in expressing themselves using necessary structures and words.

Another activity used in Humanistic classes is tape-recording of student's conversation .This technique gives the opportunity for community learning to come about. In this way students have a chance to take responsibility for their own learning. Students are asked to have a conversation about anything they want, using their native language as the common language of the group. After each native language utterance, the teacher translates what the students say into the target language. The teacher gives the students the target language translation in appropriate-sized chunks. Each chunk is recorded, giving students a final tape recording with the target language on it. Later, the students relax and listen to their own voices speaking in the target language on the tape. This technique is called reflective listening. Another possible technique is for the teacher to read the transcript while the students simply listen. Small group activities require motivation, patience, and good listening habits. Here, the teacher acts only as a facilitator. The students are asked to make new sentences with the words on the transcript. Afterward, the groups shared the sentences they made with the rest of the class. Later in the week, students working in pairs made sentences with the different verb conjugations. Small groups allow students to get know each other better

and this can lead to the development of a community among class members.

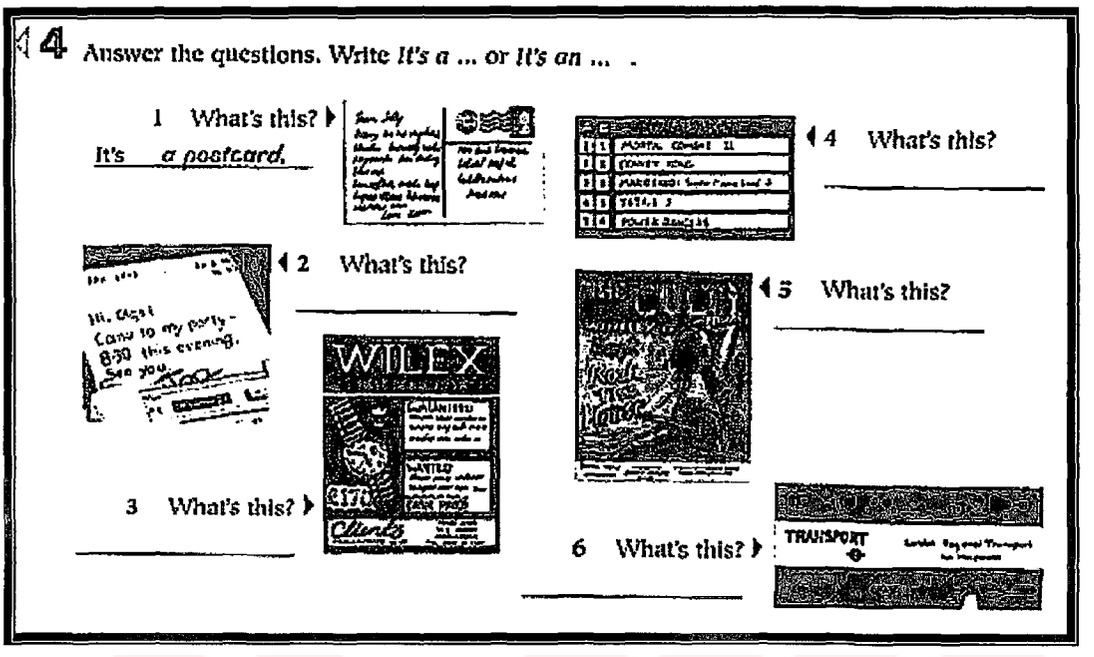
Peripheral learning is another technique. It is claimed that by putting posters containing grammatical information about the target language on the classroom walls, students will absorb the necessary facts effortlessly. The teacher may or may not call attention to the posters. They are changed from time to time to provide grammatical information that is appropriate to what the students are studying. So, here some of these activities and exercises will be handled with examples to make clear the explanations given above.

5.2.9.1. Teaching Vocabulary

Humanistic Approach aims at teaching vocabulary in a meaningful way. Therefore, during the teaching process real objects / authentic materials, pictures may also be used to make the learning effective. Vocabulary items should be related to the real life situations since the Humanistic Approach stresses that only in this way students feel they need new words and improve their motivations. TPR and CLL methods, of course, can be used to teach the vocabulary items. Here are some examples.

5.2.9.1.1. Guessing the Meaning

In this activity, by the help of authentic material, teachers can teach the students some group of words or verbs. Students are shown or given a picture from a magazine, a course book, or a newspaper and wanted to guess the English meanings of the pictures shown by the teacher. *(From Double Take, Reading and Writing 1, 1996:9)*



5.2.9.1.2. Exercise 2: Guessing the Meaning of the Words / Verbs

This exercise aims at guessing the meanings of the words from a combination of visual and contextual clues. They write down what they think a good L_1 translation of each word would be. They should not use their dictionaries. Students then use their dictionaries to check their translations and correct or improve them as necessary. Exercise was taken from *Double Take, Reading and Writing 1, 1996 : 41* .

Vocabulary work. Do you know these words from the first description? If you do not know them, guess. Write your translation.

	My translation	Dictionary translation
1 travel (verb)	.....	.....
2 universe (noun)	.....	.....
3 planet (noun)	.....	.....
4 brave (adjective)	.....	.....
5 enemy (noun)	.....	.....
6 survive (verb)	.....	.....

Now check your guesses in dictionary and write the dictionary translation

T.C. YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU
DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ

5.2.9.1.3. Exercise 3: Dialogs

The aim of this exercise is to encourage students to discover how much they can say in the target language and to show students what remains to be learned. Students may be asked to write dialogs in which the speakers use English for performing such real life situations. For example, requesting a favor, apologizing for something, making an appointment with somebody, inviting someone to do something, etc. In this way they will be able to learn to use of the real life vocabulary.

5.2.9.1.4. Exercise 4: Teaching Verbs / Adverbs Using Visuals

Actions like walking, running, dancing, standing, touching, sitting, pointing, etc. can easily be taught in the classroom settings by demonstrations and using the TPR method. . The meanings of the other verbs can also be shown through simple dramatizations. Even teachers with no dramatic ability can mime certain actions to indicate the meanings of the verbs like *eat, drink, laugh, smile, cry*, etc. Pictures are also useful for showing the meanings of verb phrases such as is running, is jumping, is dancing, is playing, is crying, etc. To introduce the meaning of a verb, it is easy and useful to use command and the techniques of the TPR, of course. Meanings of the most verbs can easily be taught in this way. For example, *Stand up! Raise your hand!, Point to the table ! , Sit down! , Touch the wall!, Go to the door!, Walk to the window!, Come here!,* etc. In this way students can learn several of them when the entire class responds to the commands.

In the later stages of this activity, this time adverbs can be added to the commands. For example, *Stand up slowly!, Walk to the window quickly!*, etc.

5.2.9.2. Teaching Listening / Speaking

The Humanistic Approach is also used in oral English teaching. The approach is based on the theory that language learning is a social process and that a foreign language is best learned in a real-life environment where learners feel secure and supported. Curran and Moskowitz stress that genuine communication takes place when learners feel motivated to convey their personal feelings, emotions and opinions. These contrast significantly with the general practice in the conversational English language classroom, where students are only taught conversational skills required by the examination syllabus.

In real-life, there are two ways in which we often listen: casual *listening* and *focused listening*. Casual listening means a kind of listening with no particular purpose in mind and often without much concentration. Examples of this kind of listening are: listening to the radio while doing house work, studying, chatting to a friend, etc. Usually we do not listen very closely unless we hear something that particularly interests us and afterwards we may not remember much of what we heard. On the other hand, focused listening means listen for a particular purpose. Examples of this kind of listening are: listening to apiece of important news on the radio, listening to someone explaining how to operate a machine, listening to story on the tape recorder, listening to a speech, etc. In these situations we listen much more closely but we do not listen to everything we hear with equal concentration – we listen for the most important points or for particular information. In classroom settings this kind of listening activity is generally used. The following activity is an example for this kind of listening. (Doff, 1990:199)

5.2.9.2.1. Focused Listening

Teachers can make this exercise easier by telling the students beforehand what to expect and what to listen for – this will help the

students to focus their listening. This can be achieved either by giving a simple listening task or by giving guiding questions. Here are two examples.

5.2.9.2.2. Taking Short Notes

a- Talk to the students about yourself or someone else. Include the information they need to complete the table, but add other details as well. As they listen, they should write brief note on the following table.

hometown	
brothers/ sisters	
children	
interests	
degrees	
holidays	
future plans	
schools	

5.2.9.2.3. Answering Questions

b- Teacher says: You are going to hear a text about someone's childhood. Listen and try to answer these questions.

1- Where did he stay?
2- What does he say about: the river, his bicycle, the fruit trees?
3- What did he mostly pick up?
4- Did he have a bicycle?

I remember when I was a child we often went to stay with my grandfather – he had a farm in the country, and used to stay there, and I had a wonderful time – there was so much for a child to do there. I remember there was a small river that ran past the farm, and I used to go swimming in it - I suppose the water must have been fairly clean. And another thing I remember was – I had a bicycle and I rode it round and round the fields, and along the river bank, too. And what else ? Oh, yes, climbing trees. There were quite a lot of trees on the farm, peaches and apricots, mostly and I used to climb these trees and pick the fruit for my grandfather. Of course sometimes I climbed them and picked the fruit when he wasn't looking as well, but I don't think he ever found out !.

The Humanistic Approach, as it mentioned previously, believed that language learning is a social process. Therefore, if activities or exercises can be designed in the light of this idea they will be more effective and useful. For example, the following example is about social language and it will encourage students to talk in the classroom environment as a speaking activity. Teachers can give a few short demonstrations to show how this might be done. (The following text may be used, Doff, 1990:223). Teacher can talk and ask questions but get the students to give only short responses;

T: Did you all enjoy the holiday?

Ss: Yes.

T: Did you? Yes, I enjoyed it, too. I went to a picnic with my family.

Did you go on a picnic? Anyone?

S: Yes.

T: Who did you go with? (and so on)

This time teacher can prompt individual students to talk more about things they have done. For example,

T: What did you do? Did you go out?

S: Yes, I went to a party.

T: A party? That's nice. A birthday party?

S: Yes, my friend's birthday.

T: OK, tell us...what happened? What did you do at the party? (and so on)

5.2.9.3. Teaching Reading

Reading activities are generally divided into three main stages: pre-reading activities, the use of the comprehension questions and simple reading tasks. In real life normally we do not read because we *have to* but because we *want to* (Doff, 1990:170). We usually have a purpose in reading: there is something we want to find out, some information we want to check or clarify, some opinion we want to match against our own, etc. For these reasons, reading passages should be more realistic, interesting, related to the interest of the learners, etc. We do not usually begin reading with a completely empty mind – we have some idea of what we are going to read about. Therefore, pre-reading activities should be applied. These activities may be done by applying illustrations, pictures, headlines,, discussions, questions and guesses, etc. Later, texts should be supported by comprehension questions.

5.2.9.3.1. Reading Activity

Here, all these activities may be applied in the following example text taken from Doff, 1992: 71-73. As a pre-reading activity students may work in groups and do the following exercises. For example,



A You are going to read a text about the earthquake in the picture. What would you like to know about the earthquake? Write down at least five questions, which you hope the text wil answer.

B You are going to read a text about the earthquake in the picture. Try to imagine what the text will tell you about:

buildings boats people hills around the city
trains the land and the sea

C You are going to read the text about the earthquake in the picture. Here are some words and phrases from the text. Can you guess how they are used in the text?

the sea-bed the Richter scale a huge wave tremors
massive shocks having bath Tokyo and Yokohama

Now read the text

At two minutes to noon on 1 September 1923, the great clock in Tokyo stopped. Tokyo Bay shook as if a huge rug had been pulled from under it. Towering above the bay, the 4.000 metre Mount Fuji stood above a deep trench in the sea. It was from this trench that the earthquake came, at a magnitude of 8.3 on the Richter scale.

The sea drew back for a few moments. Then, a huge wave swept over the city. Boats were carried inland, and buildings and people were dragged out to sea. The tremors dislodged part of a hillside, which gave way, brushing trains, stations and bodies into the water below. Large sections of the sea-bed sank 400 metres; the land rose by 250 metres in some places and sank in others. Three massive shocks wrecked the cities of Tokyo and Yokohama and during the next six hours,there were 171 aftershocks.

The casualties were enormous, but there were also some lucky survivors. The most remarkable was a woman who was having a bath in her room at the Tokyo Grand Hotel. As the hotel collapsed, she and her bath gracefuly descended to the street, leaving both her and the bathwater intact.

Reading activities should be done in group works and teacher asks each group to report briefly on their pre-reading activity. Teachers must make sure that the whole class is involved in answering questions and that students know why answers are right or wrong; the questions should not be used simply test the students but to lead them towards an understanding of the text. Getting students to work in groups and getting them to write the answers are both good ways of involving the whole class. When teachers go through the answers afterwards, all the students are likely to be interested in the answers and to want to discuss them.

5.2.9.3.2. Topic: *The First Lady*

Activity Skill Focus 1: WWW research, finding support for an argument, vocabulary, identifying key terms and concepts, context, description

Reading Passage: First Lady, First Targe

The first lady, the president's wife, is not mentioned in the Constitution, but seems to be mentioned everywhere else. She often acts as an unofficial representative of the president at openings, charity events, and other public occasions. Recent wives, notably Hillary Clinton and Nancy Reagan, have acted as close advisers to their husbands, despite frequent criticism. First Lady Nancy Reagan was described as Reagan's "most trusted adviser" and voiced strong opinions on decisions affecting her husband, including the removal of one of his chiefs of staff. For her efforts, critics called her an "Iron Butterfly." Barbara Bush generally enjoyed a more favorable press, keeping private any advice she gave her husband. Hillary Clinton was given a rough ride, at first as "the feminist wife from hell," and later for her role as a lawyer in the Whitewater scandal. But her influence over presidential appointments and in campaigning for healthcare reform established her as the most powerful first lady in history.

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Activity Skill Focus 1: www research, finding support for an argument vocabulary, identifying key terms and concepts, context, description.

1- Hillary Clinton has been called the most powerful first lady in history. Or the www research the roles Hillary Clinton has played and find one new article that either supports or contradicts this claim.
2- Report back orally to your classmates and instructor.
3- Create a list of key terms and concepts from Chapter 3 and for each term and concept:
    a- copy the original sentence in which it appears
    b- write a one-sentence description of the context it is being used in.
    c- write your own sentence within the context you identified.
    d- write a definiton

    Make these new words and concepts part of your active vocabulary by speaking at least 3-5 of these new words today!!! Suggestions:
    - use them in reporting your research to your class
    - use them in asking question in class
    - use them in telling someone what you did in class
    - use them in telling a classmate who missed class about the readings
    - use them in talking about a related topic in the news
    - ??? come up with your own startegies
4- What do you think the First Lady's role should be? Write a one-page describing and explaining your answer. Implement key terms and concepts from Chapter 3.
5- Report back orally to your classmates and instructor.

5.2.9.4. Teaching Writing

The following exercises were taken from the web site *<http:www.awl.com/ englishpages / basic_wkbk_read_12html>* , *Basic Skills Workbook,200*

5.2.9.4.1. Different Writing Activities :

5.2.9.4.1.1. Topic 1: Men and Women

Skill Focus--Collaboration, Brainstorming, Writing a Short Essay

Instruction: Brainstorm as a group and come up with examples of how men and women communicate differently. Based upon this collaboration, consider how a difference in male/female communication styles has affected you personally. Think about your spouse, boyfriend or girlfriend, or parental /sibling relationships.

Write a short paper that describes these communication differences. Don't forget to add an introduction and a conclusion.

5.2.9.4.1.2. Topic 2: Personal Writing

Skill Focus--Writing a Descriptive Narrative Essay

Instruction: Using the prewriting technique nonstop writing, in which you begin to write and continue writing while you focus your mind, write a paragraph about something your parents or a teacher taught you as a child which is still important to you today. Think back on your childhood experiences and focus on a trigger word or phrase (such as "lessons learned" or "values"). If you stop writing because you can't think of anything, simply write the word "values" over and over until you can. Remember not to worry about errors at this stage of the writing process, even major ones. Just write without stopping.

In addition to using specific words, details, and examples, find examples in your reading text of how quotations liven up *narrative essays* and make them more interesting to read. Insert quotations from your family members into your own essay. Since we frequently talk in sentence fragments, is it acceptable to use them in narrative writing? Discuss.

5.2.9.4.1.3. Topic 3: Consumerism

Skill Focus--Brainstorming Lists, Anecdotes, Interviewing for Essays

Instruction: Think about your family members and list specific products targeted by advertising to each age group. Is there a specific "buying philosophy" in your family? Does your family pool its resources in a general household fund, or do members take care of their own needs first? Interview several family members from different age groups and ask them to comment on how purchasing habits have changed over the course of their lifetime. Take notes and get exact quotations when possible.

5.2.9.5. Exercise 2: Sentence Combining

Sentence combining exercises range from easy to difficult depending upon the structures being taught, the nature of the instructions for combining sentences, the number of sentences to be combined, and the number of possible solutions. Here are some examples.

5.2.9.5.1. Activity 1 Combining Sentences

The simplest and most basic type of exercise is one which the student is given two sentences with specific directions on how to combine them into one sentence. For example,

Direction: Combine the sentences in each group into only one sentence, using the word in parentheses to join them. For example,

(1) A- John went to the library. (AND)
A- Mary went home.
John went to the library and Mary went home.

(2) A- The students were happy.(BECAUSE)
B- The students passed the test.

(3) A- The woman bought a new camera. (WHO)
B- The woman took a vacation.

5.2.9.5.2. Activity 2 Combining Sentences

This type of exercise can be applied to the students who have just been introduced to Relative Clauses. They are given highly controlled sentence-combining exercises with only one possible solution. For example,

Direction: Combine each pair of sentences into a single sentence. Make the second sentence into a Relative Clause using the word in the parentheses.

(1) a- The man is my father. (WHO)
b- The man is standing near the door.
e.g. The man who is standing near the door is my father.

(2) a- The necklace belonged to my mother.(WHICH)
b- I am wearing the necklace.

(3) a- The room is my study room. (WHICH)
b- I spend most of my time.

(4) a- My uncle came to the party last night. (WHO)
b- My uncle is a famous lawyer.

(5) a- Ankara is my favorite city. (WHICH)
b- Ankara is the capital city of Turkey.

5..2.9.5.3. Activity 3 Combining Sentences

Once the students have mastered the highly controlled exercises, they can move on to some less controlled exercises that practice the same grammatical structures. This time students are allowed to use different correct solutions. For example,

Direction: Combine each sequence of sentences into a single with at least one Relative Clause.

(1) a- The woman speaks English fluently.

b- The woman got a job as a translator.

e.g. The woman who speaks English fluently got a job as a translator

The woman who got a job as a translator speaks English fluently.

(2) a- The Basques live in the mountains.

b- The mountains separate Spain from France.

c- The Basques were never conquered by the Romans.

(3) a- That boy is a good swimmer.

b- He got three medals at the championship.

5.2.9.5.4. Activity 4

At the most advanced level, students may be given a group of sentences which can be combined in any way they choose to create an effective paragraph. An example of this type of "open" exercise is given below. (Daiker, Kerek, and Morenberg, 1979:14).

Direction: Combine the following sentences into an effective paragraph.

1- Anteaters are mammals.
2- Anteaters are found in tropical America and Africa.
3- Anteaters have long snouts.
4- Anteaters feed on white ants.
5- White ants are also called termites.
6- The ant bear, the three-toed anteater, and the silky anteater are common types of anteaters.
7- these common types have mouths.
8- The mouths are small.
9- These common anteaters have tongues.
10- These tongues are long.

11- The tongues can be extended to catch insects.
12- Anteaters have claws.
13- The claws are long.
14- The claws are hooked.
15- The hooking is for digging insect nests.
16- The claws are strong.
17- The claws are sharp.
18- The strength and sharpness are for self-defense.
19- The anteater generally sleeps during the day.
20- The anteater is nocturnal animal.
21- The anteater's tail is curled around him.
22- The tail protects him from the elements.

In sum, the Humanistic Approach is concerned not only with increased language proficiency but also with the many facets of personal growth. The focus is away from teaching and toward learning. The goal of education is the facilitation of change and learning. The emphasis is on student-centered teaching. In adapting Roger's ideas to language teaching and learning we need to understand that the learner is an organism who needs to understand himself and to communicate this self to others freely and nondefensively (Hossinni, 1997:58). Roger's Humanism, that is to say, diverges from the scientific analysis of Skinnerian psychology and even from Ausubel's rationalistic theory. Rogers focuses on the context creation for learning, not on the actual cognitive process of learning. The teachers are facilitators and should provide the nurturing context for learning. A kind of defensive learning is facilitated in the classroom in which the learner protects himself from failure, from criticism, from competition with his classmates, and maybe from punishment. Classroom activities and materials, on the other hand, should utilize meaningful

context of genuine communication. That is, Humanistic teaching has also put forward a greater acceptance at the level of procedures and activities in which students are encouraged to make use of their own lives and feelings in the classroom.

CHAPTER 6

Communicative and Functional Approaches between 1970-1980

Approaches taking place in this chapter are the ones which emerged in the years 1970s to 1980s, which were known as the beginning of the *"Communicative Era"* in the language teaching and learning field. These approaches are the Communicative Approach, Functional-Notional Approach and the Natural Approach. Both had emerged especially as a reaction to the cognitive perspectives and views. These approaches generally depend upon the basic principles of the sociolinguistic, communicative and a bit psycholinguistic and cultural dimension of the language.

In addition to these approaches, the Communicative approach had also emerged during nearly the same period. So, this chapter also includes the Communicative Approach. This approach grew out of the work of anthropological linguists such as Hymes (1972), Halliday (1973), who view language first and foremost as a system for communication (Celce-Murcia,1991:8). The period that the Communicative Approached emerged was known as the *"Innovative Era"* in the language teaching field. By the emergence of this approach, transition from the *"Communicative Era"* to the *"Innovative Era"* started. Here, basic and underlying ideas of the term Functional Approaches will be given first, and then the Functional-Notional Approach, the Communicative approach, and finally the Natural approach will be discussed in details.

6.1. General Definition about Functional Approaches

Sociolinguistic, communicational, semantic, cognitive, cultural, and so on concerns of acquiring the first language are taken into consideration

by Functional (Functionalist) Approaches. In other words, Functional Approaches flourished as a reaction to Nativist view in 1970s in addition to linguistic properties of language acquisition, the functional aspects have also been emphasized. The idea that language learning is a general development of perception, cognition, thought, meaning, and emotion was accepted superior as to generative notions on learning the native language. Bloom, Slobin, Piaget, etc. contributed to the birth of Functional views on acquisition in 1970s. The reflections of this view are seen in the area of language teaching as well and the importance of communicational pragmatic and semantic value of using a language started to be realized.

In the late 1960s researchers started to add more dimensions to the Nativist Approach by taking into account the fact that language was something which could not be separated or extracted from one's cognitive and affective abilities and that rule governed representations of language acquisition failed to account for the functions of the language. In 1970s Bloom, Sinclair, Slobin, Tripp, Bates, and the others illustrated the point that children's linguistic structures should be examined in the light of the conceptual and semantic aspects as well pragmatics and discourse. The integration of different branches regarded as crucial because as cited in Clark (1992:301), Bloom states that "...language development is considerably more complex than any other theory that tries to explain child language purely in terms of only syntax or only semantics or only pragmatics would allow."

As it mentioned here, Bloom, who is one of the most important supporters of the Functional approaches, urged three different possible underlying relations in a statement: agent-action, agent-object, and possessor-possessed. By examining data in reference to contexts, Bloom concluded that children learn underlying structures and not superficial word order. Bloom's research, along with that of Piaget, Slobin, and others, paved the way for a new wave of child language study. Slobin,

among others, demonstrated that in all languages, semantic learning depends on cognitive development and that sequences of development are determined more by semantic complexity than by structural complexity. He stated the two major pacesetters to language development: on the *functional level*, development was paced by the growth of conceptual and communicative capacities, operating in conjunction with innate schemas of cognition; and on the *formal level* development was paced by the growth of perceptual and information-processing capacities, operating in conjunction with innate schemas of grammar (Slobin, 1986:2)

From the late seventies to mid eighties many other researchers worked on Functionalist aspect of language acquisition such as Schieffelin, Eisenberg, Lieven, Platt. They focused on the course of language development in relation with the discussion on forms, structures and their functions. Thus, the attempts to formulize the steps or rules of the functions of language were very rigorous. In the late 1980s and early 1990s, Crain, Randall, Lock, Berco-Gleason, Hozman and the other scholars worked on Functionalist Approach towards grammatical, syntactic and semantic development of child. Besides, with research, it is surfaced that language functioning goes beyond the aspects related with memory or cognition since the function of language in discourse. So, some principles came into being as follow:

1- Functionalist Approaches regard language as meaning potential. To put it in other words, learning of language is interpreted as the learning of a system of meanings. Thus, a child who is acquiring his/her mother tongue is learning how to mean before adapting the lexical mode. That is to say, before using words of that specific language, children meet their communicational needs with the help of utterances which have meanings and functions. As it is also stated by Halliday (1975:9) "...the child learns language as a system of meanings in functional contexts becoming in turn,

the principle of organization of the adult semantic system." Therefore, it is pointed out that the origins of language acquisition are explained as the la set of functions each of which are related with meaning and meaning potentials.

2- The language of a very young child is interpreted by means of some functions explaining the socio-linguistic phases he goes through. The postulated set of functions is instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, and imaginative. The instrumental function serves for satisfying the child's material needs by providing him obtain the goods or services which he wants and it is called as,*" I want"* function of language. Regulatory function is for controlling the others' behaviors such *as "Do that!" , "Do as tell you!",* etc. The interactional function is what can be exemplified as "Me and you" function in order to interact with people around the child. On the other hand, personal function is used to express the child's own uniqueness , so this includes the expressions of personal feelings, interests, pleasures, participation, withdrawal, etc. once the child recognizes himself and the environment, heuristic function is at the work as *"Tell me why"* function of the language. The child starts this function by demanding a name for learning and categorizing the objects around him. Finally, there is imaginative function which enables the child to create an environment of his own as *"Let's pretend"* function of using a language. Each of these functions are simple content expressions. According to the Functional approaches when the child starts dialogs, he starts learning grammar as well. Depending upon the involvement, the pragmatic functions of language arise.

3- According to Functional Approaches, the learning of language and the learning of culture are closely interdependent since a child builds and constructs a reality and embodiment through language and also the language itself is a part of his reality. Thus, linguistic system of a language is a part of its social system. While the child is becoming social, he builds

up social semiotics and culture, which constitute the network of meaning. During the period of developing his own personality, he also learns the social aspects and viewpoints of the environment as well.

4- Functional Approaches assert the notion that semantic learning is dependent upon the cognitive development of the child. Linguistic structures can appear only if there is a cognitive foundation, which has already established. In other words."...before children can use structures of comparison (e.g. This car is bigger than that), they need first to have developed the conceptual ability to make relative judgments of size." (Crystal, 1997:234). The most influential model of cognitive development was proposed by Piaget. In the controlled studies investigating the link between cognitive development stages, the clearest illustrations of the claim are seen in the earliest period which is up to eighteen months. With the development of *sensori-motor intelligence* , children construct a world of independent mental pictures of objects and with the later period children develop a sense of object performance. Children acquire a cognitive ability as prerequisite for gaining language ability. Slobin asserts two pacesetters in language development and these are:

> a- on the functional level, development is paced by the growth of conceptual and communicative capacities, operating in conjunction with innate schemas of cognition,
> b- on the formal level, development is paced by the growth of perceptual and information processing capacities , operating in conjunction with innate schemas of grammar (Slobin, 1986:2).

5- Functional Approaches put forward the importance of environmental factors which were more influential even than innateness. According to this view point, possible environmental factors affect the child language and they are named as parental language or more usually referred to as *caretaker language, motherese,* or *caregiver language*. The speech

addressed to children turns out to have some properties one of which is direct influence. By means of this, caregiver language directly influences the child and imitation can be an example of this. On the other hand, mother's speech can indirectly influence the child as well such as providing a pattern frequently by enabling the child to follow it. In addition, caretaker's speech may facilitate the child's language by providing clear input from which the child can extract necessary properties and learn pragmatics of language.

It can be said that in recent years language functioning extended well beyond cognitive thought and memory structure. Since expectations of the learners have changed from day-from-day, coursebook writers began to tend prepare functional books because learners want to learn the real situations and these real situations and the daily language can only be taught by the application of the more functional course books. Functional Approaches have dealt with the deeper level of language than it was in the Nativist Approach. Rather than regarding language acquisition as rule governed specifications, language is approached with additional aspects of meaning, thought, reasoning, cognition, perception, etc. Therefore, by means of Functional approaches, language acquisition has started to be realized as a general development of cognitive and affective abilities, and it was realized that the generative rules fell short in explaining the functional aspect of language and language use.

By means of the Functional Approaches different branches have been brought together to provide an explanation for the process of language acquisition. Pragmatics, semiotics, sociolinguistics, cognitive sciences, cultural elements, etc. have been bundled up. In recent years, by going deep into the mentioned areas of research, the function of language in discourse, reciprocal behavior system operation between child and caretaker in learning and teaching process, the effect of interaction

between language acquisition and learning social system in human behavior is investigated.

It can be stated here that the major claim of the Functional Approach is that cognitive development has a priority over language development. When the children are too young, it is hard to discriminate the language behaviors belonging to specified categories besides as the children grow up this time the complexity of their language and the improvement of their cognitive behaviors such as mapping. As it is also stated by Crystal, "it is difficult to show precise correlations between specific cognitive behaviors and linguistic features at early age. This issue is highly controversial one which increases in complexity as children become linguistically and cognitively more advanced." (Crystal, 1997:235)

Consequently, by the help of the Functional Approaches, the communicational needs of learners are recognized. The fact that language learning is different from other types of learning surfaced and practice, students interaction, contextualization gained importance. Thus, language teachers found the Functional Approach more valuable than the abstract linguistic approaches. There has been a big emphasis on designing classrooms activities so that the language use realized to reflect normal purpose of language in interactional contexts. The artificiality of many language exercises is tried to be removed and adapted exercises and materials started to reflect the authentic uses of language. As it appears in Situational Language Teaching, language improvement is provided with communicational language exchange, meaningful contexts, purposeful material selection, and emphasis on semantic, sociolinguistic and cultural aspects.

Although Functional Approaches tried to explain child language acquisition, they gave the inspiration for the emergence of many approaches in the area of foreign language teaching such as Oral

Approach (Situational language Teaching) , Functional-Notional Approach, Error Hunt Approach, Deficit Approach, and Integrative Approach. They highlighted the point that teaching a language should be turned into a purposeful process with the emphasis on the functions of language which also exists in the daily or authentic use. Here, Communicative Approach, Functional-Notional Approach, and the Natural Approach will be handled and examined in details in terms of their relations with the functional view.

6.2. THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

The Communicative Approach was developed as a response to the book, 'Syntactic Structures' by Noam Chomsky who demonstrated the standard structural theories are incapable of accounting for the fundamental characteristic of language. The originator of the Communicative Approach is Wilkins who had great contributions to foreign language teaching by his book 'Notional Syllabuses' in 1976 in England. Richards and Rodgers (1986) give some names of the linguists who dealt with the Communicative Approach: 'Christopher Candlin, Henry Widdowson, John Firth, M.A.K. Halliday, Dell Hymes, John Gumperz, William Labov...' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 65). These linguists all focused on language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of the Communicative Approach since the mid 1970's, and now both American and British proponents see it as an approach.

The Communicative Approach in language teaching starts from a theory of language as communication. The goal of language teaching is to develop communicative competence. Hymes coined this term in order to contrast a communicative view of language and Chomsky's theory of competence. In Hymes's view, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to:

1- *whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible,*
2- *whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available,*
3- *whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated,*
4- *whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed and what its doing entails.* (Hymes, 1972: 280-281)

6.2.1. Principles and Theory of Language and Learning

This theory of what knowing a language entails offers a much more comprehensive view than Chomsky's view of competence, which deals with abstract grammatical knowledge. At the level of language theory Community Language teaching has a rich, if somewhat eclectic, theoretical base. Some of the characteristics of this communicative view of language follow:

1- Language is a system for the expression of meaning.
2- The primary function of language is to allow interaction and communication.
3- The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.
4- The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.*(Richards & Rogers, 2001: 161)*

Communicative Language Teaching (henceforth, CLT) -however- have attempted to describe theories of language learning processes that are compatible with the Communicative Approach. In 1983 Savignon surveyed second language acquisition research as a source for learning theories and considered the role of linguistic, social, cognitive and individual

variables in language acquisition. Other theorists, especially Krashen, have develop theories cited as compatible with the principles of CLT .They stressed that language learning comes about through using language communicatively rather than through practicing language skills. On the other hand, Piepho (1981:8) discussed the following levels of objectives in a communicative approach.

1- an integrative and content level (language as a means of expression)
2- a linguistic and instrumental level (language as a semiotic system and an object of learning)
3- an affective level of interpersonal relationships and conduct (language as a means of expressing values and judgments about oneself and others)
4- a level of individual learning needs (remedial learning based on error analysis)
5- a general educational level of extra-linguistic goals (language learning within the school curriculum)

These are proposed as general objectives, applicable to any teaching situation. Particular objectives for CLT cannot be defined beyond this level of specification since such an approach assumes that language teaching will reflect the particular needs of the target language. These needs may be in the domains of reading, writing, listening or speaking. That is to say, this is a more humanistic approach to learning; one in which the interactive processes of communication receive priority. This methodology emphasizes the use of language rather than learning the rules of language use. The communicative Approach stresses the need to teach communicative competence as opposed to linguistic competence; thus, functions are emphasized over forms because content and meaning are more important than linguistic forms.

That is, in the Communicative Approach language is viewed not only as a body of knowledge about sounds, vocabulary and grammar, a body which speakers possess in common , but also very much as an instrument for interpersonal communication, for a whole range of purposes and in a wide variety of situations.

6.2.2. Syllabus

Wilkins in 1971 proposed functional-notional syllabus to meet the call for a communicative syllabus raised by the Council of Europe, a regional organization for cultural and educational cooperation. The Council was looking for a permanent system in adult language teaching while the existing syllabi – including traditional, structural, topical and situational – could not offer. Wilkins broke down language into functions and notions. Functions are purposes for which people use the language, a concept similar to speech acts. For example, greetings, apologizing, inviting, promising, complaining, etc. Notions, on the other hand, refer to meaning elements which are often placed under two headlines: general which refers to space, quantity, deixis, time, etc.; specific notions are categorized under nouns, pronouns, verbs, prepositions, adjectives, adverbs, etc. Notions and functions allow syllabus to adopt a spiral cyclical rather than a hierarchical approach in the presentation of language. It means that in a functional-notional syllabus the material studied previously is recalled, reviewed, and elaborated in greater depth in consecutive levels. In this way the syllabus starts with a number of frequent functions expressed through easy notions which will gradually become more complicated. Less frequent functions are also introduced in later stages.

Together with this systematic approach toward syllabus, Wilkins made another contribution to language teaching which involves the classification of syllabi into analytic and synthetic. The former refers to those syllabi which introduce language in holistic chunks, e.g. topics, themes, and

situations and thus learners are expected to analyze and break them into parts. The latter, however, introduce language in discrete lists of items such as sounds, words, sentences, etc.) requiring learners to synthesize and put together the elements of language, leading to a step by step acquisition of gradual accumulation of parts until the whole structure of language has been built up. In the Communicative Approach, one type of syllabus is organized around notions (meanings such as spatial location, time, and degree) and functions (social transactions and interactions such as asking for information or complimenting someone). In this syllabus format, grammar and vocabulary are secondary, being taught not as ends in themselves, but only insofar as they help express the notions and functions which are in focus.

'Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning which maintains interest' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:68). Language functions are emphasized over forms. Forms are used to emphasize the functions of the language. For example, '...learning to make request, beginning students might practice "would you...?" and "could you...?" Highly proficient students might learn "I wonder if you would mind...?' (Freeman, 1983:134). Simpler forms are presented at first and then the functions are reintroduced. A number of forms are presented for each function in the Communicative Approach. Here, the steps to be followed in planning a lesson using the communicative or natural approach to second-language teaching are listed:

1. Presentation of a situation or context through a brief dialogue or several mini-dialogues, preceded by a motivational activity relating the dialogue to learners' experiences and interest. This includes a discussion of the function and situation: People, roles, setting, topic and the level of formality or informality the function and situation demand.

2. Brainstorming or discussion to establish the vocabulary and expressions to be used to accomplish the communicative intent. Includes a framework or means of structuring a conversation or exchange to achieve the purpose of the speakers.

3. Questions and answers based on the dialogue topic and situation: Inverted, wh- questions, yes/no, either/or and open-ended questions.

4. Study of the basic communicative expressions in the dialogue or one of the structures that exemplifies the function, using pictures, real objects, or dramatization to clarify the meaning.

5- Learner discovery of generalizations or rules underlying the functional expression or structure, with model examples on the chalkboard, underlining the important features, using arrows or referents where feasible.

6- Oral recognition and interpretative activities including oral production proceeding from guided to freer communication activities.

7- Reading and/or copying of the dialogues with variations for reading/writing practice.

8- Oral evaluation of learning with guided use of language and questions/answers, e.g. "How would you ask your friend to _____? And how would you ask me to _____?"

9- Homework and extension activities such as learners' creation of new dialogues around the same situation.

10- To complete the lesson cycle, provide opportunities to apply the language learned the day before in novel situations for the same or a related purpose.

In the Communicative Approach, the content serves the purpose of getting student started in communicating as well as the task of supplying a body of linguistic knowledge which is used for the purpose of performing the common speech acts in the target language. Thus, the content is organized into units of activity which encourage communication and also allow students to think about and talk about the process of communicating in a second language.

6.2.3. Learner and Teacher Roles

The Communicative Approach is mainly in relation to psycholinguistics. The task of psycholinguistics is to discover how knowledge of language is represented in the mind of the native speaker. As the Communicative Approach pays attention to independence training, psycholinguistics helps the teachers of English understand student's psychology and motivate him to learn the second language teachers give students an opportunity to express their individuality by having them share their ideas and opinions on a regular basis' (Freeman, 1983:133). Teachers of English provide learners with necessary motivation in order to make them feel they are learning to do something useful with the language they study. It is aimed at students' expressing their ideas and feelings during the classroom activities in the Communicative Approach. Thus, the teachers of English should know about the student's psychology while they are learning the target language, help learners understand the nature of the target language, cultural differences between the first and the second languages. Besides, they should encourage them to learn English language by using real life situations in pair / group works such as dialogues, role plays, and the authentic materials such as, American TV programs or a live radio broadcast in the classroom activities in ELT.

The teacher is a facilitator in learning process. 'During the activities he acts as an advisor, answering students' questions and monitoring their

performance' (Freeman, 1983: 131). Teacher tries to motivate the students to learn the second language. The teacher is less dominant as the students are more responsible of their own learning. S/he is the manager of the classroom activities. S/he is the co-communicator, that is, s/he is a counselor, facilitator or a consultant. What happens in the classroom does not revolve around him/her any longer; it revolves around the students and their needs and abilities as individuals. Teachers must be communicatively competent in the second language in the second language in order to be effective because teachers have to prepare much more new material for each class since it is difficult in the Communicative Approach to rely entirely on textbooks.

'The teacher can not know exactly what language the students will use' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:68). Students are always encouraged to communicate in communicative activities, especially in groups. Students are asked to use the language in group works in order to gain much more time for each student to negotiate meaning. Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:68). One of the characteristics of the Communicative Approach is that students' motivation gains importance while learning the target language. Teachers should motivate them to use the second language in classroom activities.

On the other hand, the Communicative Approach which aims at students' becoming communicatively competent takes an important place in English language teaching by using the authentic materials in English language classes. Students are provided with real life situations in role-plays, games, or problem solving activities. So, they can completely control over the English language. However, the main deficiency of the Communicative Approach is its avoiding linguistic awareness, which will also be dealt with in this thesis.

'Student security is enhanced by the many opportunities for cooperative interactions with their fellow students and the teachers (Freeman, 1983:133) Students are given opportunities to express their ideas and opinions in order to make them feel they are learning to do something useful with the language they study. They are encouraged to communicate in group works and see the teacher as an advisor. 'Students are expected to interact with other people through pair and group work, or in their writings' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:68). Group / pair works are emphasized in order to lead students to communicate in the target language.

'Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in the context' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:68). A student having control over the structures and vocabulary in the target language is not always the best communicator. In the Communicative Approach, accuracy and fluency receive attention in the evaluation process. Students are encouraged to communicate by paying attention to be fluent and accurate as much as possible. Moreover, teachers may use a communicative test which has a real communicative function. For example, an integrative test can be used in the Communicative Approach.

'Language is created by the individual often through trial and error' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:678).Independence training is emphasized in the Communicative Approach. Students, themselves learn how to communicate in the target language through trial and error. Students have an active role in the learning process, that is, students are responsible for his / her own learning. Students usually work with authentic materials in small groups on communicative activities, during which they receive practice in negotiating meaning. Students are communicators.

6.2.4. Strong Sides

The Communicative Approach encourages learners of English to communicate in the target language fluently and accurately as much as possible. They are motivated to learn the target language through some activities such as role play, language games, scrambled sentences, picture strip story by giving real life situations. Here are some other strong sides of this approach.

1- Students feel that they are learning something useful as the functions of the target language are presented in real life situations. For example, while learning how to apologize in the target language, students are made to listen to native speakers apologizing to each other from the tape recorder, or on video. Some pictures related to the subject can also be used to motivate them. Furthermore, newspaper, or magazines help them understand how to use the function of the second language in a given situation. Famous people apologizing to each other, which is published on newspaper, will be a good example for them to learn how to apologize in the target language.

2- Independence training is emphasized in the Communicative Approach. Student's individuality gains importance, his ideas and feelings are paid attention in teaching / learning process. So, motivation is one of the primary goal in the Communicative Approach. After students are motivated to learn the target language, they are asked to use the second language especially in group / pair works. When they practice the functions of the target language in group / pair works they feel ready to control over the second language and use it fluently and accurately as much as possible.

3- In the Communicative Approach, fluency is more important than accuracy. That means that the goal is to create an atmosphere in which students can talk and write freely without being too concerned with the production of error-free sentences. People learn from their mistakes when

they receive feedback periodically, but this feedback should be supportive. Errors are very useful to the teacher in telling something about whether the teaching has been effective. Therefore, learning from errors is more important.

4- In this approach culture is taught together with the language. So, the content should be related to the place where the language is taught. Students do not just learn the basic language to get by; they also learn the culture, customs, and context in which they are going to be using the language. At the same time, this approach is very important in terms of students in receiving positive reinforcement from the teacher and even from the classmates. This is essential in motivating the students.

5- The evaluation period in this approach takes into account that communication is based on interaction and thus is creative also unpredictable. Therefore, the evaluation consists in gauge whether a student can get something done through the use of language, and with what degree of efficiency and appropriateness to a given situation. Besides, exams are not tricks, students are told about what contents are going to be tested.

6.2.5. Weak Sides

Like the other approaches, this approach has also some weak points in terms of its application in the language teaching field. For example,

1- The main deficiency of the Communicative Approach is that there is a difference between learning a language for communication and learning it as communication. In other words, teaching of grammatical forms is necessary for meaningful language use. As the Communicative Approach ignores the linguistic awareness, students get difficulty in communicating accurately in the target language. Even if they are encouraged to produce original utterances correctly in real life situations, they may fail to use the

target language appropriately without systematic knowledge of grammar. For example, a student who is expected to say '*would you mind opening the window*' in a formal situation may say *'would you mind to open the window'*. In this case, students fail to communicate in the target language correctly. Furthermore, they may get used to using the structure in this way as their errors are always ignored in the classroom activities.

2- Another point is that teachers of English minimize explanations in order to encourage students to speak the target language at all times. In this sense, learners of English get difficulty in understanding the grammatical aspects of the target language. They need much more explanations to acquire the grammatical features and complex structures of the second language.

3- In the Communicative Approach, learners need to develop their semiotic system in order to abstract their thoughts while learning the target language. The aim in teaching a foreign language should be educational rather then functional. Students should be provided with not only visual, audio visual, authentic materials, but also non-verbal communication such as gestures, mimes, postures, pantomime, eye -contact and kinesthetic dimensions to make the meaning clear in the target language. They should be conscious about what they are learning as well as how they are using the target language in real life situations. They should use the second language consciously by controlling over it, knowing exactly where, and how the linguistic features of the second language are use.

4- The Communicative Approach prepares good syllabus design for relevant topics involving appropriate vocabularies and situations for the people when visiting a country where the target language is spoken. As the adult learners often draw their motivation from the goal of visiting a foreign country, they need to use the language by speaking in given situations. However, this is less true for pupils studying English language

at secondary school. Some of the situations presumed relevant for visitors to countries where the target language is spoken can be inappropriate for pupils because of their different experiences of the world. They need to be conscious about what they are learning rather than using the language by speaking in given situations. They need to know linguistic features of the second language in order to communicate fluently and accurately in the Communicative Approach. So, plausibility might be more useful guiding principle than authenticity.

5- 'The learners not taught about grammatical aspects of the language do not very readily infer knowledge of the language system from their communicative activities' (Widdowson, 1990:161). The learners acquire incomplete, imperfect learning process as they try to communicate without having information about main grammatical and linguistic features of the second language. In the Communicative Approach, students do not pay attention to the linguistic features in order to make correction with context and cannot achieve the indexical meaning. Instead, they try matching up and adjustment to context of pre-assembled patterns of language. For example, a student may use a sentence such as 'If I were you, I go to the cinema', but he wants to mean 'If I were you, I would go to the cinema'. In this sense, students use the language unconsciously. However, the external analysis of language needs the internal analysis of language itself in order to have reasonable as well as practical learning process in ELT. The students need to learn the internal analysis through linguistic features of English in order to communicate in the second language just like a native speaker. For example, a student who does not know the differences in meaning between the following sentences may make wrong assumptions while reading or he may use the language inappropriately while speaking:

It will rain → (There are some clouds on the sky)

It may rain→ (There are not many clouds on the sky, even if it is blue, it may rain in the afternoon)

As it is seen above, it makes no sense to try to communicate in the target language without knowing what to say and how to say it. The students need to learn the linguistic features of English and they should be encouraged to use these features appropriately in a given situation. Thus, the teachers in the Communicative Approach should take the linguistic features of the target language into consideration and help learners be aware of them in classroom activities.

6- The other point is that the learners may fail to pronounce some words or they may not pay attention to intonation patterns in sentences in the target language as their errors are always ignored in the Communicative Approach. Although learners of English are encouraged to speak at all times, their pronunciation or intonation mistakes are ignored, which leads students to have fossilized errors. For example, learners of English tend to pronounce / ŋ / sound as / ɪŋ k / /; instead of pronouncing 'king' as / kɪŋ / they pronounce 'king' as / kɪŋk /

The situation is the same in intonation patterns, different stresses result in different meanings:

Her eyes are prétty. (She has got beautiful eyes)
Her eyes áre pretty. (Her eyes are really pretty)
Her éyes are pretty. (Her eyes, not teeth, pretty)
Hér eyes are pretty. (Not anybody else's, but her eyes are pretty)
(From Demirezen, 1986 : 112)

In this case, if the students do not pay attention to the stresses in sentences, they cannot give the intended meaning. Therefore, the

phonological knowledge is needed in the Communicative Approach. Moreover, their errors in pronunciation and intonation should be corrected immediately in order to avoid fossilized errors in ELT.

7- Linguistic awareness is ignored in the Communicative Approach. No phonological studies take place in the classroom activities. Intonation patterns or pronunciation of certain words in the target language is not presented in English language classes. Students' phonologically based errors are ignored. Moreover, grammatical structures and vocabulary items are not emphasized. The learners try to communicate in the target language without knowing where and how to use the structures, or vocabulary items in the Communicative Approach.

6.2.6. Contributions to ELT

The Communicative Approach has important applications such as culture teaching and classroom management to ELT. It also helps learners of English to develop speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills through the use of visuals and the authentic materials. It brings the implications of the communicative competence into the language teaching / learning field. Moreover, the Communicative Approach provides students with a meaningful learning as real life situations are always presented in the classroom activities in ELT. It puts into forward that the target language is a vehicle for

Firstly, teachers in the Communicative Approach widely use the authentic materials such as a genuine newspaper article, a live radio broadcast, or television programs. Students can learn about the cultural values of the target language while listening to a live radio broadcast, watching television programs, or reading newspaper. Moreover, students can learn the body languages, gestures, postures the native speakers use in natural settings on TV programs. For example, students can learn informal usage of the language structures only by watching a live

television broadcast. 'I ain't going' is used instead of ' I am not going', or 'I am blue' is used instead of 'I am upset'. The cultural values in the target language take an important place in ELT in order to avoid any breakdown in communication. As a result, the Communicative Approach provides learners of English with the cultural values of the target language through the use of the authentic materials in ELT.

Secondly, the teacher in the Communicative Approach is a manager of the classroom activities. He manages the process of negotiating meaning by answering students' questions and monitoring their performance in the classroom. He provides with classroom management by making necessary explanations in the classroom activities. For example, he tells what the situation is, what the roles of the students are, or what they are talking about in role-play activities. As students are always encouraged to communicate in groups, teachers in the Communicative Approach manage the classroom activities by clearer explanations. Moreover, the teacher acts as an advisor who is ready to answer the students' questions while using language games, picture strip story, scrambled sentences, or role-plays in order to facilitate the learning process and provide classroom management in ELT.

Finally, the Communicative Approach helps learners of English to develop speaking, listening, reading and writing skills in ELT. Students are presented pictures, filmstrips, the authentic materials in classroom activities. Besides, they are given an opportunity to develop their speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills through the use of these materials. For example, students are asked to listen to a live radio broadcast and talk about the program on the radio. Then, they may be asked to write a summary of the program and read it in the classroom. In this sense, the Communicative Approach enables the students to develop listening, speaking, writing, and reading skills in the classroom activities in ELT. Moreover, the techniques used in the Communicative Approach

encourage the learners of English to use the target language. The scrambled sentences improve learners' writing skills by taking cohesion and coherence properties of the second language into consideration. While students are trying to put the sentences in order, they pay attention to the transitions in the passage. In addition, picture strip story gives students the chance to practice negotiating meaning. As it is a problem solving task, learners try to speak in the target language to predict the pictures. As a result, they can develop their speaking skills in the classroom. Role-plays and language games are also very effective to motivate the learners to use the target language in real life situations. Finally, students are given opportunities to develop their four skills: speaking, listening, reading, writing by encouraging them to use the target language in ELT.

6.2.7. Related Methods

Since there has been no clear distinction whether this is an approach or a method, it is no use to state related methods.

6.2.8. Discussion Questions for Students

1- Why is this approach termed as Communicative Approach?
2- What are the roles of the teachers?
3- What are the roles of the learners?
4- What are the most important contributions of this approach to the ELT?
5- Is this approach really effective in teaching and learning a foreign language? Why?
6- What is the meaning of *communicative*?
7- What are the handicaps of this approach?

6.2.9. Basic Techniques and Exercise / Activity Types

The Communicative Approach uses some techniques, activities or exercises such as *authentic materials, scrambled sentences, language games including information gap exercises , puzzles, crosswords, choice and feedback, picture strip story, and role play* in English language teaching. It aims at students' communicating in the target language while using these techniques in the classroom. A number of activities are used in this approach. For example, role-plays, simulations, problem-solving, information transfer, interactive tasks such as combining arrangements and cooperating arrangements.

The *authentic materials* are effectively used in the Communicative Approach. Students are encouraged to transfer what they learn in the classroom to the outside world by the help of the authentic materials. Learners of English can be asked to listen to a live radio or television broadcast, they can be asked to talk about the program on TV or radio, tell their opinions and then they can be asked to write a paragraph about the program and read it to the other students in the classroom. Thus, they have the opportunity to develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities by the help of the authentic materials used in the classroom. Moreover, menus, timetables, or calendar are other real objects which can be used in ELT. For example, menus can be effectively used while teaching how to order at a restaurant, or time tables and calendar are widely used while teaching months, seasons, dates, or time expressions such as 'at 2 o'clock in the morning, on Monday, 21st of August'. As a result, the authentic materials provide learners of English with real life situations in order to encourage them to use the target language.

Secondly, *scrambled sentences* are also effectively used in the Communicative Approach. The students are given a passage in which the sentences are in a scrambled order. They are asked to unscramble the

sentences and put them into their original order. 'This type of exercise teaches students about the cohesion and the coherence properties of language' (Freeman, 1983: 136). The students learn how sentences come together by taking suprasentential level and semantic propositions into consideration, which transitions are used where and how they make the whole passage coherent. Finally, scrambled sentences provide learners of English with meaningful learning in writing activities, and cohesion, coherence aspects of the target language in ELT.

Thirdly, *language games* are frequently used in the Communicative Approach. They give students the opportunity for communicative practice in the target language. For example, students are presented a picture which has different people such as men, women, and children wearing different clothes on it. Teacher may divide the class into two groups and the first group may be asked to choose someone in the picture and the second group may be asked to find that person by asking questions such as 'What is she/he like, what is s/he wearing?", the second group may be responsible for answering the questions such as 'he is wearing a red T-shirt, a dark blue short'. If the first group finds out the person, it wins, if not, the second group wins the game. This kind of activity provides learners of English with an enjoyable and interesting lesson which motivates them to use the target language with a communicative purpose in ELT.

Another technique used in the Communicative Approach is *picture strip story*. In this activity, the first picture of the story is shown to the students and they are asked to predict what the second picture would look like. They try to find out the second one by receiving feedback. After the second picture is shown, the learners compare it with their prediction. This is a problem solving task which enables students to practice in negotiating meaning. Therefore, this technique is important in order to encourage students to speak and discuss in the target language, and it develops

students' speaking skill as well as helping them think in the second language.

Finally, *role-plays* are widely used in the Communicative Approach. They are important in English language teaching as students are given an opportunity to practice communicating in different social contexts and in different social roles. The teacher tells the students in which situation they will act out a role play, what their roles are, and what they are talking about. Moreover, role-plays are very effective while teaching the functions of the second language. For example, students may be asked to act out a role-play in order to practice to apologize in the target language. One of the students may be daughter who comes late to the house, and the other may be the father who gets angry with her. The daughter apologizes to her father by using sentences such as, *'I'm sorry for being late...., I apologize to you for being late...'* As a result, role-plays are effectively used in the Communicative Approach to lead the learners of English to practice communicating in real life situations by motivating them to use the target language

6.2.9.1. Teaching Vocabulary and Presentation of new words

The cognitive method and the communicative approach have restored to importance the semantic aspect, as opposed to the structural mechanism which was the glory of the followers of the audio-lingual methods. It is evident that the semantic level of a language is not only to be found in its vocabulary: There are grammatical meanings, in the form of morphosyntactics, cultural meanings, etc. But we can say that the vocabulary or lexical level is where the meaning of a language is mostly realized and consolidated. Here are some techniques used in teaching vocabulary.

New words should not be presented in isolation, but in the context of a complete sentence, and in a meaningful situation. Only in this way will

the words acquire meaning, when they appear with a particular definition in a determined context.

6.2.9.1.2. Teaching Meaning

Teaching meaning is not the only aspect of the teaching of vocabulary although it is certainly one of the most important aspects of language teaching and learning field.

6.2.9.1.3. Practicing the New Words

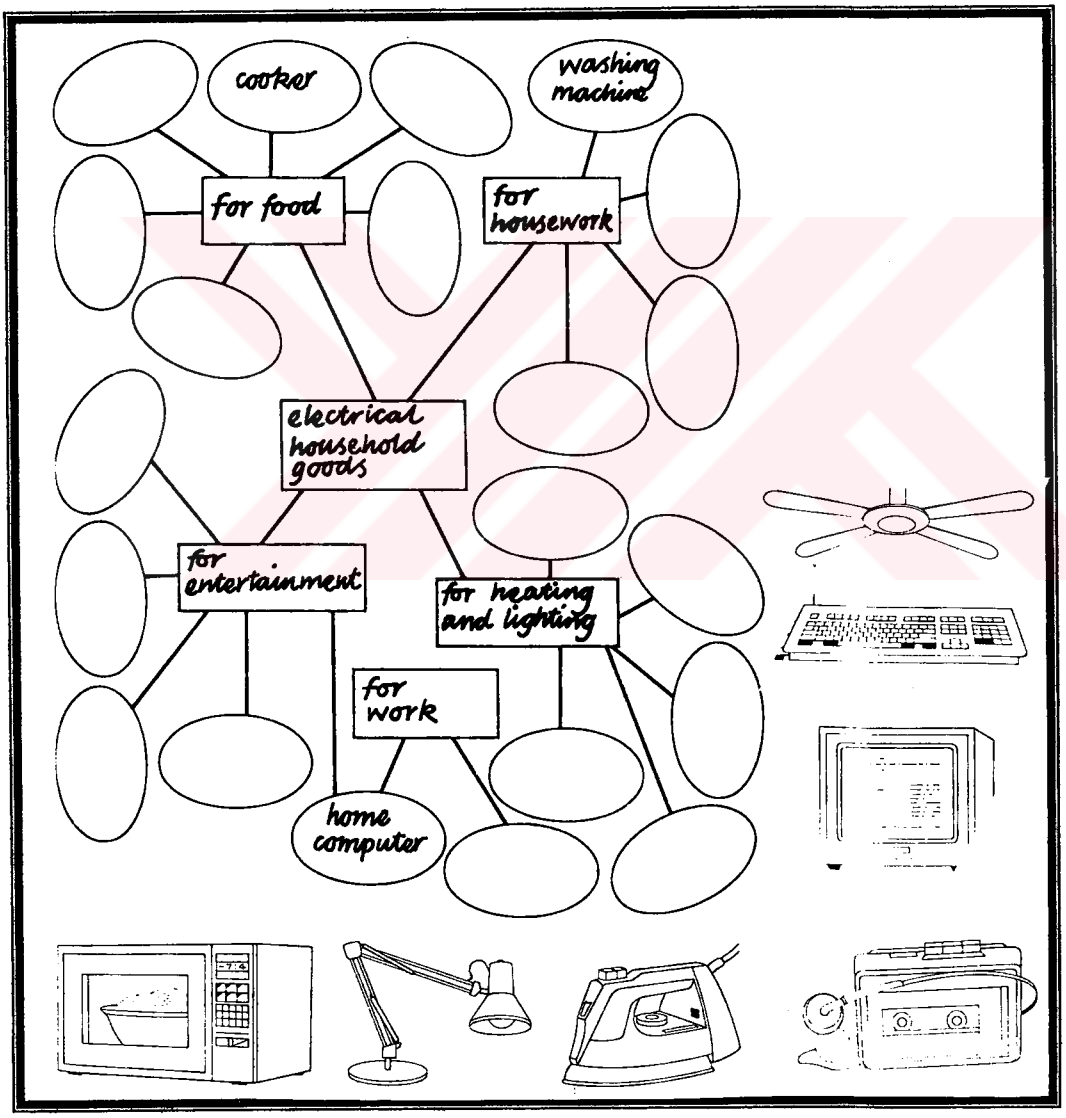
Once the meaning is understood, the new words are practiced orally in different phrases, in various contexts and communicative situations, and using all the grammatical structures known to the students. Subsequently, one moves on to reading and writing the new words. While teaching vocabulary, as it mentioned above, authentic materials, games, picture strip stories, etc. may be used. Here are some examples:

6.2.9.1.4. Language Game

This exercise includes two important features of communication: choice and feedback. The students have choices as to what and how they will predict. At the same time students can get feedback from his / her classmates or given information. For example, "**Vocabulary network**" is useful to record words which are associated in networks because it can help you to remember them. You can do this in a list or in the form of a diagram like the one below. *(Headway-Pre-Intermediate: Student's Book, 1994: 17.)*

The following are all electrical household goods. Use your dictionary to check the meaning and (if possible) the pronunciation of any you do not know, and then fill in the spaces. Some are already filled to help you.

air-conditioning cooker dishwasher microwave oven fan spotlight freezer fridge food mixer home computer iron kettle lamp hi-fi system vacuum cleaner walkman video washing machine word processor CD player fan heater



6.2.9.1.5. Teaching the Social meanings of the Words Using Dialogs/Short Stories

This activity was taken from *Allen, 1983:79.* From such a dialog given below students can learn some of the social meanings of the words. In this dialog students will learn the social meaning of the word vacation. For example, to a native speaker of English, a middle-class student's vacation often means a time for working – in a hotel, at a summer camp, or as a gardener. What social meanings are suggested here for the words job, student, waiter, machine and experience? So, students, by means of this type of scripts, can both learn the social and cultural meanings of the words. Here is an example:

DAN: It's almost vacation time. Have you found a summer job yet ?

JOE : I suppose I can work at the boys' camp where I worked last summer. But camp jobs don't pay much.

DAN : I think I can get a job at the Edgewater Hotel. A friend of mine was a waiter there last summer. The pay wasn't good but he got lots of tips.

JOE : My sister worked there last summer, making beds and cleaning bathrooms. She didn't like it, but she earned quite a lot of money.

DAN: A friend of my sister's did that one summer.

JOE : What I want is a job outside. After sitting in college classes all winter, I'd like a job in the open air.

DAN: The high school kids earn a lot of money every summer cutting grass. My brother is only 14 but he gets 5 dollars every time he cuts somebody's grass, and it only takes him an hour. He just rides around on the machine that he bought and the machine does the all work.

JOE : That's pretty good. I used to cut grass when I was in high school. But now I thought I might work for a road-building company, or something like that.

6.2.9.1.6. Teaching of Cultural Words by Questions

As another activity to show the students what social meanings may be attached to a commonly used word "*cat*", teacher may ask the following questions and help the students find out how native speakers of English would answer:

1- *Does a cat usually live outside, or inside someone's house ?*
2- *Does a cat ever sleep on its owner's bed?*
3- *What do cats eat ? (Do their owners ever buy special food for them?)*
4- *Do some people buy toys for their cats?*
5- *If a cat becomes sick, does it owner ever take it to a doctor?*

Later, teacher wants students to discuss the answers about cats. Then, consider how the answers might help the students recognize what a native speaker of English might really mean by a sentence like: *I have three cats*. How the social meanings of cat compare to the meanings of the corresponding word in your students' language?

6.2.9.1.7. Cultural Words and Phrases

Each item in the list refers to something very common in the experience of people living in the USA. Which of the items (if any) would need to be explained to your class because the students' own life experience has not prepared them to understand those vocabulary items?

1- Halloween costumes	*6- a three-story house*
2- jack-o'-lanterns	*7- floor wax*
3- trick or treat	*8- a laundromat*
4- a front lawn	*9- a rare steak*
5- a shingled roof	*10- a Thanksgiving turkey*

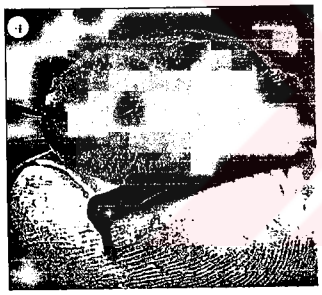
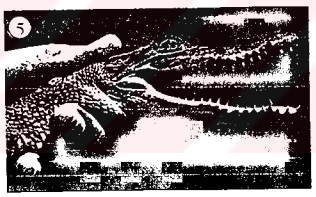
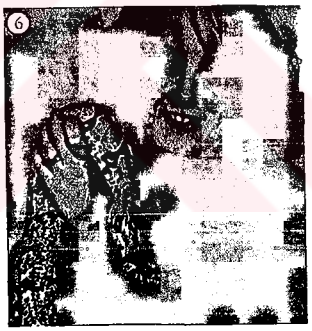
6.2.9.1.8. Using Pictures

Pictures for vocabulary teaching come from many sources. Pictures have been cut out of magazines and newspapers are also useful; many inexpensive books for children have attractive pictures which show meanings of basic words. The following example was taken from *Intermediate Matters, 1998:117.*

Beastly tales

VOCABULARY 1



1 Some people have very strange pets.

a) Use the words in the box to name the animals in the photographs above.

bat	rat	crocodile	snake	ferret	tiger

b) Do people keep pets in your country? What kinds of pets?

c) Why do you think people choose to keep pets like the ones above?

2 In the texts below the children are talking about pets.

a) While you are reading write down the names of the pets they have, and the ones they would like to have.

b) Which animals are not typical pets?



Martin, 5

I've got a hamster called Hammy. He's 16. I give him lettuce and some toast. I want a kitten, as I'd like its purring. I might get one when I'm a man.

Lewis, 7

I would like to have a squirrel because I like their tails. I would like an alligator, too. I'd put it in a big pool. When my sister went in she would get gobbled up.

Rosemary, 6

I've got four baby worms. I keep them in a worm house in the garden. I'd like a tiger. I'd call it Furry. I'd feed it four pork chops and keep it in the shed.

6.2.9.1.9. Word Scrambles

This activity is useful to develop vocabulary and improve spelling. The following example was taken from Steinberg, 1986:23. Students are presented a list of scrambled words on the blackboard, overhead projector or paper and are challenged to unscramble them. The first person, or team, to unscramble the entire list wins. The words, of course, are from known active and passive vocabulary. For example,

HYPAP	*OAPIN*
POSA	*MECARA*
SIFH	*ELLOH*
MOADNID	*HTRECAE*
SORHE	*AWEHL*

The length of the list depends on the time available and the interest level of the students. The list can sometimes be restricted to a category such as occupations, world capitals, political leaders, animals, or furniture. To introduce the game to students for the first time, usually start by having teams of 3 to 5 players each compete against one another. Working in teams enables students to learn from one another and helps to build self-confidence. So, this requires one of the principles of communicative teaching which is feedback.

6.2.9.1.10. Paired Letters (Game)

Again this activity may be used to expand the vocabulary and reinforce spelling ability. Students are shown the following grid, and the person who creates the greatest number of words by combining paired

letters is the winner. For this activity a pen, a piece of paper, a dictionary for each student, OHP or blackboard is needed. Teacher should usually put a time limit. When s/he first introduces the game to the class, s/he lets them work with a partner. To encourage the formation of longer words, s/he should count 2 points for a four-letter word, 4 points for a six-letter word, 8 points for an eight-letter word, and so on. To make your own grid, simply break up words of 4, 6, 8 and 10 letters and scatter the paired letters over the grid.

li	bi	ea	so	ye
at	Yi	ow	ll	ki
ti	kn	ng	fe	bl
op	ck	st	ro	me
ca	in	si	ar	lo

(Answers : liar, strong, stop, yellow, rock, feat, fear, fellow, yell, know, etc.)

6.2.9.2. Teaching Listening and Speaking

The linguistic elements discussed in the preceding sections - pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary- are practically never used outside of a piece of connected discourse or a communicative activity of listening, speaking, reading or writing. In these communicative abilities, also known as the four basic skills, all the other elements are used in an integrated way. By this we mean that the basic skills are generally used together. That is, we usually speak and listen, or read and write at the same time. On the other hand, the different linguistic elements -sounds, intonation, lexical items, and grammar rules- are combined in appropriate meaningful sequences in speech acts or in longer units of spoken

discourse and written text. In this section we are going to present the two oral basic skills, that is, listening and speaking.

6.2.9.3. Listening Comprehension and The Skill of Speaking

Understanding what others say is essential for communication: It is impossible to answer or respond to another person if we have not understood what he or she has said. In spite of this, the skill of listening comprehension was usually neglected in the teaching of foreign languages until the spread of the communicative approach made theoreticians and practitioner teachers aware of the importance of this basic linguistic skill.

The communicative Approach has placed the speaking ability as the most important objective in the process of teaching-learning a foreign language. Most students of English want to be able to speak the language as perfectly as possible, in order to communicate with native and non-native speakers of English in their business or holiday contacts with them. The acquisition of this skill, however, is very difficult and demanding, and this difficulty is at the root of the discouragement a lot of learners feel after some time of studying the language. Here are some activities / exercise in order to teach listening and speaking abilities of the learners.

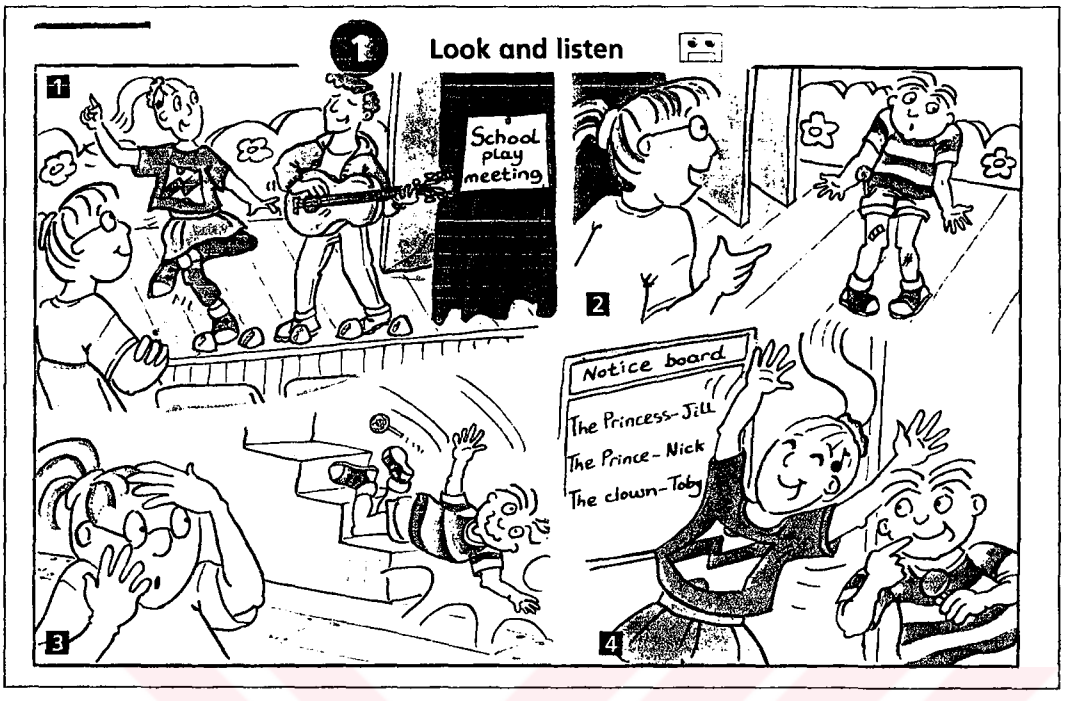
6.2.9.3.1. Picture Strip Stories

Many activities can be done with picture strip stories. This activity is an example of using a problem solving tasks work well in the Communicative Approach because they usually include the three important features of communication: information gap, choice and feedback. Here are some examples:

Task 1: The following picture story was taken from *Lawday, 1998: 24*. In this activity teacher wants students to talk about the pictures guessing what the people are talking about in the speech balloons.



Task 2 : The same kind of activity can be employed for the following script story. This time, again, students are asked to talk about / or discuss what they see in the pictures. If wanted, teacher may cover the pictures and wants students to guess what will happen in the next pictures. *(Lawday, 1998: 32)*



Task 3 : This script story can be used for both listening and speaking . This script story was taken from *Headway-Pre-Intermediate: Student's Book, 1996:91.*

're-listening task

What stories do you know about UFOs (Unidentified Flying Objects)?

Some people say they have seen flying saucers. What do they say they look like? Draw one!

You are going to listen to a man who says he has seen a UFO, spoken to the aliens in it and been inside their space craft. What would you like to ask him?

Where were you?
Did they speak to you?

.istening for information

T.34 Listen to the interview and look at the ictures. Put them in the right order. There is one nistake in each picture. Find the eight mistakes.

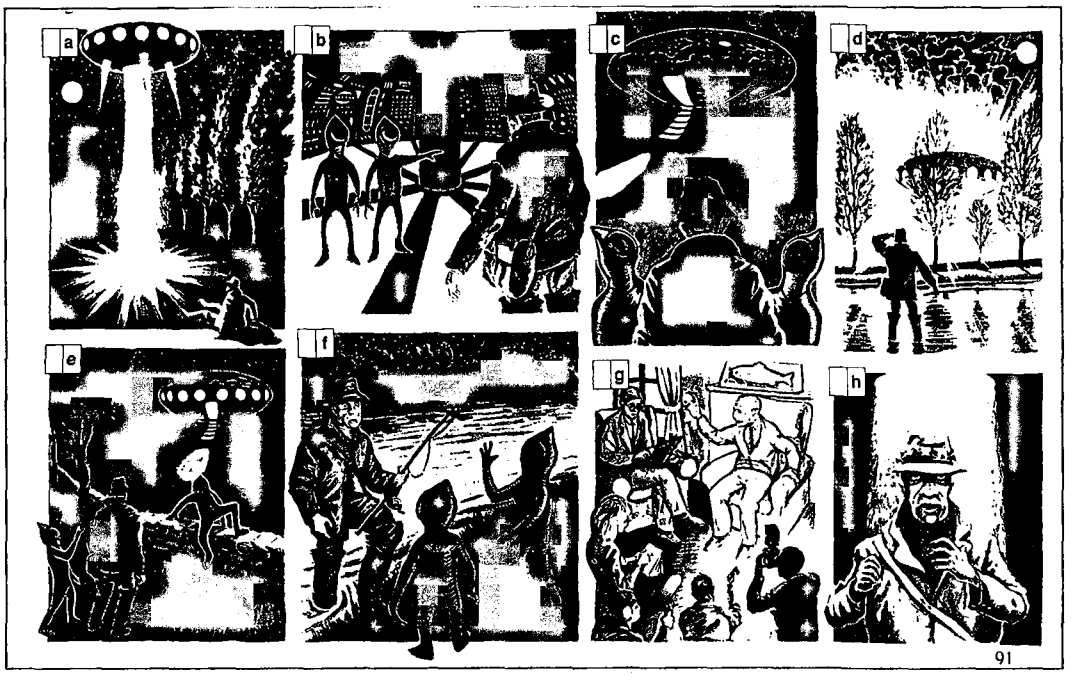
Comprehension check

Which of your questions did Mr Burton answer?

What do the following refer to in the story?

Example
about a year ago – *He saw the UFO about a year ago.*

- one o'clock
- three hundred feet
- full moon
- five feet away
- ten or fifteen seconds
- green
- a machine
- black
- red
- five minutes
- two o'clock



6.2.9.3.2. Role Play-1

Role plays involve: a) giving a role to one or more members of a group and b) assigning an objective or purpose that participants must accomplish. In this example an information gap is created which means that the role-play has a genuinely communicative dimension built into it. The students have been working in the area of tourism. They are told that in pairs they are going to act out a scene in a travel agency where one student is a customer and the other is a travel agent. Student A is given the following information: (Harmer , 2001: 279-280) Students are given time to study their information. The teacher point out that customer needs to select the hotel based, as far as possible, on the six qualities they want. While students act out the scene in pairs you can go round listening, prompting if necessary, recording examples of especially good or not very successful language use. When the pairs have completed their role-plays you can have them compare what happened asking some questions such as ; *Did all the customers choose the Regency Park ?* ,

What did they find difficult / easy? , Which hotel has the set of qualities to the customers' needs? etc. "

A Customer

You want:

- a double room
- to go to a hotel in Miami for 7 nights (You can spend up to $1400 on a hotel.)
- to be as near as possible to the city centre
- to go to a hotel with a good discotheque
- a children's swimming pool for your small son
- someone to be available to look after your son at the hotel
- the hotel to serve good food '
- a comfortable room (with a good view)

Student B gets the following hotel information which he or she can show to the customer if necessary, but which he or she will probably have more success explaining by telling student A the information:

B Travel agent

Study the following information carefully so that you can answer **A** (the customer).

	Sun Inn	*Regency Park*	*Paradiso*	*Oasis*
Cost (double) per night	$180	$175	$210	$130
View	☺	☺☺	☺☺☺	☺☺
Distance from centre	10 miles	12 miles	20 miles	3 miles
Disco	☺	☺☺	☺☺☺	—
Restaurant	☺☺	☺☺☺	☺☺☺	
Adults' swimming pool	☺☺☺	☺	☺☺	☺
Children's swimming pool	☺	☺☺	☺☺☺	—
Childcare facilities	—	☺☺	☺	—

Note: Various features (e.g. view, discos, restaurants, etc.) have been given different 'smile' ratings to indicate quality.
☺☺☺ = excellent, ☺☺ = very good, and ☺ = good
As an example we can say that you get a better view if you're staying at the Paradiso than you do if you are staying at the Regency Park.

6.2.9.3.3. Role Play -2: Organizing Free Role Plays

In this type activity students themselves have to decide what language to use and how the conversation should develop. So in order to use an activity like in class careful preparation would be necessary. Here is the situation taken from Doff, 1990:237. Situation : *One student has lost*

his bag. S/he has at the police station reporting it to the police. The other student is the police officer and asks for details.

The teacher could prepare with the whole class by: discussing what the speakers might say (e.g. the police officer would ask the student how s/he lost the bag); writing prompts on the board to guide the role play and any key vocabulary. Or the teacher could divide the class into pairs and let them discuss together what they might say ; let them all try out the role play privately before calling on one or two pairs to act it out in front of the class.

Later students begin to act out the role play following ideas discussed previously. Here teacher may tell the class the situation and elicit from the class some of the questions the police officer might ask (e.g. when, where, and how s/he lost the bag ; what it looks like; what it contains, etc.)

6.2.9.3.4. Role Cards

This activity can be employed by the photocopied role cards. Teacher gives out the role cards and lets the students prepare together in their groups. (All role As together, all Bs together, etc. S/he allows up to 5 minutes or until students feel ready. Then, teacher asks students to pair up as follows to conduct the role play. One from Group A (colleague) with one from Group C (Alex Manning). One from *Group B (boss)* with one from *Group D (Pat Kelly).* Teacher monitors students carefully to see how they are getting on, and when they have finished. Here are the photocopies of these cards: *(From Headway Advanced: Teacher's Book, 1993: 27)*

ROLE CARDS

Role A A colleague of Alex Manning

You work for the same company as Alex Manning, based in London. Today is Monday. On Wednesday, Alex is going away on a short business trip.

Prepare to ask him/her questions about the trip.

Where . . .?
How long . . .?
. . . flying from?
How long . . . flight?
Which airline . . .?
. . . meeting you?
. . . staying?
. . . Wednesday evening?
. . . sight seeing?
. . . coming back?

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Role B Pat Kelly's boss

You work for a multi-national company (based in London) in their New York office. One of your staff is called Pat Kelly, a representative. You are his/her boss.

Today is Monday. On Wednesday, an English colleague of yours, Alex Manning, is coming out from London to New York for a few days. Pat Kelly has planned the trip.

You want to make sure that all the arrangements have been made satisfactorily, so you are going to talk to Pat Kelly.

Prepare to ask questions about the trip.

When . . . arrive?
Which airport . . .?
How long . . . flight?
Which airline . . .?
How many days . . .?
. . . staying?
How . . . from the airport to the hotel?
. . . Wednesday evening?
. . . Thursday?
. . . Friday?
. . . going back?

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Role C Alex Manning

Your name is Alex Manning.
You work for a multi-national company based in London.

Today is Monday. On Wednesday you're going on a business trip to New York. The trip has been organized by Pat Kelly, your company's representative in New York.

Below is some provisional information about the trip. A colleague of yours is going to ask you about it.

Depart Wednesday 11.00 am, Heathrow terminal 4
British Airways BA 112 to John F Kennedy
Arrive New York 12.00 midday local time
Flight time is about 7 hours

Accommodation
Hotel La Plaza, 42nd Street

Schedule
Wednesday
12.00 Pat Kelly will meet you and take you to your hotel
7.00 Cocktail party at the Continental Hotel
8.30 Supper at Pat's home

Thursday
9.00 Trade fair all morning
2.00 Meeting clients all afternoon
6.00 Evening free – sight-seeing? Look up some friends?

Friday
9.00 Tour round new offices in New York in the morning
1.00 Meet new sales staff over lunch
3.00 Rest of day free

Saturday *Return home*
Depart 9.15 am John F Kennedy
British Airways BA 332 to Heathrow
Arrive Heathrow 7.00 pm local time

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Role D Pat Kelly

Your name is Pat Kelly.
You are the United States representative for a multi-national company based in London. You are in New York.

Today is Monday. On Wednesday, an English colleague of yours, Alex Manning, is coming out from London to New York for a few days. You have planned the trip and sent him/her a copy of the schedule. Since then, a few things have changed.

Here is the final schedule. Your boss is going to talk to you to check that all the arrangements have been made.

Schedule for Alex Manning
Depart Wednesday 11.00 am, Heathrow terminal 4
British Airways BA 112 to Newark Airport
Arrive New York 12.00 midday New York time
Flight time is about 7 hours

Accommodation
Hotel La Plaza, 42nd Street

Wednesday
12.00 Alex gets taxi to the hotel. (Pat was going to meet Alex but this is no longer possible)
7.00 Cocktail party at the Continental Hotel
8.30 Supper at Pat's house

Thursday
9.00 Trade fair all morning
2.00 Drive to Washington DC to inspect a new machine, and stay overnight

Friday
9.00 Drive back to New York
1.00 Meet sales staff in new office over lunch
3.00 Rest of the day free

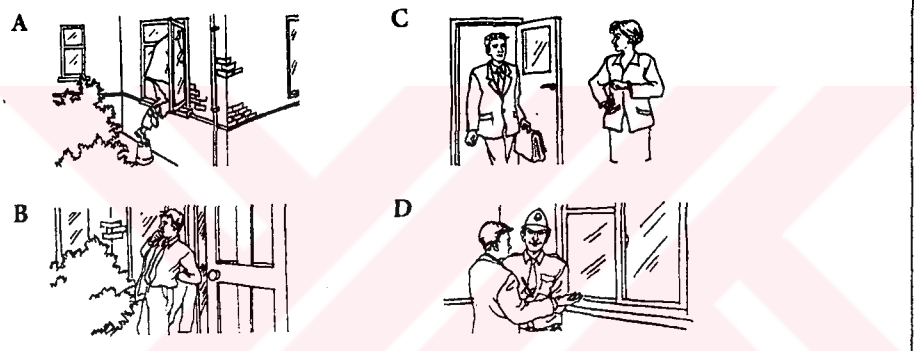
Saturday *Return home*
Depart 8.15 am John F Kennedy
British Airways BA 332 to Heathrow
Arrive Heathrow 6.00 pm London time

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NOTE: you may make photocopies of these cards for classroom use (but please note that copyright law does not normally permit multiple copying of published material).

6.2.9.3.5. Getting Events in the Right Order

The following activity can be used in listening class in order to test the prediction abilities and the understanding the gist of a story. of the learners. In this activity, first students are asked to look at the 4 pictures. They are given a chance, in pairs or groups; to say what they think is happening in each picture. The teacher will not confirm that they are going to listen to a tape and that they should put the pictures in the correct chronological order (which is not the same as the order of what they hear). *(From Harmer, 2001:234)*



Anna: Good morning Stuart. What time do you call this?
Stuart: Oh dear. Yes, sorry I'm late.
Anna: Well? What happened to you?
Stuart: I woke up late, I'm afraid. I didn't hear the alarm.
Anna: Were you out late last night?
Stuart: Yes. I'm afraid I was.
Anna: So what happened?
Stuart: Well, when I saw the time I jumped out of bed, had a quick shower, and ran out of the house. But then, when I got to the car I realised I'd forgotten my keys.
Anna: Oh really!
Stuart: But the door to my house was shut.
Anna: What did you do?
Stuart: I ran round to the garden at the back and climbed in through the window.
Anna: And?
Stuart: Well someone saw me and called the police.
Anna: What happened then?
Stuart: Well, I told them it was my house and at first they wouldn't believe me. It took a long time!
Anna: I can imagine.
Stuart: And you see that's why I'm late!

6.2.9.3.6. Information Gap Exercises

In this type activity one student has some information and the other student has to find it out by asking questions or one student has some information and tells it to the other student or both students have different information and they tell each other. Here are two different exercises taken from *Doff, 1990:215-216.*

6.2.9.3.6.1. Activity 1

Students sit in pairs. In each pair, Student X has an empty grid and Student Y has the text which s/he does not show to Student X. Student X tries to complete the grid by asking questions, e.g. *What's he going to do tomorrow afternoon ?*

STUDENT X

This evening	
Tomorrow morning	
Tomorrow afternoon	
Tomorrow evening	

STUDENT Y

Tonight Kim is going to stay at home because he wants to write a letter to a friend. Tomorrow morning he has classes as usual at college but he has the afternoon free, so he's going to help his father repair the roof on their house. In the evening he's been invited out to a party.

6.2.9.3.6.2. Activity 2

Students sit in pairs . In each pair, Student X is a customer and has a shopping list. Student Y is a shop assistant and has a list of items in the shop and their prices. They do not look at each other's list. Student X tries to buy the things on his / her list. e.g.

A: Have you got any tea ?

B: Yes, I have

A: How much does it cost?

B: 50 p a packet

STUDENT X	STUDENT Y
Shopping list	You sell
2 packets tea	Tea 50p a packet
1 kilo sugar	Sugar 30p a kilo
1 can orange juice	Rice 20p a kilo
1 kilo beans	Orange juice 25p a can
1 kilo oranges	

6.2.9.3.6.3. Activity 3: Exchanging Personal Information

One of the most interesting and easiest forms of communicative activity in the classroom is for students to tell each other about their own lives, interests, experiences, etc. When students talk about themselves there is a natural *information gap* . In this activity students work in pairs by asking their partners questions about his / her daily routine. For example, here is a sample grid:

get up ?	
breakfast?	
school?	
lunch?	
evening?	
study?	
go out ?	

6.2.9.4. Teaching Reading

Reading, like listening, is a predominantly receptive skill, while speaking and writing are productive skills, which demand not only the ability to recognize the different language elements, but also to combine them in a creative way in order to produce new speech acts or written texts. For this reason, students can usually deal with a higher level of language in receptive skills than in productive ones; the learners can process and understand language that is above their own level of production, because in the receptive skills they do not need to encode the language into speech or writing, but rather to interact with the text in order to understand the message, which seems possible even where the text contains language the students are not themselves able to produce. People usually read for one of these two main reasons: for pleasure, as in the case of novels, short stories, poems, etc.; or for information? to find out something (for instance who invented the telephone), or to do something with that information (for example, to operate a new household gadget).Understanding a written text means extracting the required information from it as efficiently as possible. To do so readers employ a number of skills, and their success at understanding the content of what they read depends to a large extent on their expertise in these specialist skills. So, here we handle some exercises which may be used in the Communicative Approach classes.

6.2.9.4.1. Task 1

The text includes different types of activities such as thinking ahead, reading thoroughly, missing sentences, discussion, multiple choice comprehension questions, vocabulary test, and reading between the lines. First , teacher asks students related to the passage they will read. For example, *How many different words do you know for sleep in English? How many hours do you sleep a day?*, etc. Then, s/he wants students to

read the text through quickly and says, *"Don't worry about the missing sentences. Do you think the text comes from an encyclopedia, a scientific journal, a magazine, or a school textbook? Give reasons for your choice."*

1 Think ahead — How many different words do you know for *sleep* in English?

2 Reading — Read the text through quickly. Don't worry about the missing sentences. Do you think the text comes from an encyclopaedia, a scientific journal, a magazine, or a school textbook? Give a reason for your choice.



Kip, nap, doze, forty winks, shut-eye and snooze are all expressions we use to describe that mysterious state, sleep. We all do it, we can't get by without it and by the time we reach old age most of us have spent 20 years sleeping. [1]

Most scientists reckon that by resting our bodies, we allow time for essential maintenance work to be done. Any damage that there is can be put right more quickly if energy isn't being used up doing other things. [2] And quite a few illnesses make us feel drowsy so our body can get on with curing us.

Sleep is controlled by certain chemicals. [3] We can control the effects of these chemicals to some extent. Caffeine helps to keep us awake while alcohol and some medicines make us sleepy.

By using electrodes, scientists are able to study what goes on in people's heads while they sleep. [4] The heart beats more slowly and our breathing becomes shallow. After about 90 minutes our eyes start to twitch and we go into what is called REM sleep. REM stands for Rapid Eye Movement, and it's a sign that we've started to dream.

You have dreams every night, even if you don't remember them. [5] One is that it gives the brain a chance to sort out the day's activities, filing everything away in the right place. Another is that the brain gets bored while we're asleep and organizes its own entertainment – a sort of late-night cinema!

A lot of people say they have to have eight hours' sleep every night while others seem to manage on a lot less. One thing's for sure, we all need some sleep. [6] An American disc-jockey, who stayed awake for 200 hours to raise money for charity, thought things were bursting into flames all around him after 120 hours without sleep. He survived the ordeal but was depressed for three months afterwards.

Humans are unusual in the way they sleep. Most animals have a sleep during the day and tests have shown that a siesta can be beneficial for us too. It's even been recommended that airline pilots should have a nap during long flights. [7]

So next time you nod off after Sunday lunch in front of the telly, don't feel embarrassed about it. Science, after all, is on your side.

(This text was taken from New First Certificate Master Class ; Student's Book, 2002:158 .)

6.2.9.4.2. Comprehension Exercises from the Text

A- Choose from the missing sentences **A-H** the one which best fits each gap **1-7**. There is one extra sentence, which you do not need to use.

A- These build up during the day, eventually reaching levels that make us tired.

B- There are all sorts of theories about why we dream.

C- Going without it can have some very strange effects.

D- Dreams can have very frightening results indeed.

E- Injured animals certainly spend more time asleep than usual while their wounds are healing.

F- That way they are more alert for the tricky business of landing.

G- They have discovered that when we first drop off everything slows down.

H- Yet nobody knows why we do it.

6.2.9.4.2.1. Reading between the Lines

1- What bed-time drinks would you not recommend for someone who had problems getting to sleep?
2- What age group might be embarrassed about "nodding off in front of the telly"? Why ?

6.2.9.4.2.2. Points of View

Instruction: What's the longest you have gone without sleep? What was the reason? How did you feel?

6.2.9.4.2.3. Vocabulary

Instruction: Choose the best meaning for each of the words or phrases in italics from the text.

1- Yet nobody knows why we do it.

a) and *b) but* *c) so*

2- We can control the effects to some extent.

a) occasionally *b) partially* *c) totally*

3- He survived the ordeal.

a) He got through a difficult experience.

b) He made a lot of money for charity.

c) He didn't suffer any after-effects.

4- That way they are more alert..

a) calm and relaxed *b) cool and prepared* *c) awake and ready*

5- ..... the tricky business of landing.

a) boring job *b) exciting prospect* *c) difficult task*

6.2.9.5. Teaching Writing

Of the four basic language skills, writing is usually the last to be taught and is normally considered a kind of reinforcement and extension of the other skills that is listening, speaking and reading. Since writing is an activity which can be carried out individually, without the help or assistance of the teacher, little time should be devoted in class to practicing this skill. Class time should be spent primarily teaching the oral skills or listening and speaking, because most students do not normally have the opportunity to hear or speak English outside the classroom. There are some activities, however, which should be done in class. These include dictations and cloze exercises, for example. Dictations, because they are difficult to do at home, even with the help of a cassette recorder, and also because it is an activity which requires immediate correction and

feedback. Cloze exercises, on the other hand, can be done in pairs or in groups, and offer a good opportunity for the students to share their knowledge and engage in useful discussions about the appropriateness of different alternatives for a particular blank.

6.2.9.5.1. Scrambled Sentences

Students are given a passage / a text in which the sentences are in scrambled order. This may be a passage they have worked with or one they have not seen before. They are told to unscramble the sentences so that the sentences are restored to their original order. In addition to texts, dialogs may also be used. Here are some examples. All texts were taken from Demirezen, 1993: 47-48.

(1) Outside the house, one should go low ground and not get under the trees. (2) There are two types of safest places in ace of an electric storm or lightening. (3) Also one should stay out of water and away from metal in a garden (4) Especially, people should turn off all of the lights. (5) Inside a house people should avoid open doorways and windows and not touch wires or metal things. (6) Then, people should take precautions not only inside the houses but also outside the houses in an electric storm or lightening.

(1) Surface waves travel along the Earth's surface and body waves travel through the earth. (2) Then, seismographs can be used to save human lives since they can warn people before the earthquake happen. (3) Vibrations are two general types: surface waves and body waves. (4) The vibrations produced by earthquakes are discovered, recorded and measured by instruments called seismographs. (5) Surface waves usually have the strongest vibrations and produce most of the damage done by earthquakes.

(1) The desert locust occurs in Northern Africa, Arabic peninsula and eastwards as far as India. (2) Locusts inhabit the warmer parts of the world. (3) The red locust, however, is confined to central and Southern Africa. (4) Three most suitable kinds are the desert locust, the migratory locust and the red locust. (5) The migratory locust has an even wider distribution: it lives in a huge area of the world including Southern Europe, West Africa, Southern Asia, China, Japan, and the Philippines.

6.2.9.5.2. Gap Filling

Students are given a text with some blanks to be filled. This activity looks like a kind of cloze test. Here are some examples:

6.2.9.5.2.1. Complete the composition by choosing the best answer.

Some countries still have the death penalty .....(1) it no longer exists in Britain. .....(2), after a particularly violent murder , British people sometimes call for it to be brought back. .....(3) my opinion, the death penalty cannot be defended for a number of reasons.
.....(4) and the most important reason is that one can never be entirely certain that the accused person is guilty. In the .....(5), people have been sentenced to death and later it is discovered that they were completely innocent.
It is often .....(6) that the death penalty prevents crime and that the risk of death acts as a deterrent . .....(7) , many serious crimes are caused by a sudden and very powerful emotion. In these cases, the individual is not thinking sensibly and does not stop to consider the risk.
One final .....(8) against the death penalty is that it sets a bad example. The laws of society should reflect its values. If it is wrong for one individual to murder another, ...(9) it is also wrong for the state to execute an individual.
.....(10) , I believe the death penalty cannot be defended. There are other ways of punishing criminals and these ways should always be tried.

1- a) and	b) despite	c) although	d) moreover
2- a) In addition	b) Also	c) Nevertheless	d) In contrast
3- a) In	b) For	c) About	d) With
4- a) Firstly	b) The first	c) The one	d) Initially
5- a) future	b) present	c) beginning	d) past

6- a) told	b) heard	c) spoken	d) suggested
7- a) Therefore	b) However	c) Moreover	d) Despite
8- a) reason	b) view	c) argument	d) opinion
9- a) then	b) and	c) as	d) too
10- a) In contrast	b) To sum up	c) At last	d) Fourthly

6.2.9.5.2.2. Activity 2 :

Instruction: Read the following letter of complaint and fill in the blanks with a suitable word by selecting from the following list.

apparently to make matters worse personally naturally obviously to my surprise to be honest unfortunately fortunately clearly

Personal Letter

43 Wimbledon Ave.
Wendover
Bucks HW3 5TQ
23rd March 1996

The Manager
Plum Tree restaurant
Hampstead Court
Wendover
Bucks

Dear Sir,

I am writing to complain about the meal we had at your restaurant last Saturday. It was, ...(1) , not what I expect from a restaurant with your reputation. We arrived at 7:30, having booked a table earlier by phone. .....(2) , the head waiter had no knowledge of our booking. .....(3), or perhaps .....(4), the restaurant was not full and we were able to stay.

When we had ordered our meal, the waiter told us there would be a short delay. It was then 7:45. We sat and waited for our first course until 8:45. .....(5) , I feel that an hour is too long to wait for one's first course .....(6) you do not.

Moving on to the food, the menu had stated that the soup was homemade, but it .....(7) came from a tin. We also ordered fresh prawns but these were .....(8) not fresh as they were still frozen in the middle .....(9), when we tried to complain the staff seemed to take interest at all.

.....(10) I do not feel that the service or the food was worth the 58 pounds that we had to pay. I am therefore enclosing of a copy of the bill and I would be grateful if you would send me a complete refund as soon as possible.

Yours faithfully,
Allan Smith (Mrs.)

6.2.9.5.2.3. Activity 3:

Instruction: Betty's neighbor, an old man, has come to her flat with his old dog though they live in the same apartment building. They are sitting in the living room now. Here is the conversation between them. Try to complete the dialog

Betty : Excuse me, but I'm afraid I don't know your name.
Man : Oh, it's Pools. Terry Pools.
Betty : Oh, well, Mr.Pools. .....?
Man : Oh, I'm sorry. I didn't know it bothered you. I'll put it out.
Betty: .....
Man : Yes, it does to be frank.
Betty : .....
I'm very careful about it.
Man : Well, you may not think it is. But I can still hear it downstairs. The ceiling isn't very thick, you know. I can hear almost every note. Really, I am not exaggerating.
Bett : .....?
Man : That's very kind of you. I ... I hope you're not offended, by telling you about it, I mean.
Betty: .....
Man : Good. I wouldn't complain about it if it were only me. But it disturbs Bruno, too. It really seems to upset him.
Betty : .....?
Man : My dog, of course. Who do you think I meant?
Betty: .....?
Man : Yes. Perhaps he just doesn't like classical music. That is what you play up here in the evenings, isn't it?
Betty : .....
Man: I thought so. Now if it were rock'n roll, he wouldn't mind so much. He really likes rock'n roll. Particularly Elvis Presley. Excuse me.

6.2.9.5.2.4. Activity 4:

Instruction: Make all necessary changes and additions to make up a complete letter from the following sets of words and phrases. The letter should be a formal one.

1- *Bootle, Liverpool, L20 6HB , Orchard Road*
2- *The Manger, Exeter, The Memorial Hospital, High Street, Devon, EX1 7PZ*
3- *April, 1996 , 18*

Dear Sir.

4- I write / you / in regard / article / I see / yesterday's newspaper
5- Two months ago / I be / your hospital / stomach operation
6- The day after / operation / I be examined / young doctor / say / his name be Dr. Simon
7- I be pain / he give me / an injection
8- Although his manner / very pleasant / there be / strange / him
9- Yesterday I read / article / newspaper / fake doctor / practice / your hospital
10- I be certain / this doctor / the young man / give me / injection / the same person
11- How / possible / such people / avoid detection?
12- I hope / future / you be able / prevent such things / happen / your hospital

Yours truly,
Harry J. Simpson

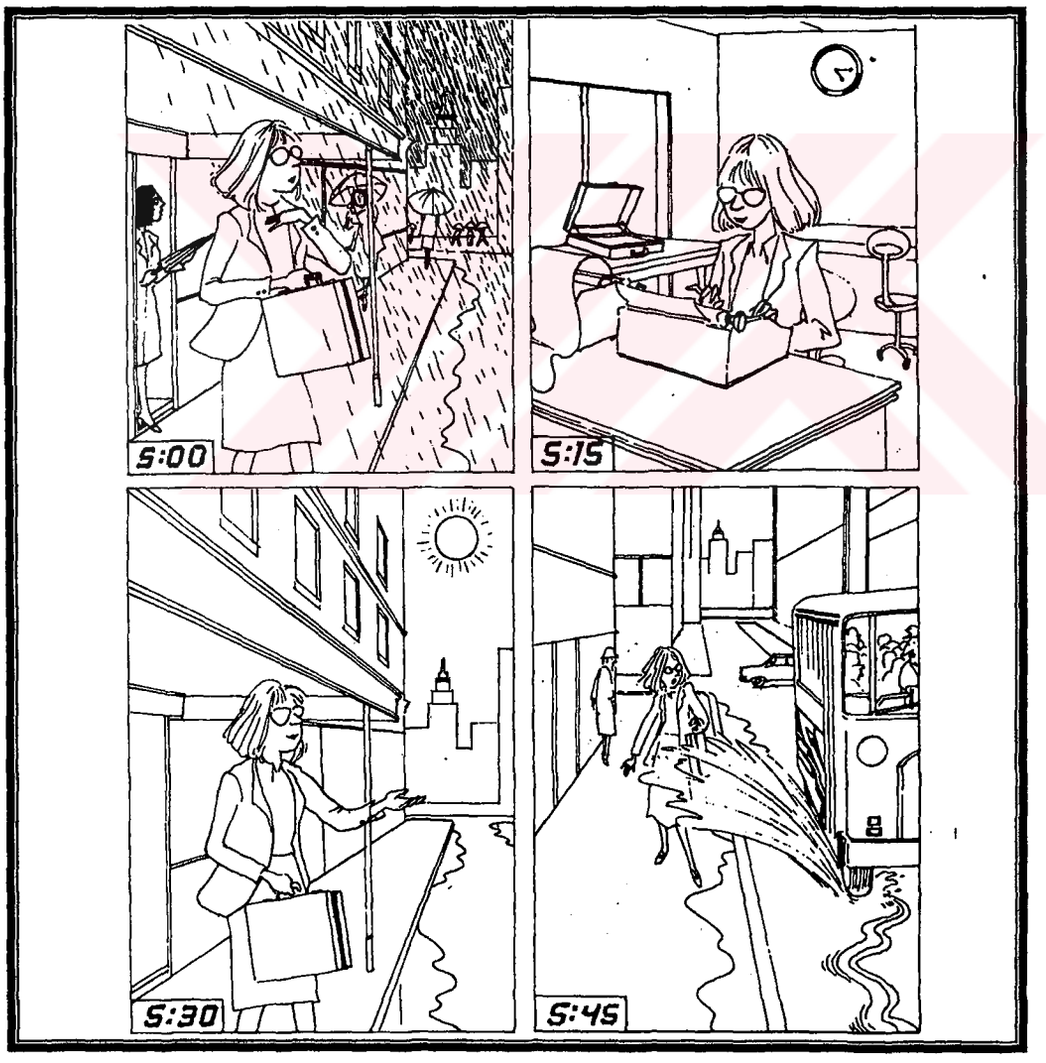
6.2.9.5.3. Picture Sets

Pairs of pictures in sequence provide for a variety of guided and free writing activities. A picture sequence provides the subject matter for writing narrative and speculating about the story beyond the pictures in the

strip. A set of parallel pictures provides material that offers guidance on lexis, sentence structures, formation of grammatical rules, organization. Here are some examples:

6.2.9.5.3.1. Task 1:

Students are asked to write a list of sentences about a picture sequence frame by frame. Then in small groups they work on combining or linking the sentences to make continuous prose. *(From Techniques in Teaching Writing, 1983:37)*



6.2.9.5.3.2. Task 2:

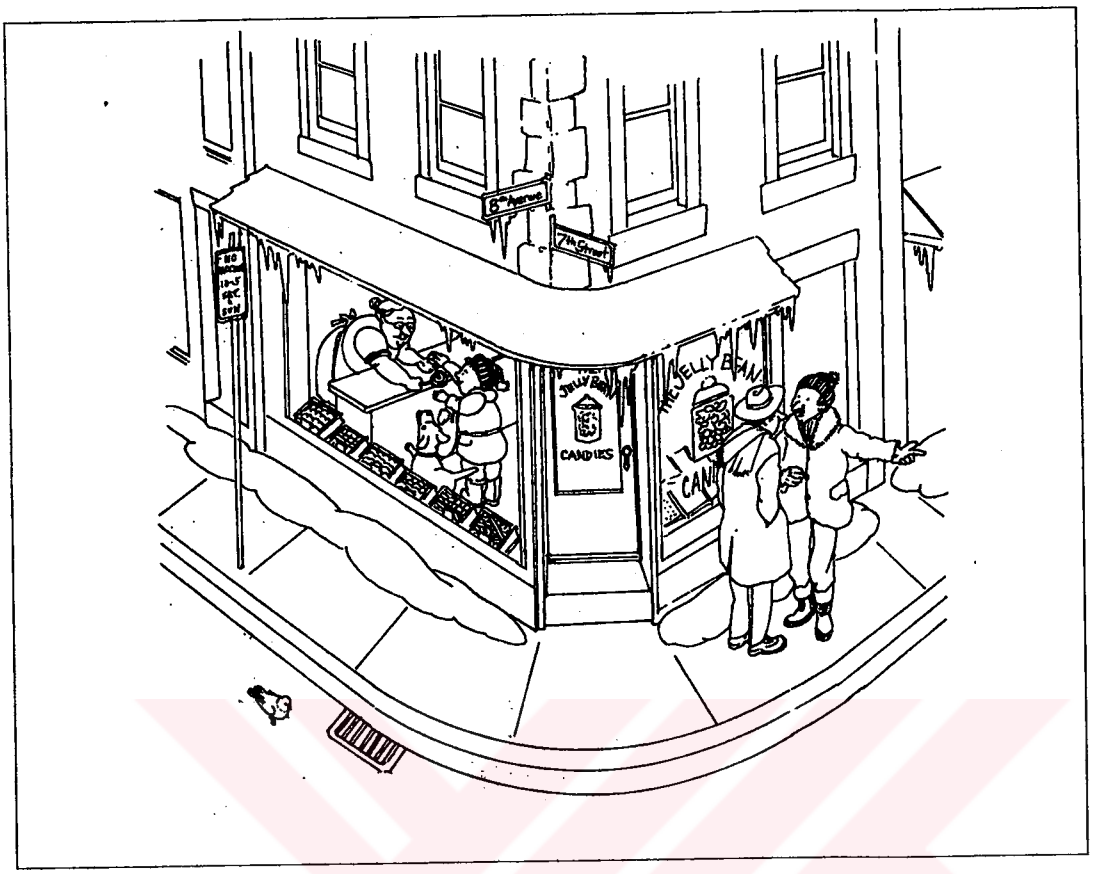
The whole class works with the picture sequence, but with the pictures out of order. In small groups, the students discuss which order is correct for the pictures, and why. Then they write the story of the picture.

6.2.9.5.3.3. Task 3:

One group is given only two of the pictures in the sequence while another group receives the other two. The groups discuss and write what they think the four-picture sequence shows. They exchange papers and read each other's. Only then they show each other their two pictures.

6.2.9.5.3.4. Task 4:

A more advanced class can use the following picture but the students discuss the first picture and write their own description of it, either in groups or as a whole class activity. They read their descriptions aloud and discuss them. Then the students write about the parallel picture using their own writing as a model.



6.2.9.5.4. Problem Solving Activity

In this type of writing students are given some information about an issue and asked to write a paragraph (or more than one paragraph) discussing the problematic issue on the topic. Here is an example: *(From Writing Task I, 1998:188)*

Study the information and write an essay of one or two paragraphs discussing the problem of internal migration into urban areas in Turkey and the solutions.

problem

internal migration into urban areas in Turkey: too many internal migrants from farms and rural areas in big cities, especially in İstanbul and Ankara

causes

in rural areas

not enough job opportunities for people

too little farmland per head of population

consequences

in big cities

rising unemployment rate

sharp increase in number of people working without social security or insurance

SOLUTION 1: build small- and medium-sized manufacturing plants in rural areas	
+	−
employment rates in rural areas become higher ↓ increase rural income	such plants pay lower wages than those found in large cities expensive to build

SOLUTION 2: introduce new law banning internal migration into urban areas	
+	−
stop internal migration completely in short time	difficult to enforce such a law against human rights

6.2.9.5.5. Story Telling

Teacher reads aloud a story but stops at the point where the reader is likely want to know how it continues. Students continue the story-writing. For example,

One hot Tuesday in the middle of August, Sally didn't go to work. She wanted to be alone. She took a train to the seashore. She walked slowly along the beach until she was far away from the crowds, the ice cream sellers, and the lifeguards. Then she changed her clothes and ran into the cool water. She swam out a long way, enjoying the hot sun and the cool water. Then she saw .....

(Note: Students can read each other's continuations and some read their aloud to the whole class. Teacher writes one, too, and reads it aloud)

In sum, the Communicative Approach encourages learners to use the target language in real life situations. Students are provided with a meaningful learning through the use of authentic materials, role-plays, language games, picture strip stories. They are motivated to use the second language in groups in the classroom activities. Moreover, teachers in the Communicative Approach can manage to control over the class by clear explanations before the activities. The teacher acts as an advisor and leads the learners to communicate in the target language by answering their questions and observing their performance in the classroom. Besides, students are given an opportunity to learn about cultural values of the target language while watching a live television broadcast, or listening to a live radio broadcast. They can also observe the body languages, gestures of the native speakers while watching a film on video. On the other hand, the Communicative Approach ignores the linguistic competence, which leads students to learn the functions of the target language without knowing where and how structures of the second language are used. Moreover, they are not given the opportunity to practice pronunciation of words and intonation patterns in sentences in the target language. Besides, teachers may get difficulty in classroom management, if we take the classroom size of state schools into consideration. In this sense, the Communicative Approach fails to make

learners of English communicatively competent, as a student may not know what to say in a certain situation, mispronounce a word, or the teacher may not have the control over the classroom in the group activities.

6.3. THE FUNCTIONAL-NOTIONAL APPROACH

"Changing educational realities in Europe gave way to searches for new approaches in language teaching. With the increased interdependence of European countries came the need for greater efforts to teach the major languages of the European Common Market. In trying to achieve this, people realized that the structural view of language was not sufficient on its own to account for how language is used as a means of communication and thus, the notional-functional view of language gained importance." (Keskil 2000:63). This approach was developed in the early period of the 70s in Europe by some group of scholars, giving special emphasis to teaching vocabulary. As Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983: 10 -11) states it arose primarily out of work commissioned by *the Council of Europe*, a body which was founded in 1949 and which now includes all Western European countries. *The Council for Cultural Co-operation* of *the Council of Europe* became particularly interested, in the 1960s, in both language teaching and what it called *permanent education*. Following a seminar in Switzerland in 1971, a group of experts was set up which decided that the foreign language needs of adult Europeans should be approached through three initial investigations:

1- to break down the global concept of language into units and subunits based on analysis of particular groups of adult learners, in terms of the communicative situations in which they are characteristically involved. This analysis should lead to a precise articulation of the notion of

common core with specialist extensions at different proficiency levels,

2- to set up on the basis of this analysis an operational specification for learning objectives,

3- to formulate in consultation with the Steering group on Educational Technology of the Council of Eorupe, a meta-system defining the structure of a multi-media learning system to achieve these objectives in terms of the unit / credit concepts

Language should, then, be broken down into appropriate units for acquisition and credits should be awarded for mastery of units towards necessary qualifications in linguistic proficiency. Further work by the *Council of Europe* experts, combined with interest and discussion outside commentors, has led to an identifiable position within the general movement towards communicative teaching of the 1970s.

The Functional-Notional Approach springs from an attempt to classify exactly what aspects of a language have been mastered by a particular student. Thus, the early work in this area was concerned with suitable bases for such a classification. It was suggested that language was much more appropriately classified in terms of what people wanted to do with the language (functions) or in terms of what meanings people wanted to convey (notions) than in terms of the grammatical items as in traditional language teaching models. (Finocchiaro & Brumfit , 1983 : 12) It was also argued that we all understand that we use language to apologize, greet, persuade, recommend, or praise, and we all understand that we use language to express certain meanings, time or spatial relations, for example, but we do not all agree that we use language to exemplify grammatical categories invented by linguists.

A Functional-Notional Approach to language learning places a major emphasis on the communicative purpose(s) of a speech act. It focuses on what to do or what they want to accomplish through speech. Here are some examples of the functions of language which all human beings wish to express at one time or other: *Do they want to introduce people to each other? Do they want to invite someone to their home ? Do they want to talk about a picture, a book, a film, or something in the room they are in? , etc.* According to the Functional-Notional Approach , functions such as *inviting* ones using the statements like *" I invite "* or *" I'd like to invite "* sometimes might not make the speaker's message clear. The reason for this is the lack of *notions*. That is to say, functional language should also include specific and general notions. Specific notions are the structural and vocabulary items categorized under nouns, pronouns, verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, adjectives, and adverbs while general notions relate to the universal linguistic phenomena such as time, space, quantity, and deixis. Other specific notions include travel, health and welfare, education, shopping, services and free time (Wilkins, 1976: 13).

In short, as Nunan (1993 : 34) states functions may be described as the communicative purposes for which we use language, while notions are the conceptual meanings (objects, entities, states of affairs , logical relationships, and so on) through language. That is, curricula have been organized around such functions as identifying, reporting, denying, accepting, declining, asking permission, apologizing, etc.

6.3.1. Principles and Theory of Language and Learning

Any language teaching approach generally reflects the principles its proponents consider valid within linguistic, psychological, sociological and educational theories. Also the Functional-Notional Approach depends upon some theoretical bases. These theoretical bases mainly consist of

sociolinguistic considerations, psycholinguistic components, linguistics, psychological bases and educational principles. In this approach in terms of sociolinguistic considerations the first and the primary focus is given to the communicative purposes and also to the speech acts. Since a speech act – communication – takes place in definite but varied sociolinguistic situations, both linguistic and extralinguistic factors have been taken into consideration. Therefore, this approach tries to emphasize the social roles and the psychological attitudes of the participants toward each other in a conversation such as employer-employee, teacher-pupil, doctor-patient, parent-child, etc.

In terms of sociolinguistic considerations, a situation may affect variations of language such as the use of dialects, the formality, or informality of the language and the mode of expression. Situation includes the following elements: the persons taking part in the speech act, the place where the conversation occurs, the time the speech act is taking place, the topic or activity that is being discussed. Finocchiaro (1983: 65-66) has placed the functional categories under five headings as noted below *personal, interpersonal, directive, referential,* and *imaginative. Personal categories* include clarifying or arranging one's ideas; expressing one's thoughts or feelings: love, joy, pleasure, happiness, surprise, likes, satisfaction, dislikes, disappointment, distress, pain, anger, anguish, fear, anxiety, sorrow, frustration, annoyance at missed opportunities, moral, intellectual and social concerns; and the everyday feelings of hunger, thirst, fatigue, sleepiness, cold, or warmth.

Interpersonal categories, on the other hand, enable us to establish and maintain desirable social and working relationships such as greetings and leave takings , introducing people to others , identifying oneself to others , expressing joy at another's success, expressing concern for other people's welfare ,extending and accepting invitations , refusing invitations politely or making alternative arrangements , making appointments for

meetings , breaking appointments politely and arranging another mutually convenient time ,apologizing , changing an embarrassing subject , offering food or drinks and accepting or declining politely , making promises and committing oneself to some action , making excuses , and so on.

Directive ones attempt to influence the actions of others; accepting or refusing direction. For example, making suggestions in which the speaker is included, refusing to accept a suggestion or a request but offering an alternative, requesting, and granting permission, giving and responding to instructions, discouraging someone from pursuing a course of action, etc. Referential categories talk or report about things, actions, events, or people in the environment in the past or in the future; talking *about* language (what is termed the meta-linguistic function which means to talk or report about things, actions, events, or people in the environment in the past or in the future. Imaginative categories consist of discussions involving elements of creativity and artistic expression such as discussing a poem, a story, a piece of music, a play, a painting, a film, a TV program, etc.

Psycholinguistic components, which are the primary interest to teachers and curriculum writers, are the other factors that help the occurrence of the theoretical bases of the Functional-Notional Approach. The functional-notional curriculum of the approach has taken the basic needs of all human beings since it has been influenced humanistic approaches. It makes provision for teaching the appropriate language needed at the five levels of human needs, which are the threshold level, basic, general competency, advanced and professional levels recommended by the Council of Europe. The curriculum is self-motivating since it is specifically designed to serve the social, cultural, or vocational needs of the learners.

In terms of linguistics, it can be said that the Functional-Notional Approach will help the learner at each level acquire a reasonable, basic knowledge of the phonological, grammatical and lexical subsystems of the language as well as the ability to use these in actual communication. A variety of learning activities will enable students to encode or decode a message either oral or written. On the other hand, the Functional-Notional Approach makes use of many of the basic principles of the psychological sciences. Among these the following find applications in both the linguistic and cultural content and the methodology:

a- *learning generally results when unit and program content and activities are related to the needs and experiences of the learners,*

b- *learning is enhanced when presentation and practice of the language items are made meaningful through their use in real life situations,*

c- *transfer of learning is not always automatic ; through many examples and learning tasks students can be helped to recognize the shared elements of communicative expressions of notions,*

d- *activities in the classroom should take into consideration the fact that all individuals have different learning styles and different rates of learning.*

Finally, educational principles underlie the construction of an functional-notional curriculum. The following are some characteristics of the Functional-Notional Approach:

a- *a spiral or cyclical approach is highly recommended,*

b- *the curriculum is divided into units or modules which are in turn divided into teaching lessons,*

c- *in this approach the same sociocultural theme, structural category or language function is studied,*

d- the same function, for example apologizing , may be presented in different situations in two or more successive units,

e- the grammar and vocabulary to be taught in each unit result from the integration of function and situation.

Here, some principles of the Functional-Notional Approach will be handled since there are some cogent reasons for the wide interest engendered by this innovative approach to language learning and teaching.

1- It sets realistic learning tasks in which full-class or individualized instruction may be utilized.
2- It provides for the teaching of everyday, real-world language use in a variety of sociocultural situations in which features of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and culture are selected and graded according to their priority in actual communication.
3- Meaning is paramount.
4- Dialogs, if used, center around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.
5- The act of communication, even at elementary levels, will be intrinsically motivating simply because it expresses basic, universal communicative functions of language.
6- It enables teachers to exploit sound psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, linguistic and educational principles.
7- It recognizes that while the language used in any speech act should be based on the situation or setting in which it occurs and be grammatically and semantically appropriate.
8- Contextualization is a basic premise ; language learning is learning to communicate
9- Any device which helps the learners is accepted – varying according to their age, interest, etc. Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.

10-The emphasis is on breaking down the global concept of language into units of analysis in terms of communicative situations in which they are used.

11-Communicative competence is the desired goal to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately.

12-It leads us to emphasize the need for numerous, varied, receptive activities before rushing learners into premature performance.

13-It provides for the widespread promotion of foreign language learning at the very moment, so reading and writing can be started from the first day if desired.

14-Fluent and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.

15-The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.

16-Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language. That is, students motivation is primary importance in acquisition of knowledge and skills.

17-Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function or meaning which maintains interest.

So, this approach is intended to focus on learners' needs rather than on some objectives, e.g. language instruction becomes more learner-centered than it used to be. That is to say, the merits of this approach can be summarized as : the focus is on using the language for a purpose; it considers the basic needs of the learners; it considers a different rhythm or pace of learning as well as a different mode or strategy for acquiring knowledge; the priority is on teaching communicative expressions, structures, topics, and notions; the practice is meaningful through the use of language in real life situations; it teaches the basic knowledge, and native language may be used when necessary and whenever feasible.

6.3.2. Syllabus

As it mentioned above Wilkins in 1976 proposed functional-notional syllabus to meet the call for a communicative syllabus raised by the Council of Europe, a regional organization for cultural and educational cooperation. The Council was looking for a permanent system in adult language teaching which the existing syllabi – including traditional, structural, topical and situational – could not offer. Functions are purposes for which people use the language, a concept similar to speech acts. Greeting, apologizing, inviting, promising, complaining and persuading are examples of functions. Notions, on the other hand, refer to meaning elements which are often placed under two headings: specific and general as mentioned earlier.

Notions and functions allow the syllabus to adopt a spiral or cyclical rather than a hierarchical approach in the presentation of the language. This means that in a functional-notional syllabus the material studied previously is recalled, reviewed, and elaborated in greater depth in consecutive levels. In this way the syllabus starts with a number of frequent functions expressed through easy notions which will gradually become more complicated. Less frequent functions are also introduced in later stages. As Wilkins (1976: 18) states the grammatical syllabus seeks to teach the language by taking the learner progressively through the forms of the target language, but the notional syllabus is in contrast with it since it takes the desired communicative capacity as the starting point. So, a notional syllabus would include not only elements of grammar and lexis but also specify the topics, notions, and concepts the learners need to communicate.

Although the functional-notional syllabus is a model for organizing a syllabus to teaching, it has been recommended in recent years as a means of placing increased emphasis in the classroom on communication

rather than on grammatical structures. In this sense, its influence has been indirect, but the basic thrust toward communication has been positive in an era when the focus has been shifting toward language use as opposed to language usage. The principal direct influence has been on the development of language courses for specific purposes such as commerce, medicine, law, engineering, science and etc.

Wilkins considers the situational, notional and functional syllabuses as analytic approach. So here content is considered more important than the form. A functional-notional syllabus consists of the selection, grading and arrangement of language pieces. A functional-notional syllabus provides for the implicit and explicit learning of culture and language varieties through a multi-media approach and an active methodology based on creative use of the language. Here, some benefits of the Functional-Notional syllabus according to Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:21):

1- It sets a realistic learning task
2- It provides for the teaching of every day, real world language
3- Communication will be intrinsically motivating because it expresses basic communicative functions,
4- It enables teachers to exploit sound psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, linguistic and educational principles,
5- It can develop naturally from existing teaching methodology,
6- It allows for the development of flexible, modular courses,
7- It recognizes that the speaker must have a real purpose for speaking, and something
8- It provides for the widespread promotion of foreign language courses

In short, it can be said that functional syllabus that include the functions such as identifying, reporting, correcting, describing , etc. are the

organizing principle – sequenced by some sense of chronology or usefulness of each function (*structural and situational sequences may be in background*) while notional syllabus that include categories called notions such as duration, quantity, location ,etc. are the basis of organization – sequenced by some sense of chronology or usefulness of each notion (*structural and situational sequences may be in background*) (Pakkan, 1997 : 4)

6.3.3. Learner and Teacher Roles

Teachers should provide specific sessions when correction of widely occurring errors will be made, and above all – teachers must ensure that good spoken and written models of the target language are provided. They should explain to the students why they will benefit from not being corrected all the time because fluency is important in the Functional-Notional Approach. They should broaden the experiences of the learners through listening, reading, and other visual, acoustic or tactile activities. To enrich their vocabulary teachers should include dialogs and other oral or written materials to the classrooms.

Teachers help learners in the Functional-Notional Approach in any way that motivates them to work with the language. They offer both controlled and guided activities leading to fluency, accuracy and habit formation, for example, the ability to move lips and tongue quickly in forming a sound or to use the present perfect tense instead of the simple past many times. Teachers also should introduce linguistic material which has been presented under one function within a specific sociocultural situation in a totally different one so that learners become aware of the fact that language makes unlimited use of limited means.

In terms of students the Functional-Notional Approach puts forward the following concepts. First of all, students are expected to interact with people through pair and group work or in their writings. Since the

curriculum of the Functional-Notional Approach is centrally based on students' needs and purposes, students must have the opportunity to use the language for purposes which the teacher may not have anticipated and in ways that the teacher may not expect. That is, the tremendous merit of the Functional-Notional Approach to learning is the fact that the students and their communicative purposes are at the very core of the teaching program.

Students should become active participants in the learning process since they will undoubtedly restructure what they have taught because the Functional-Notional Approach states if the more responsibility students are given, the more they will learn. Students, on the other hand, should be helped to perceive the relationships among the elements in language, situation and culture through simple diagrams, graphics and all kinds of visuals.

6.3.4. Strong Sides

Since this approach has given a special emphasis to the authentic use of language, especially the communicative use of the vocabulary items has been taken into consideration. Here some of the strongest points are listed:

1-Functional and notional aspect of using a foreign language vocabulary item is taken into consideration. Learners' motivation is taken into account. Learners see that they are not only learning vocabulary items by memorization or rote learning, they are also using them for communicative purposes. This fact motivates the learner because they understand that what they learn have a social value. Using authentic materials in classroom made these activities more realistic.

2- Classroom activities centered more and more on simulating interactional context which led to using the language in a normal, everyday way. Daily usage of vocabulary items for communicative purposes is stressed and this makes the Notional-Functional Approach more meaningful in foreign language vocabulary teaching. The aim of this approach is to enable learners to communicative successfully in all situations without violating linguistic and social principles and without being considered awkward. The dialogues and the contextualized exercises serve to make newly learned vocabulary item use clearly like a native speaker's use of vocabulary item for certain language notions and functions. Students learn to use vocabulary items in meaningful context which makes long-term retention easier.

3- The Functional-Notional Approach considers the basic needs of the students, ranging from survival to self-realization and self-actualization. The curriculum is self-motivating. It considers a different rhyme or pace of learning as well as a different mode or strategy for acquiring knowledge. The priority is here to teach communicative expressions, structures, topics and notions. The Functional-Notional Approach teaches the basic knowledge of phonology, grammar and lexicon as well as the ability to use them in actual communication.

4- The practice is meaningful through the use of language in real life situations. Students are active participants in the learning process. The integration of function and situation is taught and function here doe not overlap the grammatical structure. Native language may be used when necessary and whenever feasible.

6.3.5. Weak Sides

Like the other approaches, the Functional-Notional Approach has also some defects. For example,

1- The major weakness of the Functional-Notional Approach is about the lack of emphasis on systematic. Vocabulary learning can be brought about successfully only when the presentation is systematic and allows for generalizations.

2- The Functional-Notional Approach does not give enough importance to the structures of the vocabulary items. This approach does not stand on strong theoretical foundations about vocabulary learning. The only emphasis is on the communicative use of foreign language vocabulary items. This lack of theoretical foundation has resulted in the lack of systematic in language content organization for teaching and learning purposes.

3-This approach forced learners to focus on communication as the major goal for vocabulary learning but this purpose cannot be carried out by using the newly learned vocabulary items in communication. Learners may use the vocabulary items in the classroom for communicative purposes but this does not guarantee that they learned these items. After the Functional-Notional Approach, there came the Communicative Approach which claimed to solve these problems.

4- Another criticism of this approach is in terms of vocabulary teaching because this approach anticipates that fluency will be emphasized over accuracy. Thus, pronunciation mistakes may be neglected as the emphasis will be on the message- which will result in fossilized mistakes in

pronunciation. On the other hand, it can be said that the syllabus of the Functional-Notional Approach may be confusing because the students in other approaches could concentrate on the forms of the language while, here, they encounter many different forms. This may be more appropriate for intermediate and advanced students who have already covered some basic grammatical syllabus rather than for beginners.

6.3.6. Contributions to ELT

The essence of the Functional-Notional Approach is the priority it gives the semantic content of the vocabulary learning. It also gives special emphasis to the social use of newly learned foreign language vocabulary items. The Functional-Notional Approach emphasizes the communicative purpose of the language. It focuses on the functions of the language rather than structures. The difference between the structural view and the notional-functions view lies at this point. In the functional and notional approach, the meanings of the vocabulary items gain importance. This approach stresses the communicative use of the foreign language vocabulary items. According to the founders of this approach, knowing a word should guarantee the use of this item in a meaningful social context. Learning foreign language words without setting up any association with its use, is an unsuccessful way of learning vocabulary. The goal of this approach is to make the learners become communicatively competent.

On the other hand, thanks to the Notional-Functional Approach a new kind of syllabus came into application in the field of language teaching and learning. This new syllabus, functional-notional syllabus, emphasized the primary importance of the functions and the notions in language

teaching / learning methodology. This approach is especially designed for regular long-term school courses, in elementary and secondary schools and universities as well as intensive courses. It provides for the widespread promotion of foreign language learning at the very moment when other language learning methods and programs being publicized would restrict the number of persons in a classroom. That is, again with the emergence of the Notional-Functional Approach, the unit-credit system was put forward and this system made it possible to envisage several types of courses such as extensive (regular) courses in elementary , secondary schools and universities lasting perhaps three to five years ; duration or intensive vacation courses ; intensive year-round courses , etc.

6.3.7. Related Methods

Since this approach is mainly based upon the teaching of the functions and the notions of the language, no specific methods can be used.

6.3.8. Discussion Questions for Students

1- What is the role of the culture in the Functional-Notional Approach?
2- What are the advantageous of the learners who follow the Natural Approach courses?
3- Is this approach somewhat tiring or time-consuming? Why?
4- What are the advantageous / disadvantageous of using the situation-based activities?
5- What are the main distinctions of this approach when compared to the Cognitive Approaches?

6.3.9. Basic Techniques and Exercise / Activity Types

Three strategies form the basis of the Functional-Notional Approach: first, the teaching is centered around a situation; second the essential elements of this situation are identified and analyzed; and third these elements are introduced at the beginning of the unit in short dialogs. The task of the teacher is to present these elements associated with a particular situation, at a pace appropriate to the class, taking into account age, ability, learners' need any other relevant variables. It is important that material presented and practiced within the Functional-Notional Approach should be in logical steps.(Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983 : 113 – 114) Suggested below are four steps : understanding, formulation of the rules, repetition for fluency and practice in fluent – spontaneous expression.

The Functional-Notional Approach does not, however, exclude the teaching of specific points when and where the need for this arises. For that reason every kind of activity which helps learners acquire the target language can be applied during the classroom sessions. Here different applications of general teaching procedures will be handled then its implications for pronunciation and vocabulary teaching and for the other four skills will be explained with some kind of activities.

6.3.9.1. Teaching Pronunciation

A teacher who uses the Functional-Notional procedures will need at times to exploit standard procedures which have no particular Functional-Notional base. Finocchiaro & Brumfit (1983) in their books, *The Functional-Notional Approach,* have outlined some basic points to be considered in teaching pronunciation.

1- In pronunciation drills, familiar words, if there are any, from previous units should always be used

2- Pronunciation work on sounds should always be done systematically

3- After practicing individual sounds students should practice both recognizing and producing minimal contrasts

4- Any practice of sounds in isolation should be followed by use of these same sounds in continuous speech and preferably in a variety of different positions.

5- Some problematic vowels and consonants in the target language can be dealt with immediately.

6- The stress system, intonation and the rhythm should also be worked on.

6.3.9.1.1. Recognition Exercises

These types of exercises can be carried on by using *same-different exercises, one-two exercises* or *1-2-3 exercises.* It must be borne in mind that all types of drills should begin with the words studied previously.

6.3.9.1.1.1. Same-Different Exercise

T: Now, I am going to pronounce two words at a time. If you hear the same sounds say same, but if you hear different sounds say different. First listen to the examples, don't repeat.

vet – vet .....same

vent – went .....different

Now , you do the same !

vet – vet (same)	*wet – wet (same)*
vent – went (different)	*vend – vend (same)*
went – went (same)	*veil – weil (different)*

6.3.9.1.1.2. 1-2 Exercise

Teacher first write the sounds on the board :

1- / v / 2- / w /

T: Now, I am going to pronounce one word at a time, tell me is it is from the first column or from the second column. First listen to the examples, do not repeat !

vest (1) wet (2)

Now , it's your turn.

vest (1)	wail (2)
wet (2)	worse (2)
wiper (2)	vet (1)
veil (1)	wine (2)

6.3.9.1.1.3. 1-2-3 Exercise

T: I am going to pronounce three words at a time. Tell me the number of the one which is different. First listen to the examples. Do not repeat

vine – vine – wine (3)

west – vest – west (2)

Now, you do the same.

vine – vine – wine (3)
west – vest – west (2)
veil – wail – wail (1)
worse – verse – worse (2)
vet – wet – wet (1)
went – vend – went (2)
vary – vary – wary (3)

6.3.9.1.1.4. Production Exercise

These exercises can be carried under 5 different steps : repetition, contextualization, recognition and production, rhyming and substitution drills.

6.3.9.1.2. Repetition

In these types of exercises first teacher wants students to repeat pairs of words after him/her. For example, *west – vest, wain – vein, worse – verse, went – vent, wet – vet, etc.* Then s/he wants them to repeat the sentences, some of which may be written on the board, after himself/ herself. For example,

1- That is wine / vine.	*3- Did you see the west / vest ?*
2-I saw the wiper / viper	*.4- Was it worse / verse ?*

After the repetition of the sentences teacher wants students repeat the statements including the problematic words at the same time. For example,

1- Do you wear a vest in the west ?
2- The viper is on the wiper.
3- We'll eat the veal.
4- They drank wine in the vine.
5- My verse is getting worse.
6- It may be wiser to put on a visor.

In addition to these exercises teacher pronounce a word and wants the learners to say the other word of the pair as a recognition and production activity. For example, *wet →vet / went → vent*, etc. Then, students are asked to do the same : *we'll → veal / vest → west / vet → wet / wine → vine / worse → verse / wail → veil / viper → wiper / visor → wisor / walt → vault, etc.*

6.3.9.1.3. Rhyming Exercise

In this exercise teacher says that they are going to play a game and divide the classroom into two groups. Then s/he says a a word to each group and wants the learners to tell him different words containing the same initial sound. *(If anybody fails to supply a word or says a word which has been said, that group will get a minus.)* The following is an example for this activity:

GROUP A	GROUP B
vet	*visor*
west	*wail*
wend	*went*
veal	*vest*

This activity can be supported by some kind of tongue twisters including the problematic sounds. For example,

1- Vera lives in a village in Vermont

2- Victor voted for vacation in Vancouver

3- Have you ever seen a vest?

4- Vessels turned over.

5- We all wanted to write the new words.

6- A warm wind blew from the west.

7- We decided to wait for Warren's answer.

8- We were with William and Wendy on a windy Wednesday wedding.

6.3.9.1.4. Substitution

This exercise may be useful in order to make necessary repetitions with the newly learned sounds or words in different positions in a statement. For example,

world → wild world → wild world of west → weather of wild world of west →warm weather of wild world of west ,.....

warm wind → warm wind blew → warm wind blew on Wednesday → warm wind blew on Wednesday's wedding, ...

6.3.9.1.5. Using Commands, Statements, or Questions

Another kind of activity can be employed in order to teach the *intonation* on some sentence patterns such as statements, commands, request, Wh-questions and Yes-No questions. Intonation is phonemic and knowledge of its use is of primary importance in a Functional-Notional syllabus since attitudes of speakers are often interpreted incorrectly when there is insufficient insight into the culture patterns of native speakers of the target language. The following examples can be used to show the different application of the intonation.(Demirezen, 1986 : 121 – 122)

6.3.9.1.5.1. Statement or declarative sentence

^{2}We went to the^{3} library^{1}. ↓

^{2}I do not understand^{3} you^{1}. ↓

^{2}Seeing is^{3} believing^{1} . ↓

6.3.9.1.5.2. Commands

^{2}Go to your^{3} room^{1} ↓
^{2}Go to the^{3} door^{1} ↓
^{2}Hands^{3} up^{1} ↓

6.3.9.1.5.3. Wh-questions

^{2}Where are^{3} you^{1} ? ↓
^{2}Who is^{3} it^{1} ? ↓
^{2}What have you been^{3} doing^{1} ? ↓

6.3.9.1.5.4. Yes/No Questions

^{2}Are you^{3} mad^{3} ? ↑
^{2}Do you love^{3} her^{3} ? ↑
^{2}Are you interested in^{3} music^{3} ? ↑

6.3.9.2. Teaching Vocabulary

The Functional-Notional Approach aims at teaching vocabulary items around a topic or center of interest. Content words which are needed to talk about the immediate environment should be given priority even if some of them are not included in the textbook and are not high frequency words, so content words should be introduced and practiced together with those words with which they generally occur, for example, *the President of the USA, the Congressman from New York*, etc. Notions should always be introduced through context, that is, in authentic utterances that help to clarify their meaning and use. The same notions should be reintroduced as often as feasible with all the communicative expressions, structures, and situations in which they fit logically and appropriately. On the other hand, new vocabulary items should always be presented with known communicative expressions and structures. Whereas all the function words have to be taught for active use, content words may be taught either for production or for recognition only. So, in

order to teach vocabulary drawings (pictures, diagrams, and maps), real objects, puzzles, symbols, dialogs, synonyms-antonyms, matching, grouping, demonstration, etc. can be used. Here are some examples:

6.3.9.2.1. Grouping

This activity can be employed to test content words. For example,

Instruction: *All the words in the list are to do with* ***money****. Divide them into three groups. Use your dictionary to help if necessary. Some of the words can go into more than one category. (From New Headway- Work Book ,Int., 1996 : 52)*

currency	*bankrupt*	*win*
accountant	*squander*	*bet*
penniless	*earn*	*coins*
economic	*salary*	*save*
safe	*invest*	*will*
millionaire	*cash dispenser*	*wages*
economy	*coins*	*credit card*
well-off	*cashier*	*loan*
broke	*spending spree*	

NOUNS	VERBS	ADJECTIVES

6.3.9.2.2. Antonyms-Synonyms

This activity can be employed to test the understanding of the learners about both content and function words. For example, teacher wants students to write the opposite of an adjectival phrase changing the content word into another adjective like an old house → a new house, an old man → a young man. Here are some examples:

a- a single person → .....
a single ticket → .....
b- a strong man → .....
strong beer → .....
c- a rich person → .....
rich food → .....
a- a sweet apple → .....
sweet wine → .....

These exercises can be done by writing another adjective with a similar meaning paying attention to both content and the function words. For example, a pretty girl → an attractive girl, a handsome man → a good-looking man, etc. Here are some more examples: *(From New Headway, Work Book, Int. ,1996 : 40)*

a- a rich woman	*f- friendly people* .....
b- a funny story	*g- a silly person* .....
c- a well-dressed person	*h- a clever person* .....
d- an untidy room	*ı – awful news* .....
e- a badly-behaved child	*j –a wonderful idea* .....

6.3.9.2.3. Collocations

Collocations are words which are commonly associated. It is suggested that exercises to develop and strengthen these associations can greatly facilitate learning. The following example was taken from Brown (1974:9)

Choose the items that collocate most usefully with each verb. The number of items left after each verb is a guide to the number of useful collocations possible.

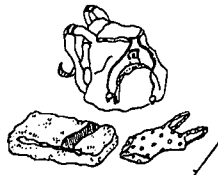
1- to appeal	the slow student
.....	against the judge's decision
.....	to my friend for help
.....	him to learn from his
2- to encourage	mistakes

6.3.9.2.4. Matching

This type of activity can be employed under some specific topics to teach the vocabulary items. Two different boxes including some words related to a specific topic are given to the students. Then students are wanted to divide these words / nouns/ adjectives / verbs, etc. into four specific main groups. (These groups, if wanted, can be given by teacher). Here are two examples *(From New Headway- Work Book ,Int., 1996 : 8)*

T.C. YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU
DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ

water-skiing	traveller's cheques	youth hostel
rucksack	flight attendant	camp-site
caravan	swimming costume	~~suitcase~~
~~hotel~~	farmhouse	relaxing
exploring	beach towel	sight-seeing
ski instructor	guest-house	tour guide
travel agent	sunbathing	suntan lotion



holidays



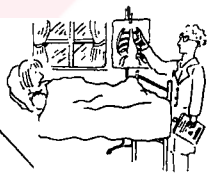
things to take	people	activities	places to stay
suitcase	_____	_____	hotel
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

In the box are words to do with medicine. They can be divided into four groups. Decide what the four groups are, then complete the network.

surgeon	heart	stomach	injection	lungs
sore throat	patient	X-ray	prescription	cough
constipation	rash	specialist	operation	liver
diarrhoea	kidney	sprain	check-up	pills



medicine



things that doctors give you

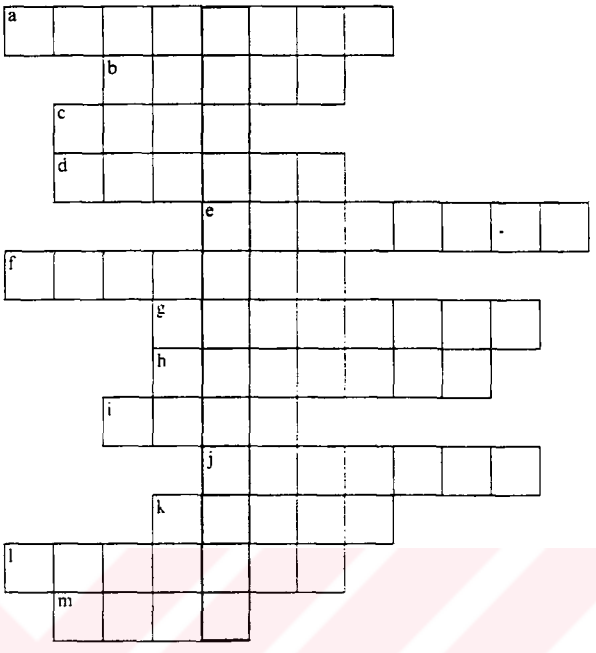
6.3.9.2.5. Puzzles

Puzzles or crosswords may be employed to test the knowledge of the students on the distinction between content and function words. The following puzzle had been taken from *New Headway- Work Book, Int., 1996: 39* to indicate the use of content and function words in a puzzle.

New Headway- Work Book, Int., 1996: 39 to indicate the use of content and function words in a puzzle.

count	invite	touch
speak	wash	feed

pull	wish	complain	
defrost	stand	find	fill



a I hate _____ in a queue. It's such a waste of time.

b My baby daughter is just learning to _____ . She can say two words - 'Mama' and 'pussy'.

c Can you remember to _____ up the car with petrol? It's nearly empty.

d I'd love to _____ Dave and Maggie round for a meal some time.

e I couldn't sleep last night. I tried _____ sheep, but that didn't help.

f My jeans need _____ . They're filthy.

g The customer tried to _____ about the service in the restaurant, but the waiter refused to listen to him.

h Stop _____ my hair! It hurts!

i I just want to _____ you Happy Birthday.

j Would you mind _____ our cat while we're away on holiday?

k When you go round a museum, you aren't allowed to _____ anything.

l Don't forget to_____ the chicken before you cook it.

m Did you manage to _____ what you were looking for?

6.3.9.2.5. Dialogs

Dialogs may also be used to teach some speech acts such as requesting, apologizing, promising, greeting, making an appointment, inviting, complaining, commanding, leave-taking, etc. While teaching dialogs dramatization technique can also be used in order to indicate emotions such as feeling angry, happiness, sadness, etc. Dramatization can be done paying attention to the different intonation patterns. The following dialog has been given as an example to teach greetings and commands.

MATT : Good morning.
MAXINE : Good morning. How are you today ?
MATT : Just fine, thanks. How are you ?
MAXINE : Wonderful. Things couldn't be better.
DOTTY : Hi. What's up ?
VIVIAN : Nothing much. What's new with you ?
DOTTY : Not too much. I've been pretty busy.
VIVIAN : Me too. Seems like all I do is eat and sleep.
DOTTY : Gotta go. Call me tonight.
VIVIAN : Okay. Check you later.
MOTHER : Good morning.
SON : Morning. What's for breakfast ?
MOTHER : The usual. Eggs, toast, and cereal. Coffee, if you want.
SON : I think I'll just have cereal for a change.
MOTHER: Help yourself. The cereal and sugar are on the table. The milk's in the refrigerator.

(From More Dialogs for Everyday Use, 1984 : 1)

In short, it can be said that the Functional-Notional Approach attaches importance to teaching of cultural and social concepts, so in language learning and teaching function and content words get the primary goal in terms of this approach. Therefore, in teaching vocabulary

process these types of words should be taught primarily via dialogs, diagrams, real objects, puzzles and the other kind of techniques or activities mentioned above.

6.3.9.3. Teaching Listening and Speaking

In the Functional-Notional Approach, in listening the learner should be helped to hear and respond to the phonemic sounds, the sequence of sounds, the structure of words and their required sound changes depending upon their position before other words, the sound changes and functional shifts, the meaning of the words depending on the context, etc. In developing listening skills, it is essential not to slow down or distort speech in the mistaken notion that it will help students to understand. Anything heard by the students should contain the typical rhythm, intonation, pauses, contractions and elisions of the target language. In order to achieve these some listening activities some techniques and activities are given below:

1- presenting sounds in sound sequences, intonation patterns, and utterances with contrasting stress, pause,

2- telling a story

3- *describing simple or situational pictures*

4- *reading a passage, poem or playlet orally*

5- *dramatizing a dialog using pictures or realia*

6- *telling about an incident that happened to you or someone else*

7- *clarifying the situation of a dialog, a film, a radio broadcast, etc.*

8- *giving dictation*

9- *interviewing people in the community, where feasible*

10- *taking part in telephone conversations*

11- *listening songs, plays, poems, speeches, etc.*

12- *attending or contributing to lectures, conferences, language club meetings, discussion groups, etc.*

13- *watching films several times and listening to selected radio and television programs*

14- *playing language games*

15- *working in groups or pairs to perform problem solving tasks*

16- *engaging in dialog dramatization and in role playing of dialogs*

17- *listening to other pupils give directions , ask questions, give summaries, etc.*

(Finocchiaro&Brumfit,1983:138-140)

Some of the activities or techniques mentioned above may be employed in the Functional-Notional Approach classes. Many of these activities require speaking, reading, writing, miming, or associating sound groups or utterances while the major focus is on increasing listening ability. On the other hand, speaking , as a productive skill, is a more complex skill than listening since it requires, in addition, knowing the sound, structure, vocabulary and culture subsystems of the language of the language. Spontaneous, creative use of language may develop only after years of learning depending upon the age, motivation and aptitude of the learner, but the Functional-Notional Approach encourages the learner to operate creatively right from the early stages of learning. For that reason, there are numerous activities which will gradually develop innovative, confident speaking behavior. Here some activities that may be used with beginners while other should be left for upper intermediate and advanced levels in teaching speaking are listed below:

1- preparing original sentences with communicative expressions, structures or notions which have been presented

2- telling a well-known story or retell an experience in their own words

3- setting up a class shop, a library, a post office, a bank, etc. for improvising realistic conversations for students
4- playing communicative language games
5- conducting a debate, a discussion, a forum activity , etc. based upon research(e.g. cultural or profession topic)
6- giving a report on a prepared topic and being ready to answer questions on it
7- making recordings of debates or news broadcasts for future discussions
8- engaging in telephone conversations
9- reading a newspaper article in the target language and giving a report on it in the target language
10- engaging a role play based on typical target language-using situations
11- taking roles in well-known modern plays
12- telling what objects appear in a picture or on a chart

All the activities listed above may be prepared or carried out in small groups. Group or pair practice will normally have three phases: preparation, activity and follow-up / evaluation. The crucial responsibility of the teacher is to allow students to use the language as freely as possible, so that classroom becomes a genuine language-using community. Students must gradually get used to working in pairs or small groups without too much close supervision from teacher. (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983 : 142) In addition, much of oral work can be combined with reading, writing activities to produce integrated language use. Here some exercises or activities will be given for both listening and speaking.

6.3.9.3.1. Interview

Students are wanted to listen to the first part of an interview, whose script given below, on the tape. Then they are asked to say whether the following statements are *True* or False according to the text. *(From Int. Matters, 1998 : 8)*

a- Judi's husband is an actor.

b- She's got two sons.

c- She pays somebody to help her with the housework

d- She doesn't stay in London at the weekend.

e- None of her pets go to London with her.

Later students listen to the second part of the interview in which Judi is talking about her hobbies, so they are asked to put a tick next to the things she likes in the list below.

a) painting	*g) swimming*
b) drawing	*h) football*
c) horror films	*ı) gardening*
d) jewellery	*j) pop music*
e) cooking	*k) dolls' houses*
f) traveling abroad	*l) opera*

In the third session, this time students are asked to listen to the second part of the interview again and answer these questions:

1- What are Michael and Finty good at ?

*2- What do you think **a meat and two veg man** is?*

3- Do you think they are close family? Give your reasons.

4- Would you like to be an actor? Give your reasons.

(The first part of the interview)

INTERVIEWER : *wonder if you'd mind answering one or two-more personal questions. You have a husband who is a well-known actor and you also have a teenage daughter. How do you manage to balance your work life with your home life ?*

JUDI DENCH : *With difficulty ! This is, this is the shortest answer you're going to get ! It's very, very difficult, especially that we have two houses – luckily that we have two houses – but, still, trying to do shopping and the laundry and the washing and the ironing, and think abut what I need for the weekend, and think about petrol for the car, and think about somebody coming back into the house, you know, all those things and Michael, of course, and Finty – I mean, they're – I couldn't do it without them 'cause they're just wonderful helps.*

I: *Have you got any pets ?*

J : *Oh ,yes, we've three cats, one which won't come back to London – it stays in the country – and two which commute with us, and a dog and a rabbit and two donkeys (Two donkeys ?) They don't come back to London with us ,either !*

(From Int. Matters, Teacher's Book , 1998 : 19)

(The second part of the interview)

I : *I wonder if you mind telling me some of the things you like doing in your spare time? I mean , for example, sports, hobbies, holidays….*

J: *Well, yes, I trained as a designer, a theatre designer, so I've never given up drawing, and, I do draw and paint still quite a lot, 'specially on holiday. And we all have a go, 'cause Michael's wonderfully good at it, but he won't say he is, but he is – and Finty's very, very good at indeed, and she draws all the time, so we do a lot of drawing and painting, and I like cooking, when I have the time to do it, though I don't like doing it under pressure.*

I: *What kinds of things do you like cooking?*

J: *Well, Michael's a meat and two veg man, so he gets meat and two veg a lot, and that really . Bread and butter pudding – he loves bread and butter pudding, so we do that a lot, 'cause I have a secret recipe – and what else do I do? Michael loves gardening , he's very good at all that, and I've also got a passion for dolls' houses – I have a doll's house which takes up a great deals of my time. I, I love all that, but it's got to be absolutely perfect.*

I: *Do you like traveling abroad much?*

J : *Yes, I love it. We love it.(Where, in particular ?) I was in Yugoslavia last year, with Hamlet, so the whole family – we all went – we had the most wonderful time with the company. We had a great , great time, swimming – we all swim like mad – and that was very good, that was lovely. So we might get back to Yugoslavia in August, I hope we will. We always take August off, 'cause it's Fint's holidays.*

I : *What, what kind of music do you like to listen to ?*

J : *I like every kind of music, but I do like classical music very, very much indeed.*

6.3.9.3. Listening comprehension

This activity may be on familiar or unfamiliar material – a dialog, an anecdote, a brief segment of material relevant to your students' age and interest. First, teacher motivates the material by giving a brief summary or by asking preliminary questions related to the theme of the text. Then, s/he clarifies the meaning. S/he reads the text through two times at normal speed and asks question two times. S/he continues up to complete the

questions. S/he reads the text again at normal speed and says the questions again. (If it is wanted, teacher gives students time to write the answers and then checks their own work and makes necessary changes) At last, teacher corrects the text as in the dictation. The following dialog, for example, may be used:

ACADEMY AWARDS

Janice : Did you see the Academy Awards program last night on TV ?

ROB : I watched for a while ; then I had to go to bed.

JANICE : You missed a good show. I didn't agree with the selection for best picture, though.

ROB : I guess I missed the part. What happened?

JANICE : Oh, they chose some picture that was so avant-garde that no one understands it.

ROB : Well, I don't go to the movies very often. You know me. I prefer more active-type things.

JANICE : Too bad. I really wanted to discuss it with someone.

(From More Dialogs for Everyday Use, 1984 : 13)

Questions

1- *What did Janice do last night?*
2- *Did Rob watch TV?*
3- *What was the program about?*
4- *What did they choose?*
5- *What does Rob prefer?*
6- *Why did Janice really want to discuss the program with someone?*

6.3.9.3.1. Playing Language Games

These activities are useful to develop the listening and speaking abilities of the learners. At the same time some parts of these activities may be used for dictation. Here is an example:

The name of the game is Waiter / waitress and a pen, a sheet of paper for each student and one restaurant menu are needed. Students record the teacher's order as s/he chooses from the menu. The person with the most complete and accurate list dictates his / her order to the group on the next round. For example,

" I'll have a shrimp cocktail to start. Then the chicken vegetable soup and the New York cut steak, medium-rare, with a baked potato instead of French fries and a chef's salad with the house dressing. For dessert, I'd like tea and rice pudding, please." (If students are of legal age, alcoholic beverages may be ordered to familiarize them with the names of various drinks) (From Games Language People Play, 1986 : 73)

6.3.9.3.2. Giving Instructions

This type of exercise as a task or activity response can be handled individually or in a group. When testing individually teacher can have students do various things to show how well they understand. This activity can be used to teach commands. For example, teacher tells the student the following:

> *" Stand up, please. And then walk to the door. After you do this turn on the light. Then before you sit down, put the small book here on the top shelf"*

Teacher could give these commands one or two at a time so that students' memory wouldn't be overloaded. Small children can be asked to play a game by arranging objects as teacher tells them to :

> *" Put the ball in the box. Put the storybook on top of the box. Then make a circle around the box with the beads....."*

6.3.9.3.3. Taking Part in Telephone Conversation (Activities / Exercises for Speaking)

This activity may be employed to test the learners' ability and what they would say in certain situations. The following script was taken from the book, *Everyday Listening and Speaking*, 1992: 29

Speaking In pairs, look at the conversations below. Work out what you would say in each situation. Then act out the conversations.

1 Student B is telephoning a company to speak to the Export Manager.

Student A ☎	Student B ☎
1 (*telephonist*) Answer the phone (say the name of your company).	2 Ask for the Export Department (extention 280).
3 (*secretary*) Answer the phone (Hello?).	4 Check you've got the right extention.
5 Respond.	6 Ask to speak to the Export Manager.
7 Explain that the Export Manager is busy (she's in a meeting/at lunch, etc.)	8 Ask when she'll be back in the office.
9 You're not sure. Maybe tomorrow. Offer to take a message.	10 Leave a message (say who's calling, give your number, etc.).
11 Check that the details of the message are correct.	12 Listen and check that the details are correct. Say goodbye.
13 Say goodbye.	

2 This time you're phoning your friend, but his flatmate answers.

Student A ☎	Student B ☎
1 Answer the phone (Hello?).	2 Check you've got the right number.
3 Respond.	4 Say who you are.
5 Greet B. Say who you are.	6 Respond to A's greeting. Ask to speak to your friend.
7 Ask B to wait. You'll see if C's in.	8 Respond.
9 Your flatmate's gone out. Offer to take a message.	10 Give A a message. Say goodbye.
11 Say goodbye.	

6.3.9.3.4. Talking about a Newspaper Article

Teacher reads a newspaper article or report in the target language and gives a report on it in the target language. S/ he asks some questions related to the text and then divide students into two or three groups and wants them to work as in the following example (*From Intermediate Matters, 1998 : 37*)

'Second time unlucky' tree-car drama

A delivery man, Mr Philip Shaw, found himself involved in a rescue drama during the gale last Thursday.

He and a colleague were driving along towards Cambridge when 'about six trees came down just seconds before we got there'.

Said Mr Shaw: 'It all happened as we approached. The roof of a car was all crushed in and there were two old men trapped inside.'

The two delivery men tried to pull the tree off, but it was too heavy. In the end they had to break the windscreen and pull the old men out through there. 'It was lucky we were around. It took the fire brigade about thirty minutes to get there,' said Mr Shaw.

The rescued men were Mr George Kidd, aged 80, and his 78-year-old brother-in-law, Mr William Ollington. Both escaped with shock and minor injuries.

It was the second time a tree had crushed their car, and in the same place.

Two years ago, during the October hurricane, they had had their first lucky escape when another falling tree crushed their car in the same road!

'It's a very funny thing to happen twice,' said Mr Kidd. 'We are very fortunate. On both occasions I was driving a yellow car so I don't think I'll get another one.'



6.3.9.3.5. Communicative Language Games

The following activity aims at giving practice to the students. It also aids comprehension and adds to oral creativity and expression. Teacher begins a story (using the verb tenses and vocabulary most appropriate for the capabilities of the students) and randomly names students to continue the story in turn. It is a kind of chain story. For example,

Teacher: *Several years ago as I was walking home from the theatre, I saw a large, white dog ..... Robert, would you like to continue the story?*

Robert: *it was trying to cross the street from the other side but the traffic was too heavy. It started to cross several times, but ran back, afraid of the cars.....*

Teacher: *Then what happened Susan?*

Susan: *I yelled to it to sit and it sat down immediately on the curb. I crossed the street when it was safe, and patted it gently while I spoke softly to it ....*

Teacher *: Jack, please continue...*

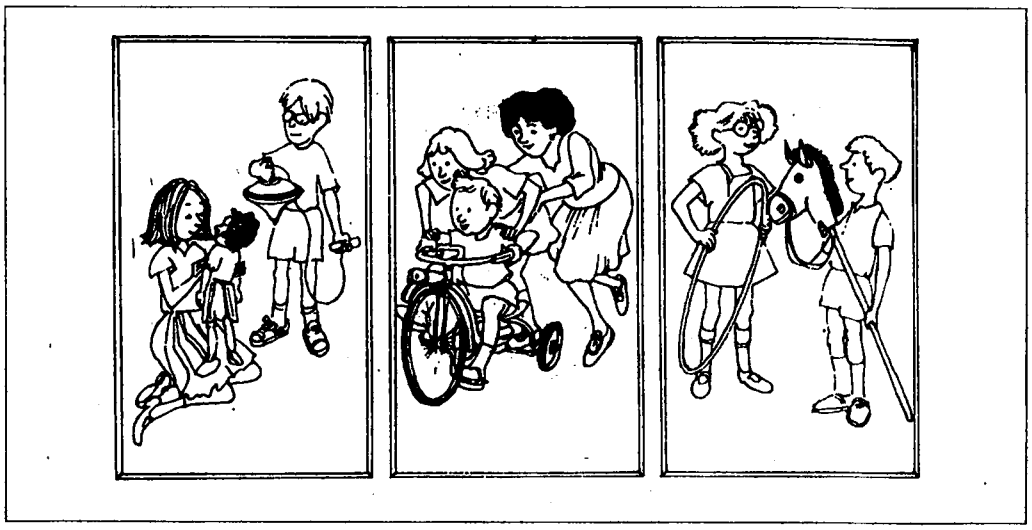
(From Games Language People Play, 1986: 90

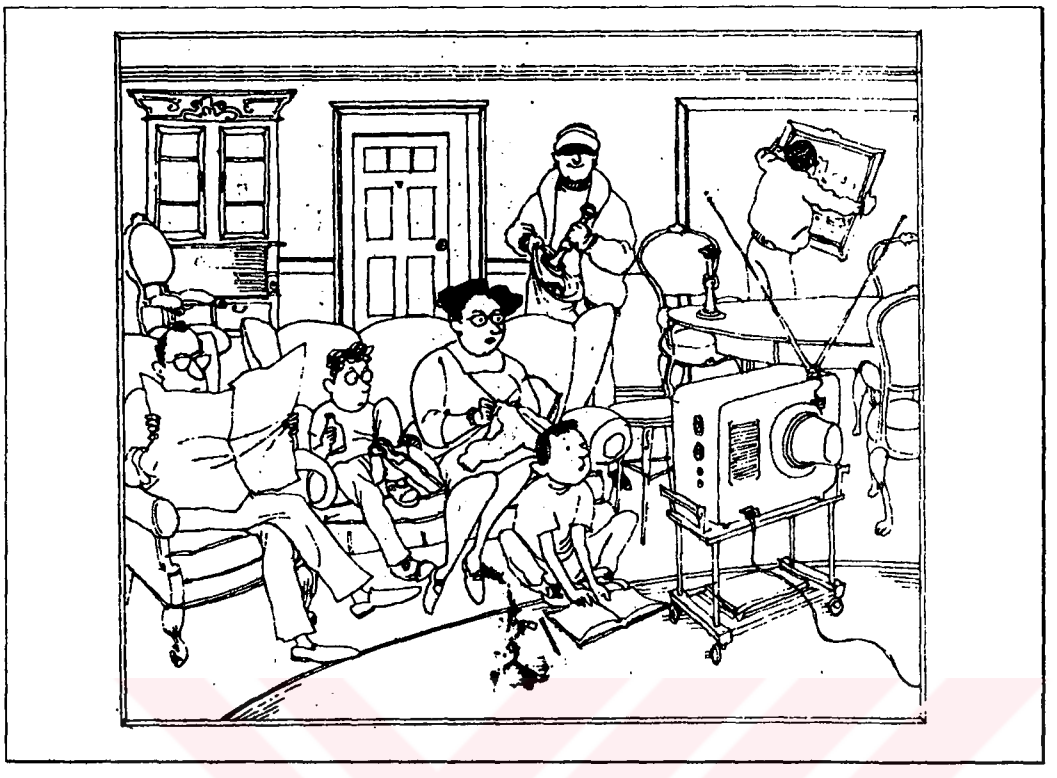
6.3.9.3.6. Dialogs / Dramatization

Brief dialogs are excellent vehicles for production. Two dialogs can be combined to focus on a different function : *a familiar dialog* can be expanded, with newly acquired language material added appropriately at the beginning or end ; questions and answers of all kinds based on the dialogs can be formulated by one group of students and answered by others orally ; *original dialogs* can be prepared by one group of students and dramatized by other ; *mini dialogs* can be prepared by a group or a pair of students centered around a *function* and based on a given *situation* ; the dialog can be changed to *reported speech* or vice versa. Any of the dialogs can also be dramatized, illustrating different emotions and feelings.

6.3.9.3.7. Telling about a Picture

Students are given a picture and asked them to tell what they see in the picture. In this way both content and function words may be reviewed. Later they can be asked to create a story what they see in the picture. The following is an example picture. *(From Techniques in Testing, 1983: 80)*





6.3.9.5. Teaching Reading and Writing

Reading activities will also help learners reinforce listening and speaking abilities. Reading and writing skills may also need to be initiated as quickly as possible even when the writing systems in L_1 and L_2 are quite different. The introduction of reading places a great responsibility on the teacher since reading presupposes two quite different sub skills : bringing meaning to a piece of connected discourse and getting meaning from the printed or written material. Activities in teaching reading can be extensive reading, intensive reading, summarizing a passage, asking students to read in chorus, retelling a text, etc.

Writing, on the other hand, should reinforce and help extend the listening, speaking, and reading abilities. Except at intermediate, advanced or professional levels, helping students write means primarily helping them to make carefully guided symbols on paper. So, teachers should guide learners through several progressively more complex stages

over a period of time. Depending on their level, students should be taught punctuation, capitalization, abbreviations, etc. Writing activities may be dictations, controlled writing, guided writing, dicto-compositions, paraphrasing, writing about a picture / chart / graph, etc. Here some of the activities mentioned above for reading and writing will be exemplified.

6.3.9.5.1. Intensive Reading

Teacher reads each line aloud in logical, thought groups, with students' books open, ask several simple questions. For example, at beginning levels or with difficult material at upper levels such as *Yes/ No questions, True-False questions, questions beginning with* ***What / Who*** , *a question with* ***or***, etc. and in later stages *inferential questions* such as ***Why*** , *What do you think..., How do you think..*, etc. can be asked. At the end of the paragraph teacher asks for a summary. If there are still problems, questions that help elicit the summary can be asked. The summary should be sequential and informational. In the following text the steps can easily be seen. *(From Practice and Progress, 1977:15)*

BREAKFAST OR LUNCH

It was Sunday. I never get up early on Sundays. I sometimes stay in bed until lunch time. Last Sunday I got up very late. I looked out of the window. It was dark outside. "What a day ! " I thought. "It's raining again " Just then, the telephone rang. It was my aunt Lucy. "I've just arrived by train ", she said. " I'm coming to see you." "But I'm still having breakfast," I said. "What are you doing ?", she asked. " I'm having breakfast", I repeated. " Dear me", she said. "Do you always get up so late?" It's one o'clock !"

6.3.9.5.1.1. *True / False Questions*

1- It was Sunday (T) (F)
2- He gets up early on Sundays (T) (F)
3- It was snowing (T) (F)
4- His aunt Lucy phoned (T) (F)
5- He is still having breakfast (T) (F)

6.3.9.5.1.2. *Yes / No Questions*

1- Does he always get up late on Sundays?
2- Does he stay in bed until lunch time on Sundays?
3- Was it sunny?
4- Did the phone ring?

6.3.9.5.1.3. *Wh- questions*

1- What is the day?
2- Who stays in bed until lunch time on Sundays?
3- Who was it on the phone?
4- What was the man doing when the phone rang?

6.3.9.5.1.4. *Inference Questions*

1- Why does the man get up late on Sundays?
2- Why did the man think that it was raining?
3- Why did the man say that he was still having breakfast?

6.3.9.5.2. Extensive Reading

After reading the entire passage aloud students are asked to read it silently. Teacher then gives them the purpose for reading and the time which will be allowed. After they have read, teacher check their

comprehension by having them complete sentences on the board ; stating whether an oral statement is true or false ; asking for the main idea ; asking for the supporting ideas; eliciting a sequential summary. All of these tasks can be done in groups or pairs. The following exercises can be applied to the text given above:

6.3.9.5.2.1. Complete the following sentences

1- I never get up .....
2- I sometimes stay in bed until .....
3- I looked out of .....
4- Just then, the telephone ..... .It was .....
5- "I've just ....." she said.

In addition to these exercises some other questions can be asked. For example, *What's the main idea of the passage? Is the title suitable for the this text? , etc.*

6.3.9.5.3. A Controlled Writing Task Activities for Writing

Writing activities may be employed according to the age and interests of the learners. Guided or controlled writing tasks are useful ones. Here are some examples:

6.3.9.5.3.1. Controlled compositions

These exercises focus the students' attention on specific features of the written language. They are good methods of reinforcing grammar, vocabulary and syntax in context. In addition as the students write the passages, they are using the conventions of the target language such as indentation, punctuation, connecting words and spelling. Some activities that may be used in controlled writing are listed below:

1- copying model sentences, dialogs, or any written texts
2- writing out in full the model sentences they have practiced orally
3- changing the sentences into a familiar dialog, a short paragraph, etc
4- completing a series of related sentences in any way the learners wish

The examples that follow indicate the variety of materials and tasks that controlled composition offers. *(From techniques in teaching Writing, 1983: 98-99)*

1- Students work in small groups to agree on each change in this passage: You are a police detective who has been following a man every day for a month. You write this report for your supervisor:

> *Every day, C.P. gets up at 7 a.m. and he walks to a local store to buy a newspaper. He reads the obituaries. Then he makes three different phone calls from three different public pay phones. He goes to a coffee shop and waits outside. A tall blond woman driving a silver Cadillac picks him up.*

Your supervisor than tells you that she wants a specific report on what C.P. did on Wednesday last week. Change the report. Begin with," Last Wednesday, C.P. got up at 7 a.m. .....

2- Students are asked to change the sentences, subjects, objects, nouns, verbs, etc. in a text. The students have to be aware of these and have to make the necessary connections. The following is a controlled composition task :

[1]It's morning in the park. [2]A young man is walking with his dog. [3]Every day he buys a newspaper at the newsstand. [4]The news dealer greets him. [5]The man takes his newspaper to a nearby bench. [6]He sits by himself and reads. [7]His dog runs in the trees.

***Teacher:** Rewrite the passage, but this time change **A young men** to **Two young men** in sentence 2.*

3- Students are given a sample paragraph and a structural skeleton and then they are asked to fill in the blanks from paragraph. For example, Shelia and Maura are sisters. They would like to wear each other's clothes, but they can't. They wear different sizes. Look at their sizes:

	Sheila	**Maura**
Dress size	10	14
Shoe size	7	8
Blouse size	34	38
Glove size	7	7
Belt size	26	28

(1) My dresses are too small for Maura to wear. (2) My shoes are not big enough for her either. (3) My blouses are also too small for her to wear. (4) However, I wear the same size gloves as she does. (5) I like to wear belts but unfortunately Maura's belts are too large for me.

Teacher wants students rewrite the paragraph from Maura's point of view.

(1) My dresses are .... Sheila ..... wear. (2) My shoes are too .... her too. (3) My blouses are also .... her ..... wear. (4) However, I wear .... gloves ..... she does. (5) I like to wear belts but unfortunately Sheila's belts are not too .... me.

This activity can be applied to other persons giving the necessary information. For example, Winston and Anthony are brother. Rewrite the information from Winston's point of view. Use the following chart.

	Winston	**Anthony**
Cost size	36	38
Trouser size	30	32
Shirt size	15	16
Shoe size	10	10
Hat size	7	8

6.3.9.5.4. Guided Writing Activity

Guided compositions are the extensions of controlled compositions. They are less controlled than the above examples of controlled composition in that they give students some but not all of the content and form of the sentences they will use. Some guided tasks are: writing a summary, a letter to a friend, an outline, a report on an article or a book they have read, an ending to a story, a complete dialog, reconstruction of a dialog from one or two words given in each utterance, preparing a narrative paragraph, etc. Here are some examples for guided writing activity:

6.3.9.5.4.1. Preparing an Outline

Students are wanted to prepare an outline from a material which they have read. These materials can be narrative, expository, descriptive, etc. according to the interests and the ages of the students. The following text was taken from Demirezen's book, (*Paragraph Development Methods, 1993: 48)*

There are several ways of spending a holiday. One of the popular kinds is packing-holiday. This is an ideal way of having cheap and enjoyable holiday. The people who prefer this way have an opportunity to see more than one place. Besides, they can make new friends who share the same. The other way is to spend a holiday in a camping-site. By this way, people can spend most of their time among the trees by breathing the fresh air. Furthermore, they can cook their own food if they do not want to eat at a restaurant In sum, each way of spending a holiday has its own

Sample outline

I . .....
A. .....
a) .....
b) .....
c) .....
B. .....
a) .....
b) .....
Conc: .....

6.3.9.5.5. Writing Personal Letters

These activities help learners tell about the feelings, ideas, plans, decisions, etc. to their friends. Activity can be expanded by adding some extra questions as in the following example. The following exercise was taken from the book, *Intermediate Matters, 1998: 54-55.*

Personal letters

1 Patty has written a letter to her friend Kate. The different sections of her letter have been mixed up. Decide on the correct order of the sections.

(6) I haven't got much news. After a pretty exciting three weeks holiday, it's back to work non-stop. Steve and I hardly ever see each other at the moment. I've also taken to serious volleyball training: two hours every weekend evening, especially difficult as I have to get out of bed to be at the studios by 7a.m.! I was working evenings before Christmas, but I had to change to fit in the volleyball.

(1) 11th March 1991

(9) Hello, dear. Sorry I haven't written earlier. I've been meaning to but it seems every time I get a quiet moment to put pen to paper the phone rings and I have to go to help with some recording.

(4) Enough of me telling you how busy I am. The big question is when are you two coming to stay – we're dying to see you!? The spare room now has a bed so no excuses. Why don't you try and make it before the winter? Give us a ring anyway.

(3) Love, Patty X

(2) Dear Kate,

(8) Must rush – as always. 'Bye and please give Phil a hug from me. I miss you both a lot.

(7) 11 Castle St.

(5) PS Thanks for the card.

2 What is the main purpose of the letter?

3 In which paragraph is the main purpose:

a) to give personal information?
b) to make an invitation?
c) to bring the letter to an end?
d) to apologise?

4 From the letter, what do we know and what can we guess about:

a) Patty's working life?
b) how she spends her spare time?

5 What other ways are there of ending personal letters?

6 Look back at the semi-formal letter on page 54. In which ways is the personal letter on page 52 similar or different?

7 Which of these phrases would you *not* expect to see in a personal letter?

All the best.
I refer to your letter of the 19th March.
It was so nice to hear from you.
I'm sure it'll be OK.
I am grateful for your assistance.
Look forward to seeing you!
I apologise for the delay in replying.
When are you coming up?

8 Rewrite the formal phrases in Exercise 7 in a less formal way.

6.3.9.5.6. Writing Informal Letters

In this activity teacher first presents a model of a friendly letter in which one person invites another to stay at his or her home. The teacher especially points out the items mentioned follow under linguistic focus. The students read the model and then each one writes a friendly letter to a pen pal who is another classmate. The pen pals exchange letters and read them. For example,

Product: friendly letter of invitation

Audience: a pen pal (another student in the class)

Functions:

Imagining: developing an imaginary situation based on real life

Self-maintaining: referring to needs and wants

Linguistic Focus:

a- modal auxiliary "would", as in *I would like to invite ....*

b- parts of a friendly letter such as salutation, closing, etc.

6.3.9.5.7. Writing Short Paragraphs

These activities can be achieved by using pictures, charts, maps, drawings, etc. Here is an example taken from the book, *Writing Task I, 1998:14-15.* If wanted, after students have completed their writing using the pictures, they may be asked to write a few sentences about their future plans, for example.

Study the information about Doreen Smith and write about her.

1964



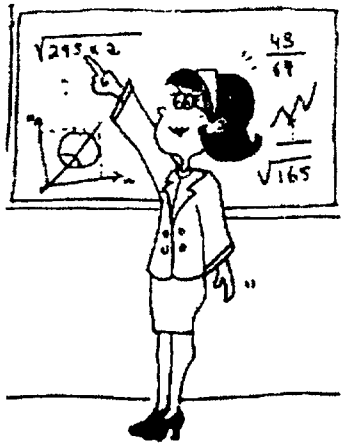
son

1946



start school

1966



start / work / teacher

1985



retire

1959



finish school

1940



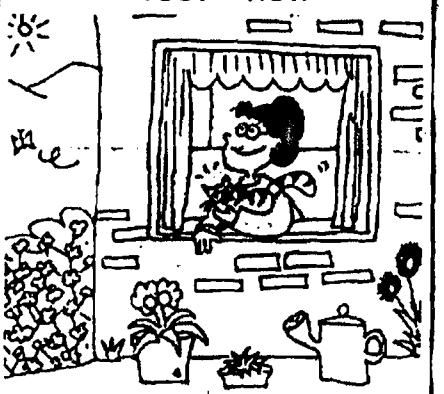
London

1959 - 1962



university:
mathematics

1987 - now



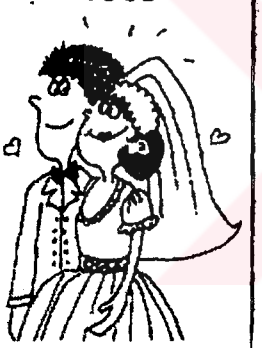
live / country

1987



write stories
for children

1963



1987



decide to move
/ country

1960



meet / husband

FUTURE PLANS

go to Africa

write a book about African children

6.3.9.5.8. Ending a Story

At least one or two initial paragraphs of a story are given and then students are wanted to complete the rest part of the text. These paragraphs should especially be related to the interests or hobbies of the students. If wanted, teacher selects some interesting narrative, explanatory, cause-effect, problem solution, etc. paragraphs to check the creating abilities of the learners. For example,

MY CHILDHOOD GAMES

When I was young, I always enjoyed playing with my friends. I particularly remember two games I used to play when I was about ten years old. There was a wood surrounding my house. Although the wood seemed quite big, I suppose it really was quite small. We used to hunt each other in the wood and we used to cook in an old hut. If there were 6 or 7 of us, we used to divide into two groups and pretend we were enemies. Hiding behind trees and running silently, we played like this for hours, and afterwards we used to return to the hut to make meal. Unfortunately, one day the floor of the hut caught fire. Although we .....

.....

.....

(From The Essentials of Composition and Short Essay Writing, 1994 : 133)

6.3.9.5.9. Writing an Advertisement

In this activity, students form into small groups of three or four. Each group creates two or more classified ads for jobs that students would be able to do. These type of activities involve students in learning how to address an adult politely, learning how to politely request an adequate salary for shoveling snow, babysitting, and the like, and reviewing or

learning some language describing the elements of good grooming (Sampson, 1981: 168).For example,

Product: help-wanted advertisement in classified section of a newspaper

Audience: classmates

Function: projecting into situations never experienced

Linguistic focus:

a- supplying / deleting articles and auxiliaries in sentences such as "*Mother needs person to walk Grade 1 child to school*" or "*Person needed to take care of lawn*"

b- reading abbreviations such as M, F, Tu, Ph. (male, female, Tuesday, phone)

Example:

HELP WANTED

Reliable babysitter 15:30-18:00 Tu-F

Start at once

In short, the most important influence of the Functional-Notional Approach has been seen in the application of the communicative purposes of the speech acts into the language teaching. It has been known that there has been numerous speech acts in English. These speech acts have been included mainly the most important functions and the notions of the language such as greeting, apologizing, requesting, leave-takings, and so on. There are three factors that underlie any speech act: a- the functions that language serves in real world every day use, b- the notions or varieties of language that are possible within each of the functions, and c- the context or the shared sociocultural references to complete

understanding and determine their acceptability or appropriateness. Hence, the Functional-Notional Approach aims at teaching these concepts since the supporters of this approach believe that second language can be acquired if the functions and the notions founded in the speech acts have been learned. Moreover, Functional-Notional Approach to language teaching and learning means investigating how language is used, what purposes it serves for us and how we are able to achieve these purpose through speaking, reading or writing.

6.4. THE NATURAL APPROACH

The Natural Approach, which was developed by Terrell in 1977 in the USA, is in essence the classroom approach most closely associated with Krashen's Monitor Model of second language acquisition and its major tenets correlate closely to Krashen's hypotheses. The Natural Approach is similar to the Communicate Approach but it is based on its own set of hypotheses and it is claimed that it is adaptable to many teaching contexts for all students of all ages. This approach puts into practice the theory of second language acquisition that Krashen developed. The Natural Approach is designed primarily to enable a beginner level student to reach acceptable levels of oral communicative ability with the foreign language vocabulary items. The central tenet of The Natural Approach is that "acquisition occurs in a natural order when students receive comprehensible input, messages they understand." (Freeman-Freeman 1998:19). Vocabulary is acquired by a natural order an comprehension is the key factor in the foreign language vocabulary acquisition.

The Natural Approach can be identified with what might be called as *traditional approaches* to language teaching. Krashen and Terrell, the two influential names in the birth of this approach, define traditional approach as "based on the use of language in communicative situations without recourse to the native language" or without referring to any sort of " grammatical analysis or grammatical drilling or to a particular theory of grammar" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986 : 128) While the study of grammar is viewed largely a matter of "individuals pre-class preparation", Natural Approach emphasizes the learning of "much vocabulary which is used in classroom communication" (Rivers, 1981:256) In the light of the points mentioned above it can be said that in the Natural Approach , the vocabulary is seen as a basic factor in communication and for the acquisition process as it is believed that acquisition will not take place without comprehension of vocabulary.

On the other hand, in this approach the learners did not say anything in *the silent period* until the speech *emerges.* One argument against in the silent period is that the delay of oral production can be pushed too far (Brown, 1993 : 99-100) Bearing in mind vocabulary teaching and the above mentioned points about the silent period, it can be said that the mastery of the lexical items will be enhanced and students will develop correct pronunciation of the words presented.

6.4.1. Principles and Theory of Language and Learning

The Natural Approach is based on a theoretical model consisting of five hypotheses:

1- The Acquisition-learning Hypothesis (the distinction between natural

acquisition as seen in L1 and the formal learning that emphasizes conscious rules and error corrections) It claims that there two different kinds of gaining knowledge . Learning is a conscious process and usually takes place in the classroom environment. Acquisition, however, is a subconscious process which is prone to happen in natural settings. Krashen further argues that acquired knowledge is more permanent and useful in learners' performance, but learned knowledge is just conscious knowledge of rules which has little or no role in actual communication

2- The Natural Order Hypothesis (that vocabulary items tend to be naturally acquired in a predictable order without artificial sequencing of input). It claims that all linguistic elements and skills are learned in a predictable order which resembles the order of first language acquisition. This order is not influenced by the native language of the learners. The idea of natural order is similar to Postovsky's comprehension approach and Asher's bio-program.

3- The Monitor Hypothesis (that conscious learning has the limited function monitoring or editing language performance) .It claims that acquired knowledge is used for communication while learned knowledge is only used for monitoring and repairing the output. This learned knowledge becomes active when there is sufficient time, focus on form, and knowledge of the rules. Learners do not use their monitor equally; thus, they may be optimal users, under-users or over-users of their monitors.

4- The Input Hypothesis (that language is acquired when input is an interesting and relevant context that is slightly above one's current level of competence) .It claims that in order for a student to understand and learn

language, s/he must be exposed to the linguistic input that is a little beyond his /her current level of competence. Krashen summarizes his view in his famous i + 1 concept which indicates that the input the learner receives must contain some slight amount of new information in addition to what s/he already knows.

5- The Affective Filter Hypothesis (that attitudinal factors are related language acquisition). (Zimmerman 1997). It claims that the learner's affective and emotional status can act as a filter which, if active, does not allow easy absorption of input. In other words, if the learner is anxious, or does not feel secure in the class, the affective filter will hinder the process of learning and thus s/he will not be able to benefit from the input.

6- The main goal of Natural Approach is to develop communicative skills. The teachers should aim at making the students acquire the ability to communicate messages in the target language. The students' attention should be focused on meaning rather than structure and form. It is also believed that the rules of the grammar can be acquired more effectively if the goals are communicative.

7- Acquisition activities are central. Since acquisition is central to developing communicative skills, the great majority of class time is developed to activities which provide input for acquisition.

That is, the Natural Approach stands on these hypotheses and it emphasizes the comprehensible and the meaningful input rather than structurally correct production with vocabulary items. According to Krashen and Terrell, vocabulary is basic to communication. For them, if acquirers

do not recognize the meanings of the keywords used by those who address them, they will be unable to participate in the conversation. And if they wish to express some idea or ask for information they must be able to produce lexical items to convey their meaning. If the learners know morphology and syntax of an utterance addressed to them, but do not know the meanings of the key vocabulary items, they will be unable to participate in the communication. For this reason, they criticize the approaches which do not give enough importance to the acquisition of vocabulary until morphology and syntax of the foreign language are mastered (Krashen-Terrell: 1983). Vocabulary is the key factor in giving meaning to the utterance.

According to The Natural Approach acquisition depends on the comprehensible input. In addition, this comprehensibility depends on the ability to recognize the meaning of key elements in the utterance. Without comprehension of vocabulary items, acquisition does not take place. "Vocabulary continues to play a dominant role in the early speech stage. Indeed, as students begin to produce one-and two-word utterances, the instructor expands the input with new vocabulary. As speech develops, vocabulary remains important as the learners begin to expand their range of interaction in the target language to new topics and new situations.

The recommended teaching method for vocabulary emphasizes the importance of interesting and relevant input and learners' attention is focused on the understanding of the message. "Just as a particular effective acquisition activity, for example, may entail the use of certain

grammatical structures, the activity is not designed to teach that structure. The same is true of vocabulary; activities are not necessarily vocabulary builders. Students' attention is not on vocabulary learning per se but on communication." (Krashen and Terrell 1983:156). By this way true vocabulary acquisition is tried to be encouraged. For students beyond the beginning level, this approach suggests that reading is the most efficient way of acquiring new vocabulary items. Their view is that reading is the optimal form of comprehensive input.

6.4.2. Syllabus

Natural Approach employs a topical and situational syllabus which mirrors the target settings. Being introduced to basic everyday situations, the learners acquire basic oral and written communication skills. At later stages, more complicated skills, meeting the learners' needs may be included in the syllabus such as taking part in a technical conversation and taking notes while reading a book. It is generally based on selection of communicative activities and topics derived from learner needs.
Richards & Rodgers (1990: 135) state the basic goals of the Natural Approach as follow:

1- basic personal communication skills : oral, e.g. listening to announcements in public areas,
2- basic personal communication skills : written, e.g. reading and writing personal letters,
3- academic learning skills : oral, e.g. listening to a lecture,
4- academic learning skills : written, e.g. taking notes in class.

Of these, Krashen and Terrell note that the Natural Approach is primarily designed to develop basic communication skills – both oral and written. They observe that communication goals may be expressed in

terms of situations, functions and topics. The second point of view holds that the purpose of a language course will vary according to the needs of the students and their particular interests (Krashen & Terrell, 1983 : 65)

> *The goals of the Natural Approach class are based on an assessment of student needs. We determine the situations in which they will use the target language and the sorts of topics they will have to communicate information about. In setting communication goals , we do not expect the students at the of a particular course to have acquired a certain group of structures or forms. Instead we expect them to deal with a particular set of topics in a given situation. We do not organize the activities of the class about a grammatical syllabus (Krashen & Terrell, 198: 71)*

From this point of view it is difficult to specify communicative goals that necessarily fit the needs of all students. Thus any list of topics and situations must be understood as syllabus suggestions rather than as specifications.

6.4.3. Learner and Teacher Roles

What the teacher does in the classroom can be summarized in three major roles: S/he is the source of comprehensible input through exposing learners to a large amount of the target language; s/he creates a friendly and interesting atmosphere to lower the affective filter; and s/he selects appropriate materials and activities. Regarding error correction an Natural Approach teacher is not very active. The underlying idea is that errors indicate the gradual progress of language learners and only the errors that impede communication need to be corrected.

Teachers should always speak in the second language and they should choose content that is of interests to the students and focus their attention on the content rather than the language used to convey that information. They are to focus students' attention on meaning rather than language forms and structures. Teachers are the primary source of comprehensible input. They should create positive low-anxiety climate. They should choose and orchestrate a rich mixture of classroom activities involving a variety of group sizes, content and contexts. Teachers are seen as responsible for collecting materials and designing their use. These materials should be based on students' needs and interests.

In addition teachers allow the natural order for acquiring grammatical structures to occur in class. They expect students to use their monitors when writing, when preparing a speech, and when doing homework, but not in oral classroom communication activities. They stress providing students with large amounts of comprehensible oral input. Teachers should create a classroom atmosphere that is interesting, friendly and in which there is a low affective filter learning. For that reason, they should attempt to lower the affective filter by making no demands for early language production, by permitting students to decide when they are ready to talk, by allowing them to answer in a manner that suits their perceived linguistic abilities, and by refraining from correcting errors directly. They diminish the influence of aptitude by concentrating in class on acquisition activities. They minimize interference from the first language by not requiring students to produce language before they have an internalized language data base with which to create meaningful utterances. They take differences in age into account by varying the content according to interest and by acknowledging that adults seem to benefit more from learning exercises than children.

Since this approach allows learners to progress gradually and in stages, the learners' roles change from one stage to another. In the *pre-production stage*, learners usually give non-verbal responses such as nods, facial expressions, and physical movements. That is this stage involves the development of the listening comprehension skills. In the *early production stage*, learners are welcomed to produce short responses to the teacher's questions. The teacher focuses on meaning here, not on form, and therefore the teacher does not make a point of correcting errors during this stage (unless they are big errors that block or hinder meaning) As the learners gain more practice in speaking, they enter the *speech-emergent stage* when they are able to produce longer sentences involving more complex games, role-plays, open-ended dialogs, discussions, and extended small group work. Since the objective in this stage is to promote fluency, teachers are asked to be very sparse in their correction of errors (Brown, 2001 : 31) That is to say, students begin to produce language. The production of newly learned language develops gradually. At the beginning, the students give just one-word answers to the questions. As they master the language, they begin to form larger groups of words. Finally, they gain the ability to form complete sentences.

Learners are mainly have four kinds of responsibilities in the Natural Approach classrooms (Richards & Rogers, 2001 : 187) :

1- provide information about their specific goals so that acquisition activities can focus on the topics and situations most relevant to their needs,
2- take an active role in ensuring comprehensible input. They should learn and use conversational management techniques to regulate input,
3- decide when to start producing speech and when to upgrade it,
4- where learning exercises – grammar study, for example – are to be a part of the program, decide with the teacher the relative amount

of time to be devoted to them and perhaps even complete and correct them independently.

Needless to say, learners shouldn't try to learn language in the usual sense, but should try to lose themselves in activities involving meaningful communication. Learners should attend to meaning instead of form and they should learn to comprehend language before they begin to produce it. In the beginning stages students may respond with nonlinguistic signals. As they begin to use language they may answer with one word such as *Yes, There, Here, Me*, etc. The next step is to form groups of two or three words, this time, such as paper on the table, *Where book?, What color ?, How many students ?*, etc. Later, they will tend to use phrases like, Where *you going?, What he doing ?, Where the teacher ?*, etc.. At a more advanced stage they have the ability to string words into complete sentences. Finally, they progress to the point at which they can participate in more complex discourse. That is , learners are expected to participate in communication activities with other learners.

6.4.4. Strong Sides

Here are the some specific strong sides of the Natural Approach.

1- One of the strong points is that The Natural Approach tries to teach the vocabulary items in the most meaningful way. "True vocabulary acquisition with long-term retention occurs only with meaningful exposure in situations in which real communication takes place." (Krashen and Terrell 1983:156). The communicative use of the newly learned vocabulary items is taken into consideration.

2- Another strong point of this approach is that it offers natural way of

acquisition for foreign language vocabulary items like it happens it the acquisition of the vocabulary of the L1. It gives attention to the feelings of the learners because it affects the acquisition of vocabulary items. By the help of The Natural Approach, vocabulary teaching regained its emphasis on foreign language vocabulary teaching.

3- On a more positive note, as Brown (2001:31-32) states most teachers and researchers agree that they are all too prone to insist that learners speak right away , and so they can take from the Natural Approach the good advice that for a period of time, while students grow accustomed to the new language , their silence is beneficial. Through TPR and other forms of input, students' language egos are not easily threatened and they are forced into immediate risk-taking that could embarrass them. The resulting self-confidence eventually can spur a student to venture to speak out.

6.4.5. Weak Sides

After mentioning its strong sides, here some defects or shortcomings of the Natural Approach will be discussed as follow:

1- The major weak point of The Natural Approach is that this approach can be used most efficiently in beginning levels, since children have less capacity and need for conscious learning in advanced levels,

2- The Natural approach only offers reading activities which is not enough for foreign language vocabulary development. The supporters of The Natural Approach claim that the students learn new vocabulary items

within a few sessions but trying to teach more items in a limited time stems to confusion in understanding the meanings of the items.

3- It may be argued that The Natural Approach to foreign language vocabulary acquisition is impractical because time is limited and in that limited time only a small range of topics can be discussed. The teacher may not be able to create a meaningful situation for the of newly learned vocabulary items in communication activities.

4- Theoretically, except for the monitor hypothesis the other four hypotheses were somehow pointed out by other scholars before Krashen. Furthermore, the whole model is not falsifiable since it does not lend itself to empirical research. As far as it concerned, commands are taken from TPR method; mimes, games, and picture descriptions from Direct Method; and group discussions from CLL. In the actual process of teaching, Natural Approach suffers from other problems. Infrequent corrections may cause fossilization. Speaking may not emerge at the same time in all learners. Due to the subjectivity of the concept of comprehensible input, the amounts of ***i*** and ***1*** are not easy to determine. That is, it can be said that the most controversial aspects of the Natural Approach were its advocacy of a *silent period* – delay of oral production – and its heavy emphasis on comprehensible input. They delay of oral production until speech *emerges* has shortcomings. What about the students whose speech never emerges? And with all students at different timetables for this so-called emergence, how does the teacher manage a classroom efficiently? (Brown, 2001: 31) Furthermore, the concept of comprehensible input is difficult to pin down as Langi (1984:18) noted:

> *How does one know which structures the learners are to be provided with ? From the examples of teacher talk provided in the book (Krashen and Terrell, 1983) communication interactions seem to be guided by the topic of conversation rather than by the structures of the language. The decision of which structures to use appears to be left to some mysterious sort of intuition which many teachers may not possess.*

6.4.6. Contributions to ELT

The Natural Approach is designed to enable students to talk about ideas, perform tasks and solve problems with relative ease. More specific objectives may be taken into consideration depending on the requirements of the learners. This approach, at the same time, brought the use of the instructional materials to the language teaching fields in order to reinforce communication and comprehension. Pictures and other visual materials are used since they build up the content for communication. Authentic materials can also be used if they are appropriate to the level and interest of the students. Games work very well in Natural Approach classes since there the students have to interact in order to participate.

On the other hand, the tasks which are given to the students in the Natural Approach classes are a bit beyond their proficiency level. However, for a successful and effective teaching and learning the teachers began to learn how to start the tasks. So, by the help of this approach teacher became aware of starting from what the students know or what is easier. If the tasks are difficult from the beginning than no effective learning can take place since they will not understand what is being done and they will be threatened by the learning situation. Thus, no communication will take place. In addition to this, classes became mostly student-centered thanks to this approach.

6.4.7. Related Methods

Suggestopedia, Situational Language Teaching, Communicative Language Teaching are the offspring methods of this approach. In Communicative Language Teaching (CLT, henceforth) students learn language in order to be able to communicate appropriately, that is, in a socially acceptable manner. Therefore, at the beginning of CLT, communication or communicative competence has a great importance as the matter of mutual intelligibility. According to Freeman (1986:99-100) the

goal of the teachers who use CLT in their classes is to have the students become communicatively competent because communicative competence involves being able to use the language appropriately to a given social context. To this, students need knowledge of the linguistic forms, meanings, and functions. They must be able to choose the most appropriate form. The role of the teacher, on the other hand, is a facilitator of his students' learning. The teacher is also a manager of classroom activities. The most obvious characteristic of the CLT is that almost everything that is done is done with a communicative intent. Students use the language a great deal through communicative activities such as games, role-plays, and problem solving tasks. Another characteristic of this method is the use of authentic materials. It is considered to give students an opportunity to develop strategies for understanding language as it is actually used by native speakers.

In CLT classes it is important to introduce the language as it is used in real context. Later on, the teacher may tell the students to underline the reporter's predictions and to say which ones they think the reporter feels most certain of and which he feels least certain of this. The teacher does so because being able to figure out the speaker or writer's intentions is part of being communicatively competent. Then, teacher gives the students the dimensions for the activity in the target language since the target language is a vehicle for classroom communication, not just the object of the study. Students try to state the answers. In CLT classes small group work is useful because it allows each student more opportunity to communicate. During the activities teacher moves from group to group offering advice and answering questions since one of his major role in this method is to act as an advisor. Students are also given opportunities to develop strategies for interpreting language as it is actually used by native speakers. Therefore, they may be given homework such as listening to the radio news channel or watching it on television. That is to say, CLT

requires more than attention to strategies for presenting the structures and functions of language. Furthermore, this method is based on the idea that learning a language is not just a matter of learning vocabulary and structures, but also it involves knowing how to use language appropriately, carrying out the language in a social context. Techniques may be used with this method are tape-recording students' conversations, role-plays, reflective listening, games, small group tasks, and transcriptions.

Situational Language Teaching, on the other hand, is designed according to the types of learning and teaching activities, learner and teacher roles. That is, the design of a method or an instructional system will be influenced by how learners are regarded and learner roles are also closely linked to the teacher's function and status. In this method, with the term of situation it is meant that the use of concrete objects, pictures, and realia can be set up in language classes to demonstrate the meanings of new language items. It is pointed out that the students are required to listen and repeat what the teacher says, especially at the beginning of the teaching process. They are also wanted to respond to the questions asked by the teacher and finally to command. The teacher is the controller in SLT activities. The learner has no control over the content of learning. And as the learners become more familiar with the target language, more active participation is expected from them. This activity starts with the beginning responses and goes on asking each other question. All these activities are done under the control of the teacher (Richards & Rogers, 1986: 38) Activities include chorus repetition, dictation, drills, and controlled oral-based reading and writing tasks.

Suggestopedia is on the other methods used in Natural Approach classes. This method deals with the elimination of the psychological barriers of the learners. Learners may think that they will be unable to perform, that they will fail or be limited in their ability to learn (Sarıçoban, 2001:15-16) One result can be said that learners do not use their full

mental powers they have. Therefore, this should be disuggested. To do this, Suggestology was developed to help them believe that they can succeed and become successful users of the target language. Thus, it will help them to overcome the barriers to learning. As it seems this method tries to bring solutions to learners' negative feelings about the learning of a target language.

Classes in Suggestopedia are conducted in a living-room atmosphere with carpets, easy chairs, posters, curtains, etc. In this classrooms everyday language is practiced through dialogs where they are accompanied by soft classical music. Dialogs are written in both native and the target language of the learners. Homework is minimal, the learners are only asked to read the following day's dialogs at home, not to memorize. Techniques used in the application of this method are role-plays, choosing a new identity, peripheral learning, etc.

6.4.8. Discussion Questions for Students

1- Discuss the underlying theory of the Natural Approach in terms of ELT?
2- What are the main contributions of this approach to ELT?
3- What are the roles of the teachers?
4- Why is this approached called Natural?
5- Is this approach really suitable for second language learning? Why?

6.4.9. Basic Techniques and Exercise / Activity Types

Activities should include comprehensible input about things in the here – and now. Focus on meaning, not form, is important. Most of the techniques or activities used in the Natural Approach are taken from the methods mentioned above and organized in a way to meet the requirements of the Natural Approach. These techniques generally include command based activities in which mime, gestures, and context are used to elicit questions and answers and the practice of structures and patterns

based on situations; group work activities which are similar to CLT and classroom discussions in CLT; charts, pictures, advertisements, real objects, acquisition activities, dialogs, and so on from Suggestopedia. Here we will handle the application of some of these activities / exercises in terms of teaching vocabulary, reading, writing, listening and speaking.

6.4.9.1. Teaching of Vocabulary

Visuals, especially magazine or newspaper pictures, real objects or drawings can be employed in order to teach new vocabulary items. Teachers may use commands or the principles of some methods. Presentation and teaching of the vocabulary items should be done either in a context or around topic or situational based activities. The following is an example for teaching some vocabulary items:

6.4.9.1.1. Activity 1

Teacher tries to teach some physical characteristics and the clothing of people. S/he can use the members of the class. S/he can use context and the items themselves to make meanings of the key words such as *hair, long, short, curly, brown hair*, etc. Then, teacher selects a students and beings to describe him / her:

T : What is your name ?

S : Barbara.

T : Class. Look at Barbara. She has brown hair. Her hair is long and brown. Her hair is not short. It is long. (Using mime, pointing or context to ensure comprehension, teacher goes on the questions.)

T : What is the name of the student with long brown hair ?

C : Barbara

T: What is the name of the student sitting net to the boy with short brown hair and glasses?

C : Tom

T : Does the girl sitting next to window have curly and brown hair ?

C: Yes.

T : What is the name of the girl, then, sitting next to window with curly and brown hair ?

C : Sandra.

As it is seen in the example using the techniques of some methods, teacher may teach the new vocabulary items by the participation of the class. Later, this activity may be done with articles of clothing and colors. For example,

T: Who is wearing a black jacket?

C: Martin.

T : Who is wearing a brown skirt ?

C: Elizabeth.

T : Look the boy at the back row. What color shirt is wearing?

C: White.

6.4.9.1.2. Activity 2: Using Commands

This activity can be accomplished by increasing the number of the questions until the meaning of the new words can be understood clearly. On the other hand, teachers can use some commands in order to teach vocabulary. For example, teacher may bring some real objects to the classroom it possible. (Otherwise, drawings, pictures, wall charts, etc. can be used) For example, teacher can bring *a pen, a matchbox, a briefcase, a ball,* etc. into the classroom to teach these words. By using the commands, s/he can say to the student(s): *Pick up the pencil!, Show the briefcase!, Touch the matchbox! Take the ball! , Throw the ball to me! , etc.* So, number of the commands can be increased according to the level of the students.

6.4.9.1.3. Activity 3: Using Pictures

Another way of teaching vocabulary is to use pictures. For example, teacher introduces the pictures to the entire class one at a time focusing usually on one single item or activity in the picture. S/he may introduce one to five new words while talking about the picture. S/he then passes the picture to a particular student in the class. The students' task is to remember the name of the student with a particular picture, for example,

> *Tom has the picture of the sailboat. Joan has the picture of the family watching television, Susan has the picture of the man in black shoes, Pamela has the picture of a dog chasing a cat, Andy has a picture of the White House, etc.* Then, teacher asks questions like, *Who has the picture with the sailboat? , Does Susan or Pamela have the picture of the dog chasing a cat? , Does Joan have the picture of the White House? etc.* Again the students need only to produce a name in response.

This activity can be applied into a game using the commands of TPR again. For example, teacher takes all the pictures and put them on a

desk. Later, s/he asks one of the students to find the correct picture. For example,

T: Susan, go to the desk and find the picture of Pamela!

T : Andy come here and find your picture !

Later, teacher delivers the pictures to students at random and asks, *Those who have a sailboat in his /her picture, raise his / her hand! or ' If there is a dog in your picture, stand up !, etc.*

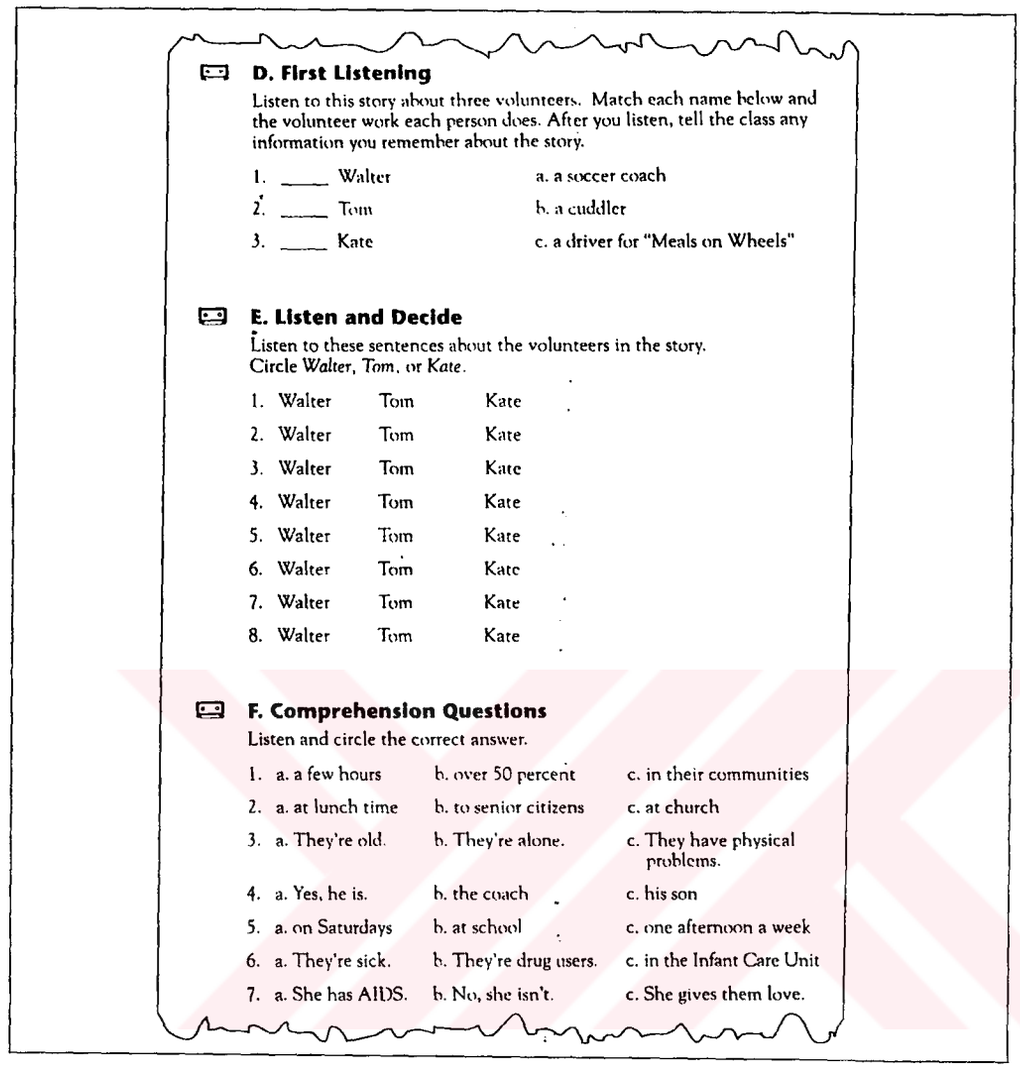
In all these activities, teacher maintains a comprehensible input, using key vocabulary items, appropriate gestures, context, repetition and paraphrase to ensure the comprehensibility of the input.

6.4.9.2. Teaching Listening

In the Natural Approach, as it mentioned above, listening takes place in basic personal communication skills. For that reason, activities such as *listening to announcements in the public areas, interviews, conversations, speeches, broadcasts*, etc. may be employed. In the area of listening for academic purposes, the influence of discourse makers play an important role. On the other hand, another important factor in teaching speaking is the difficulty level of the task-based exercises. In order to eliminate these types of difficulties teachers should pay attention to the organization of information, the explicitness and sufficiency of the information, the type of referring expressions, etc. Here, the following exercise was taken from *Nunan, 1999:206* .

6.4.9.2.1. Listening Activity

This exercise included three stages in order to increase the comprehensible input of the learners. These stages are: pre-listening section, while listening part and comprehension questions section.



D. First Listening

Listen to this story about three volunteers. Match each name below and the volunteer work each person does. After you listen, tell the class any information you remember about the story.

1. _____ Walter		a. a soccer coach
2. _____ Tom		b. a cuddler
3. _____ Kate		c. a driver for "Meals on Wheels"

E. Listen and Decide

Listen to these sentences about the volunteers in the story.
Circle *Walter*, *Tom*, or *Kate*.

1.	Walter	Tom	Kate
2.	Walter	Tom	Kate
3.	Walter	Tom	Kate
4.	Walter	Tom	Kate
5.	Walter	Tom	Kate
6.	Walter	Tom	Kate
7.	Walter	Tom	Kate
8.	Walter	Tom	Kate

F. Comprehension Questions

Listen and circle the correct answer.

1.	a. a few hours	b. over 50 percent	c. in their communities
2.	a. at lunch time	b. to senior citizens	c. at church
3.	a. They're old.	b. They're alone.	c. They have physical problems.
4.	a. Yes, he is.	b. the coach	c. his son
5.	a. on Saturdays	b. at school	c. one afternoon a week
6.	a. They're sick.	b. They're drug users.	c. in the Infant Care Unit
7.	a. She has AIDS.	b. No, she isn't.	c. She gives them love.

A challenge for the teacher in the listening classroom is to give learners some degree of control over the content of the lesson and to personalize content so learners are able to bring something of themselves to the task (Nunan, 1999:211) Another way of increasing learner involvement is by providing extension tasks that take the listening material as a point of departure, but which then lead learners into providing part of the content themselves. For example, the students might listen to someone, a discussion, a lecture, a public announcement, etc. describing the work , action, etc. the work they do and then create a set of questions for interviewing the person. Here are some examples:

6.4.9.2.2. Note taking

T: Watch the video and answer the questions.

1- Have you has any experiences like these students?
2- Do you think people have experiences like these when visiting your country of origin?

6.4.9.2.3. Survey Analysis

T : Imagine you are taking part in an airport survey. Listen and circle a response for each question.

a- Sure.	*OK. As long as it doesn't take too long.*
b- Yes, I did.	*No, it was pretty short.*
c- Yes- they're fine.	*I do not think so. I think they need to do better.*
d- Yes, it did.	*No, I had to wait a long time, actually.*
e- You're welcome.	*Don't mention it.*

6.4.9.2.4. Word Recognition

This activity may be applied using different types of commands and for different situations. For example,

a- Match a word that you hear with its picture.
b- Listen to a weather report. Look at a list of words and circle the words that you hear.
c- Listen to sentence that contains clock time. Circle the clock time that you hear among three choices: *5:30, 5:45, 6:15,* for example.
d- Listen to an advertisement, select the price of an item and write the amount on a piece of tag.
e- Listen to a series of recorded telephone messages from an answering machine – used for nonreciprocal listening tasks such as store announcements, announcements on public

transportations, etc. – and fill in a chart with the following information from each caller: *name, number, time and message.*

f- Listen to a series of radio commercials. On your answer sheet are four possible motives that the companies use to appeal to their customers. Circle all the motives that you feel each commercial promotes: *escape from reality, family security, snob appeal, sex appeal, etc.*

6.4.9.2.5. Listening for Information / Advertisements

This activity includes a television and a radio advertisement. Teacher wants students to work either in groups or in pairs. The following script was taken from *Headway, Pre-Intermediate, 1994 :31* .

Listening and Speaking

- **Five radio advertisements**

Pre-listening task

1 Is there an advertisement on the television or in the newspapers at the moment that you particulary like? What is it for?

2 Read the definitions of the following words.

break (n) a rest; an advertisement on radio or television

fair (n) a large exhibitionof commercial goods, e.g. a book / motor fair

ferry (n) a boat that carries people and /or cars across rivers and seas

grown-up (n) an adult

kid (n) another word for a child

3 Work in groups.

Imagine you work in advertising. How can you sell the following things? What information will you give about them in the advertisement?

- a soft drink
- a musical at the theatre
- a cross-Channel ferry
- a new kind of frozen potato dish
- a motor fair

Compare your suggestions

Listening for Information

T.11 You will hear five radio advertisements. They are for the things you walked about in question 3 above, but not in the same order. Listen to them and say what each one is for.

The first one is an advertised for .....

Comprehension check

Try to answer the following questions. Then listen to the advertisements again.

1 What is the name of the food in the first advertisement?
2 What is the name of the ferry company?
3 What is the name of the musical?
4 When does the motor fair end?
5 What is the name of the soft drink?
6 How do you cook Oven Crynchies?
7 How much is a day-trip from Dover?
8 Where can you get tickets for the musical?
9 What are some of the extras the amn wanted in his Cadillac?
10 What can you get when you buy Coca-Cola?

Group work

Work in groups of four.

Think of the radio advertisement to make people come to a private English language school. What information will you give (prices, location, best teachers) ? Will the advertisement have a story *(Before I came to this school, my English was terrible, but now* .....) ?

6.4.9.3. Teaching Speaking

Listening and speaking activities are closely related to each other. The interaction between these two modes of performance applies especially strongly to conversation, the most popular discourse category in the profession (Brown, 2001: 267). And in the classroom even relatively unidirectional types of spoken language input – speeches, lectures, etc. – are often followed by various forms of oral production on the part of the students. But, it must be borne in mind that there are some factors that influence the spoken language in terms of learners. For example, *inhibition* – problems about trying to say things in the classroom and worried about making mistakes; *motive* – complaining about the fact that they cannot think of anything to say ; participation – problems about taking parts in conversations ; *mother tongue interference* – influence of the native tongue ; *lexical choice* – structural difficulties in making statements ; *personality* – influence of anxiety, being extrovert / introvert students, inhibitory factors, etc. and *fluency and accuracy* . The Natural Approach attaches more importance to the influence of the affective factors of all these because it believes that speaking may become more effective when these factors are eliminated. So, teaching speaking activities should be designed after all the factors mentioned above are lessen or eliminated. In The Natural Approach classes some activities or exercises may be used. For example, *questionnaires, role-plays, discussions, communication games, acting from a script*, etc. Here are some examples.

6.4.9.3.1. Role Play

This activity was taken from *TESOL, 1985:125.* Here are three different tasks which guide learners to improve their spoken English. **T:** Assign parts and act out the following situations. Encourage initiative and creativity with different outcomes when a situation is repeated. Try to keep the discussions friendly and polite.

Task1:

A nearby family has a small boy who repeatedly tugs sharply at your sleeve and then pretends he wasn't the one who annoyed you. You speak to his mother and ask her to do a better job of supervising him. The boy protests his innocence and his father, a boor, backs him up and tells you to quit bothering the child.

Task2 :

You try to get a waiter's attention, but he has too many tables to attend to, and he tries to ignore you. You finally get up and walk over to where he is and tell him he is waiting on tables of guests that arrived after you did. He is offended and the rest of the night consists of poor service and further complaints. You leave a very small tip and the waiter tries to embarrass you publicly as you

Task 3:

Your teacher makes a flagrantly false statement and you try to suggest it is erroneous without causing any offense. The teacher is sensitive and prefers to think you are trying to make him look inadequate in the eyes of the other students.

6.4.9.3.2. Directed Dialogs

This exercise can very easily be carried on for as long as students maintain an interest in the discussion. It has several good features: it can be used to elicit full sentence statements or questions; they can be made easy from difficult to fit the needs and abilities of classes through a wide range of proficiency. According to one of the roles of students in the Natural approach, students should take an active role in ensuring comprehensible input. Therefore, directed dialog technique lends itself to a very useful procedure: *fading* that involves the withdrawal of the teacher stimulus and participation in an activity, so more and more responsibility is passed to the students. For example, teacher wants students to listen to the instructions and suggestions and then students are addressed to carry out the instructions to the best of their ability. In this way students have a chance to review the structures they have learned. The following script was taken from *Bowen & Madsen, 1985 : 109.*

Instruction: *Listen to the instructions and suggestions the teacher will give to individual students. The students addressed should carry out the instructions to the best of their ability.*

Ellen, ask Lee if she's ever been to Hawaii.
Ellen: Have you ever been to Hawaii, Lee?
Lee: No, I haven't.
Ellen, ask her if she knows anyone in the class who has been there.
Ellen :Do you know anyone in the class who has been there?
Lee: I think Ann has.
Lee, you're not sure? Ask her!
Lee: Ann, you have been to Hawaii, haven't you?
(Let Ann answer without a request if she can and will)
Ann: Yes. I was there two years ago.
Ellen, ask her how long she was in Hawaii and what took her there.
Ellen: What does it mean to ask " what took her"?
Who can help interpret " what took her" ?
Ralph: I think it means "Why did she go there?"
Is that right Rita?
Nita: Yes, I think so.
OK, Ellen. Now your question.
Ellen: How long were you in Hawaii, Ann, and why did you go?
Ann: Two weeks; it was our vacation.
.....

6.4.9.3.3. Situations

Students are given some situations and then are asked to tell something about the situations. For example, teacher says: Tell me what you say when .....

** you want to look at things in a shop, but you don't want the assistant to help you.*

** you want to say something to somebody who is talking to someone else*

** somebody telephones you, but he wanted a different number*

** you get the bill in a restaurant and you wondered if you have to pay service, too*

** you want to have the tank of your car filled, but you want unleaded petrol at the station*

** you need a material because you want to kill insects*

** you remind a customer what time it is before the lunch time*

6.4.9.3.4. Discussions

Students work in groups and listen to these extracts from two different radio programs. What are the differences between news broadcast on a popular radio station and news broadcast on a more serious radio station? Discuss, for example, *the use of music, the tone of voice and speed of delivery of the newsreader, the kind of language used, how the news items are constructed, etc.(From Intermediate Matters, 1998 : 98)*

6.4.9.3.5. Questionnaire

Questionnaires often take place in the first stage of the teaching process. The aim of this activity is to make students interacting with others. The activity starts when the teacher talks to the students about the 5 or 6 most popular films that are currently on show or which have been extremely popular in the last months. They are then told that they are going to find out which of these films is the most popular one in the class. The teacher hands out the following questionnaire form – or writes it on the board and has the students copy it.

Name of the film	Tick if seen	Good( ) satisfactory ( ) Bad (x) very bad (x x)

They put the names of the films they have discussed in the left-handed column. Then class begins to discuss the questions by asking questions each other and they complete the charts about their partner. Later teacher gets a student up to the board and asks them to fill in the chart based on what students have found out. e.g. *How many people have seen X?, How many of you have thought that X was very good ?,* etc. Students are encouraged to say which was the best one, who their favorite actors are, etc. The results of the questionnaire was put on the board.

6.4.9.3.5. Acting from a Script

The aim of this activity is to enable students interpreting a text. If students are studying a textbook dialog, for example, teacher might tell them that they should disregard the textbook illustration and take the words and situations only. Learners should plan and film their own versions of the text. On the other hand, teacher might encourage the students to change aspects of the dialog which they do not like, so that even a textbook dialog becomes their own. Any text which involves human interaction can be exploited in this way.

6. 4.9.4. Teaching Reading

In the Natural Approach the most frequently used text are reading and writing personal letters. Other recommended materials include *schedules, brochures, advertisements, maps*, and *books* at levels appropriate to the students, if a reading component is included in the course. As it is mentioned above the primary goals of all these materials are to promote comprehension and communication. Here are some examples:

6.4.9.4.1. Reading Advertisements 1-Criticizing Reading Materials

The following text is an authentic-looking text, made accessible to not very advanced learners by its shortness, supporting graphic devices (different typefaces, illustration) .Students are given a picture related to an advertisement, a menu, a schedule, a information guide, etc. and are asked to make critics what are written in the texts. This sort of exercise is a good introduction to more advanced authentic reading task using unsimplified texts. This advertisement was taken from *Ur, 1996 : 151.*

BOX 10.12.1: READING TEXT AND TASK (1)

EXERCISE
Choose the best answers.

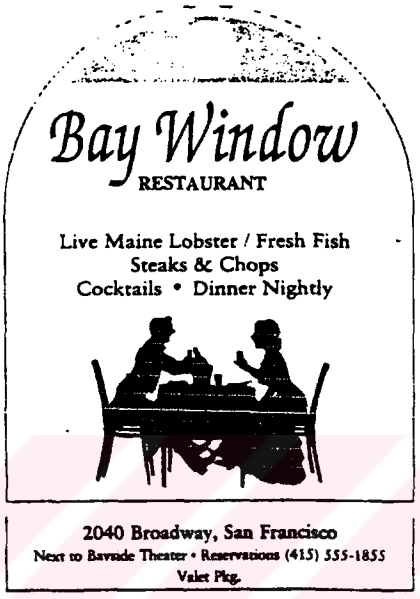
a. The Bay Window is
- a bar
- a restaurant
- a theater

b. You can order dinner at the Bay Window Restaurant
- on weeknights
- every night
- on weekends

c. Bay Window Restaurant advertises
- seafood only
- meat dishes only
- both seafood and meat dishes

d. Bay Window Restaurant is next to
- the Paramount Theater
- the Bayside Theater
- Bay View Community College

e. Bay Window Restaurant's telephone number is advertised so you can
- order dinner
- arrange for parking
- make reservations



(from Evelyne Davies, Norman Whitney, Meredith Pike-Blakey and Laurie Bass, *Task Reading*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, © 1990, pp.98-9)

6.4.9.4.2. Reading Advertisements 2

The following ads were taken from Reader at Work I, 1996:17. Students are asked to read the ads carefully and then answer the True/False questions given below.

WEST-END SCHOOL OF ENGLISH

21st Old Street London W2 1QB

Telephone: 01-402-7345

Telex: 860 703 WEND

We offer:

- *a small classes (maximum 12 students)*
- *friendly atmosphere*
- *social club*
- *special classes for Cambridge First Certificate*
- *accommodation service*
- *central London location*

EDWARDS COLLEGE OF ENGLISH

and Further Studies

Director: Richard James BA, MA

- *General English*
- *Specialist English (Business, Import/Export, Hotel Operations)*
- *Computer Courses*

For further information write or telephone to: Edwards College of English and Further Studies, Edwards House, Bristol CT9 3TP,England.

Tel: (0843)943276 Telex:654796Margie

****

OPERA

Coliseum English National Opera
revives **Madam Butterfly**
in Graham Vick's subtle production
8:00p.m. £18.50

The BIG BOYS

Sing their new song

YOU'RE DRIVING ME CRAZY

at the

University of Texas

Fri. and Sat.

8:00p.m.

Do you like Rock music?

Don't miss this concert!

808 University Avenue, 555 - 6000

THE

BERKELEY QUARTET

Now playing at the Concert Hall
at 8:30 p.m.
"a great classical music group"
Susan Treynor
of the Evening Star
Admission: $ 7.50.

****

If you are interested in practicing your French (or German, Italian, Spanish)
WHY NOT GET A PEN-FRIEND?
We have contacts in many countries
Write to:
Foreign Friends Agency
Bristol,B35 7H

6.4.9.4.2.1. *Make the statements as TRUE (T) or FALSE (F)*

1- *You want to study English in London. You phone 01 402 7235 for information*
2- *A ticket for Madam Butterfly is £ 8.00*
3- *The rock concert starts at eight in the evening.*
4- *You can get information about the Edwards College of English from the school secretary, Mr. Richard James.*
5- *The pen-friend club is in Brighton.*

6.4.9.4.3. Reading Personal Letters

Reading personal letters are useful exercises for learners in order to test their understanding about a certain discourse. These letters may be written in different formats including new vocabulary, so students are expected to get these special forms of the language. Here is an example from *Reader at Work I, 1996:64.*

54 New Street

Peterbrough Oct.2oth,

1996

Dear Bob & Carol,

I wanted to write to you some time ago, but we've been very busy this month with plans for a new home. Our flat's simply too small for us now that the children are older.

First we looked for a larger flat in town and found a modern 3-bedroomed flat quite near here. It wasn't far from Peter's office, so he liked it very much. The children were also happy because some of their friends lived next door. But when I saw the flat I knew I didn't want it. It was on the eighth floor of a large block of flats and you know I'm afraid of high places. It was also on a busy main road.

Then last week we saw an advertisement in the evening paper for a really cheap house in the country . But it was a bit far from town, so Peter didn't like the idea at first. But, we visited the place last weekend, and the children and I liked it immediately. It's over a hundred years old, so we must modernize it completely, but I don't mind that because it has got four large bedrooms. It's really big. The children loved it because there's a big garden to play in. there's a very good private school nearby and I think we'll send Chris and Claire there. The children and I were so enthusiastic that Peter finally agreed.

We're planning to move there next month. Luckily several friends have offered to help us. I'm sure we'll be very happy there.

Hoping to see you in our new home soon.

Love,

Kathy

A- Mark the statements as TRUE (T) or FALSE (F).

1- *No one in the family liked the new flat on the 8th floor.*
2- *A friend offered to rent his country house to Peter and Kathy.*
3- *The children's education won't be problem if Peter and Kathy buy the country house.*

B- Comprehension Questions

1- *Why didn't Kathy like the new flat ?*
2- *What was the advertisement about in the evening paper?*
3- *Why didn't Peter like the idea of living in the country house ?*
4- *What are the advantages of living in a country house?*
5- *Why should they modernize the house ?*
6- *Why did the children love the country house?*
7- *When were they planning to move the new house ?*

6.4.9.5. Teaching Writing

In the Natural Approach writing takes place an important role because at the speech emergent stage students are expected to produce longer statements not only in speech but also in writing. Writing activities are generally around basic personal communication skills, so activities are mainly included personal letters writing. Here are some kinds of activities.

6.4.9.5.1. Semi-Formal Letters

In this exercise *(Intermediate Matters, 1991:46)* students are given a sample letter. First they read the letter and try to guess: what the main topic of the letter is; who wrote it; what the purpose of the letter is; and they answer the 4 different exercises related to the text. For example,

3 Mr Adam Crew MP,
4 Conservative Club,
South Road,
SALISBURY.

1 25 Green Avenue
Salisbury

2 19th March 1995

5 Dear Mr Crew,

6 I am writing to express my concern that our country still continues to give money to organisations that are helping to destroy tropical rain forests.

7 For various reasons these rain forests have an ideal climate for plants and animals, so it is essential that we help preserve them. Firstly, they house over half the world's wildlife, such as tigers, mountain gorillas and birds of paradise. Secondly, one in every four products obtained from the chemist contains compounds from these rain forests and more are being discovered every year. Thirdly, and perhaps most importantly, these forests play an important role in the world's climate.

8 Rain forests are usually only found in the Third World, countries with weak economies which often owe large sums of money to the more developed countries. In some places, areas of forest are cut down to provide farmers with space to breed cattle. This earns valuable currency and gives us cheap beef for our hamburgers.

9 The only answer is for Britain to cancel the debts that these countries owe us. We need to try to influence those policies which result in forest destruction. If we do not act soon, we will destroy millions of years of evolution. This catastrophe must be stopped!

10 Yours sincerely,

Sarah Trebbit

11 Sarah Trebbit (Mrs)

2 Match the parts of the letter (1 to 11) with the following. Example: a) –7

a) Background information: saying why the rain forests are useful to us.
b) The date of the letter.
c) Concluding the letter by suggesting a solution and requesting action.
d) The name of the Member of Parliament (MP)
e) The formal close of the letter.
f) Saying what the reason for writing is.
g) The address of the person writing the letter.
h) Explaining why rain forests are destroyed.
i) The name of the person writing the letter.
j) The address of the Member of Parliament.
k) The formal start of the letter.

Exercise 1: Match the parts of the letter (1 to 11) with the following. E.g. a) -7

a) Background information : saying why the rain forests are useful to us
b) The date of the letter
c) Concluding the letter by suggesting a solution and requesting action
d) The name of the Member of Parliament (MP)
e) The formal close of the letter
f) Saying what the reason for writing is
g) The address of the person writing the letter
h) Explaining why rain forests are destroyed
i) The name of the person writing the letter
j) The address of the Member of Parliament
k) The formal sort of the letter

Exercise 2 : Say whether the following statements are True or False about writing semi-formal letters.

a) *We use contractions such as "We've, I've ",*
b) *The letter begins with an introduction and ends with a conclusion*
c) *The close of the letter is something like " Best wishes "*
d) *Each paragraph usually contains a different topic*
e) *When we start the letter with the person's name (Dear Mr/Mrs/Ms,etc.) we close the letter with " Yours sincerely "*

Exercise 3 : Match the words in italics in list A with their informal equivalents in List B.

A	***B***
As *requested*	get hold of
Please send it *at your earliest convenience*..	about
How can I *obtain*....	as you asked
When can I *make an appointment*...	I'm sorry
I am very *dissatisfied with*...	as soon as possible
I need to see you *concerning*...	arrange to come and see you

Exercise 4: Writing a letter to the Prime Minister

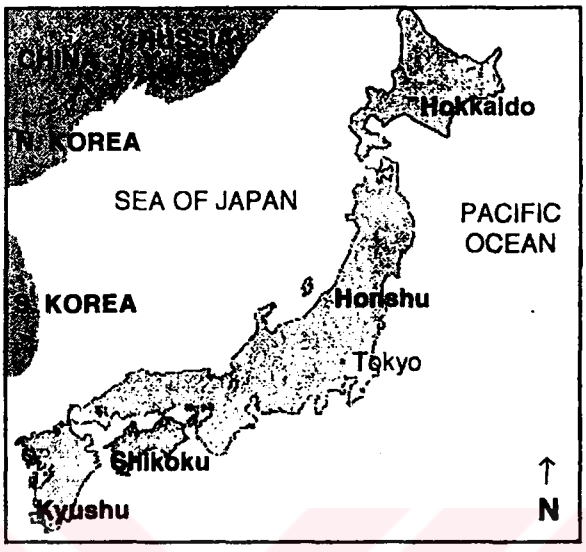
Task1: You are a Member of Parliament and you are going to write to the Prime Minister to give your views about what the Government should do to protect the environment. The letter will be semi-formal and consist of four or five short paragraphs.

Task 2: Write the letter (of no more than 150 words in total) to include at least one sentence which describes a result or a reason. Make sure you use the correct layout for semi-formal letter.

6.4.9.5.2. Writing with Information

In this type of activity some information is given to the students and they are asked to write a paragraph using the necessary information. The following is an example: (From *Writing Task I, 1998: 97*)

Study the information and write about the group of islands called Japan.



Capital: Tokyo
Total area: 142,726 sq. miles
Land: covered with rice paddies, forests
Terrain: volcanoes, mountains, small rivers
Climate: humid
Rainfall: heavy / throughout the year
Population: more than 100,000,000
Density: 699 per sq. mile
Language: Japanese (predominant)
Religion: Shintoism & Buddhism (predominant)
Christianity (0.75%)

6.4.9.5.3. Writing a Review with Genre-Analysis Kit

REVIEWERS' GENRE-ANALYSIS KIT

MEANING

What is being reviewed?

Does the reviewer like it?

What, if anything, was especially good about the thing / event being reviewed?

What, if anything, was especially bad about the thing / event being reviewed?

Who, if anybody, deserves credit for their part in it ?

Who, if anybody, should be criticized for their part in it;

What, if anything, does the thing / event remind the reviewer of ?

CONSTRUCTION

How is the headline /caption constructed?

What does each paragraph contain and how are the paragraphs sequenced?

What grammar and lexis is used to show approval?

What grammar and lexis is used to show disapproval?

(FromHarmer, 2001:263)

Writing reviews can be greatly enhanced by having students write in pairs or groups, keying their opinions directly into a word processor. Students who are writing within a certain genre need to consider a number of different factors such as topic, the conventions and the style of the genre and the context in which their writing will be read. In this type of activity we want our students to write reviews of plays, concerts, or films they have seen and to do this in a way which is appropriate for the kind of audience they are writing. First students are asked to look at a collection of reviews of plays and films, from newspapers, magazines and /or on the Internet. For each one they have to use the following to look at a collection of reviews of plays and films, from newspapers, magazines and /or on the Internet. For each one they have to use the following reviewers' genre-

analysis kit: By studying the reviews and answering the questions above about them, students build up a picture of how they are usually written. We can show them a video or get them to go to a play or a film. While watching it they make notes about such items as the plot, the characters, the performances, the music and the special effects.

In short, it can be said that the Natural Approach is similar to other communicative methods, but it is claimed that it is adaptable to many teaching contexts for all students of all ages. That is, in the Natural Approach comprehension and meaningful communication is important. The general goal of the approach is to develop the ability to communicate with native speakers of the target language, but this does not mean that grammatical accuracy is the primary aim. The main objective is to lay emphasis on spoken every day language as mentioned earlier. New words are explained by means of known words, that is, learning process leads from known to unknown. Meaning is taught by interference. Use of the L_1 is avoided. Active demonstration is an important technique of the Natural Approach. The learner is completely in a receptive position at the beginning just like a native speaker acquiring his/her native language. So, it takes into account the regularities of the language as well as its creative aspect.

CHAPTER 7

Approaches from 1980-2000

The years between 1980 and 2000 may be accepted as a kind of Post-method era since the approaches emerged during this period was seen somewhat independent from systematic or philosophical views. The approaches, therefore, which will be handled in this chapter, have been depending upon more semantic, cognition, and structural characteristics rather than fairly philosophical notions. These approaches may either be accepted as *alternative* or *communicative* approaches to language teaching for some scholars. First, the Whole (Integrated) Approach will be taken into consideration and then the new approach, namely the Lexical Approach will be examined in details.

7.1. THE WHOLE LANGUAGE APPROACH

The term Whole Language was created in the 1980s by a group of US educators concerned with the teaching of language arts, that is, reading and writing in the native language (Richards&Rogers,2001:108). It has a relationship with the educational psychology, which studies theories and problems in education, including the application of learning theory to classroom teaching and learning, curriculum development, testing and evaluation, and teacher education. The Whole Language Approach stresses learning to read and write naturally with a focus on real communication and reading and writing for pleasure. In the 1990s it became popular in the USA as a motivating and innovative way of teaching language arts skills to primary school children. It also relates to natural approaches to language learning since it is designed to help children and adults to learn a second language in the same way that children learn their first language.

Goodman (1986:12) claims that when we learn a language, we are able to use whole utterances. It is only later that we can see the parts in the whole, and hence, experiment with their relationship to each other and to the meaning of the whole. Therefore, the Whole language movement is strongly opposed to the approaches to teaching reading and writing and argues that language should be taught as a *whole*. If language is not kept *whole*, it is not a language anymore (Rigg, 1991:522). Whole Language instruction is a theory of language instruction that was developed to help young children learn to read, and has also been extended to middle and secondary levels and to the teaching of ESL.

7.1.1. Principles and Theory of Language and Learning

The Whole Language Approach involves a philosophy about teaching and learning, which is grounded in current research. It is good for all types of learners of all ages. Language teachers may adopt the parts approach, the Whole Language Approach, or a combination of the two as they formulate their philosophy of second language learning. If they choose the whole, they will stress meaning rather than grammar, and they will seek to choose activities that force students to attend to meaning and require them to communicate (Chastain, 1988:359).

Whole Language views language psycholinguistically as a vehicle for internal interaction. The learning theory underlying Whole Language is in the Humanistic and Constructivist schools. Whole Language is said to be authentic, personalized, self-directed, collaborative, pluralistic (Richards&Rogers, 2001:111). Such characteristics are believed to focus learner attention and to motivate mastery. Constructivist learning theory holds that knowledge is socially constructed rather than received or discovered. Thus, constructivist learners "create meaning"," learn by doing", and work collaboratively "in mixed groups on common subjects". That is, rather than seeking to "cover the curriculum", learning focuses on the learners' experience, needs, interests, and aspirations.

Having the above explanations and facts in mind, common sense assumptions about L_2 learning and the Whole Language principles can be as follows: (Tolon, 1997:21-22)

1- Learning proceeds from whole to part. According to the Gestalt psychology, "the whole is different than the sum of its parts." That is to say, Gestalt psychologists believe that you cannot understand a person's response to a situation in terms of a combination of separate responses to a combination of separate stimuli, but that it should be studied as a whole response to the whole situation (Miller, 1962: 34) For example, you cannot really get the full impact of the Mona Lisa by looking at first one arm and then another, then the nose, then the mouth, and then trying to put all these experiences together. Or you cannot understand the experience of listening to a symphony orchestra by analyzing the separate contributions of each of the musicians. The music emanating from the orchestra is different than the sum of the various notes being played by the various musicians. Therefore, students need to develop concepts by beginning with general ideas and then going into the specific details. Organizing the curriculum around themes help the teacher move from whole to part. Review in L_1 is helpful.

2- Lessons should be learner-centered, for lessons start with what the student already knows and build on it. The teachers only make up contexts in which students can build up knowledge.

3- Lessons should have purpose and meaning for the students in order to meet their present needs and also choices should be given in the students' studies, so they can apply what they learn to their life outside.

4- Learning takes place as the students share each other's ideas in social settings or contexts.

5- Both written and oral languages can be taught at the beginning in order to develop academic competence.

6- Learning should take place in L_1, so the teachers should help the students to build their concepts in L_1 because the recognition of L_1 culture and full development of L_1 facilitate the acquisition of L_2 while helping build the learners' self-esteem.

7- Lessons, which show faith in the learner, expand the students' potential. Hence, teachers should plan activities whereby they can show their faith in the learners, so that students can build on their interests and backgrounds, serving their needs with opportunities for social interaction and develop their skills in oral and written language.

Apart from the principles stated by Tolon, Richards Rogers (2001:110) adds the following instructions:

8- the use of authentic literature rather than artificial, specially prepared texts and exercises designed to practice individual reading skills,
9- the use of student-produced texts rather than teacher-generated or other-generated texts,
10-the reading of real texts of high interest, particularly literature,
11-reading for the sake of comprehension and for a real purpose,
12-writing for a real audience and not simply to practice writing skills,
13-encouragement of risk taking and exploration and the acceptance of errors as signs of learning rather than of failure.

Anderson (1984:231), on the other hand, lists the following four criteria for judging a Whole Language Approach to language learning: Language learning should:

1- include meaningful, natural language patterns,
2- include whole language, not fragmented elements of language,

3- be functional or purposeful,
4- be in a meaningful context.

In sum, according to the Whole language approach, just as students learn to speak, they will pick up the words that are relevant for them to read texts. Their vocabulary will begin to increase. The Whole Language involves a philosophy about teaching and learning. It is good for all types of learners of all ages. Activities and exercises are generally related to the learners' lives and the materials used are mostly authentic. That is, its activities may prove useful particularly for young learners in ESL environments.

7.1.2. Syllabus

The syllabus of Whole Language classrooms generally depends upon the integrative whole language principles. In the Whole Langauge Approach, the goal is to make the curriculum learner-centered. Teachers are just listeners and observers. Learning proceeds from whole to part or from context to the discussion of each item separately in groups. Lessons are motivating and with purpose. Learning takes place in meaningful social interaction. Oral language, reading, listening and writing in L_2 are all integrated in one lesson. L_1 is used in group discussions to facilitate the acquisition of concepts in the target language. Learning potential is expanded fro the learners because the teacher has faith in success.

On the one hand, it can be said that the Whole Language Approach seems to have a topic-based syllabus. This is rather like the situational syllabus, except that the headings are broadly topic-based and it usually indicates a fairly clear set of vocabulary items which may be specified. The goal is to make the curriculum learner-centered, so the suggested syllabus should depend on:

1- learning proceed from whole to part,
2- purposeful and motivating lessons,

3- oral language, reading, listening and writing in L2 which are all integrated in one lesson,

4- group discussion in order to facilitate the acquisition of concepts in English,

5- potential learning which is expanded for the learners,

6- learner-centered teaching and learning

7.1.3. Learner and Teacher Roles

The main goal of the Whole Language Approach teachers is to enable students to become skilled language users, their focus is always on the whole, on communicating through reading and writing using sophisticated vocabulary, as well as listening and speaking. Teachers seen as the facilitators and active participants in the learning community rather than experts passing on knowledge. The teacher teaches students and not the subject matter and looks for the occurrence of teachable moments rather than following a preplanned lesson plan or script (Richards & Rogers, 2001:110). Teachers create a climate that will support collaborative learning. Teacher has the responsibility of negotiating a plan of work with the learners. As Cummins (1989:14) suggests that the role of the teacher is to keep language in meaningful contexts to provide authentic language situations to make sure that the students work with whole language or a comprehensible input, but not simplified parts.

On the other hand, learners are collaborators, collaborating with fellow students, with the teacher, and with the writer of the texts. Students are also evaluators, evaluating their own and others' learning, with the help of the teacher. The learner is self-directed; his or her own learning experiences are used as resources for learning. Students are also selectors of learning materials and activities. Students, on the other hand, first perceive written language as they read, they begin to read like a writer. Hence, they start to perceive the smaller parts of the words. In this process they ideate or build concepts about words. The students, later, present their ideations to others.

Finally, after examining the students' written presentations, the teachers can assess those concepts (Freeman, 1992: 118).

7.1.4. Strong Sides

Although it is a new approach to the four skills in language teaching, it has some good points in terms of the application in the classes. These are as follow:

1- The Whole Language Approach offers a learner-oriented learning that gives students a choice over what they have read and written . The use of authentic literary texts helps learners to get an idea about the real world. These texts are also designed to test the reading abilities of the learners. Language teaching goes from the whole to the part, which provides students with opportunities for deducing the meaning.

2- In addition, all four skills take place together in the Whole Language Approach classes, so students have the chance to test these four skills in a passage at the same time. That is, activities involve communication in all 4-language skills. Reading is done for comprehension and writing is done to discover and explore the meaning. Therefore, these skills reach their real objectives.

3- This approach, at the same time, encourages students in cooperative learning. Calderon (1987: 23) states " cooperative learning can be defined as a strategy for the classroom that is used to increase motivation and retension, to help students develop a positive image of self and others, to provide a vehicle for critical thinking and problems solving, and to encourage collaborative social skills." In cooperative learning, setting up the practice session is the major responsibility of the teacher. According to Johnson (1975:37) there are four levels of cooperative skills that teachers can focus on. These skills can be categorized as *forming, functioning, formulating*, and *fermenting.* Forming skills are directed towards organizing the group and establishing behavioral norms; functioning skills are directed towards

completing tasks and maintaining good relationship within the group; formulating skills are directed towards helping learners to develop a deeper understanding of the materials being studied and to develop better reasoning strategies; and fermenting skills are the highest level skills that involve helping learners explore more thoroughly the material they have been exposed to. So, students become collaborators with their fellows, teachers, and the text book writers as well. In this way, students get the chance to exchange information.

4- The Whole language Approach focuses on experiences and activities that are relevant to learners' lives and needs, that it uses authentic materials, and that it can be used to facilitate the development of all aspects of a second language.

7.1.5. Weak Sides

It must be borne in mind that besides the positive sides of the Whole Language Approach, there has been also some defects in this approach. For example,

1- The use of the literary text may sometimes be boring for the students.
2- The use of student-produced texts which are the main concern of this approach may sometimes cause confusions since they may not be scientifically-oriented materials. They may be full of mistakes. They may not serve the general aim of the courses since they have not been prepared by experts.

7.1.6. Contributions to ELT

The use of literary texts, real-world materials rather than commerical texts, student-produced texts, student-centered learning, the use of 4 skills at the same time in a course hour, going from the whole to the part, cooperative learning likewise in Humanistic Approach, and the use of languge by students for their own purposes can be said the some important contributions

of the Whole Language Approach to ELT. According to Cummins (1989:24-25) the Whole Language Approach brough the use of two distinctive features of the language: Cognitively Undemanding language and Context Embedded language. In the Cognitively Undemanding language, the learner uses external cues provided by objects, people, or language. The learners, at the same time, have internalized external cues and can use this background knowledge even when external cues are not present. These are important in all learning processes because much learning involves making predictions. On the one hand, Context Embedded language refers to extralingusitic cues provided by situation, objects, or actions. The teacher uses role-plays, realias, or pictures and gestures. Linguistic cues, on the other hand, are provided by the use of cohesive, coherent language. The language teachers use stories with predictable input for learners to make clear their linguistic cues.

Another important contribution of the Whole Language Approach are seen on the activities. Activities that are often used by the Whole Language Approach are: individual and small group reading and writing; ungraded dialog journals; writing portfolios; writing conferences; student-made books; story writings, and so on.

7.1.7. Related Methods

In the application section of the Whole Language Approach, Look-and-Say Method, Whole-word Method, Phonic Method, and Sentence Method are the most common ones .*Look-and-say Method* is a method for teaching children to read, especially in the first language, which is similar the Whole-word Method except that words are always taught in association with a picture or object and the pronunciation of the word is always required. *Whole-word Method*, on the other hand, is a method for teaching children to read, commonly used in teaching reading in the mother tongue, in which children are taught to recognize the whole words rather than letter-names or sound. It is usually similar to the use of a Sentence method. *Sentence Method* refers

to teach reading in the mother tongue, which uses sentences as the basic units of teaching, rather than words or sounds. The reading material uses the whole sentences from the beginning and less importance is given to letter names or sounds. In addition to these methods, *Phonic Method (Phonics)* is a method of teaching children to read. It is commonly used in teaching reading in the mother tongue. Children are taught to recognize the relationship between letters and sound. They are taught the sounds which the letters of the alphabet represent, and then try to build up the sound of a new or unfamiliar word by saying it one sound at a time. As it is seen most of the methods used by the Whole Language Approach mainly serve to teaching of reading to the children by the help of their native languages. Here, some examples are taken into consideration depending upon the reading texts since the methods used by this approach have been using the literary texts to teach language.

7.1.8. Discussion Questions for Students

1- Does the Whole Language Approach really provide language teaching for learners at different age groups?
2- Do you agree that language teaching should mainly be based on literary texts or reading passages?
3- Compare and contrast the strong sides and the weak sides of the Whole Language Approach.
4- What are the main contributions of the Whole Language Approach to ELT?
5- State the roles of the teachers and the learners in the Whole Language Approach.

7.1.9. Basic Techniques and Exercise / Activity Types

Many of the activities are also common in other approaches or methods such as Community language Teaching, Content-based Teaching, and Task-based language teaching. For example, *the use of literature, the use of process writing, individual and small group reading and writing,*

ungraded dialog journals, writing portfolios, writing conferences, story writing, and etc. Adapting selected strategies from the Whole Language Approach is an effective way to integrate the content areas and allow many opportunities for students to experience the vocabulary related to the story in a variety of contexts. The following is an example of the use of literary pieces in a Whole language workshop and involves activities built around the use of *Parallel texts* (Richards & Rogers, 2001:112).

7.1.9.1. Exercise 1: Parallel Texts

Parallel texts means to open the lessons with two texts which have a bit differences in their contexts. For example,

1.a

Cranes

"The village on the northern side of the 38th parallel rontier was ever so quiet and desolate beneath the high, clear autumn sky. White gourds leaned on white gourds as they swayed in the yard of an empty house."

1.b

The Crane

"The northern village at the border of the 38th parallel was ever so snug under the bright high autumn sky. In the space between the two main rooms of the empty farm house a white empty gourd was lying against another white empty gourd."

Examples of student activities based on parallel texts:

1- Think of the village as described in 1a and 1b as two different villages. Which one would you choose to live in? Why?

2- Do the contrasting opening sentences set up any different expectations in the reader as to what kind of story will follow and what the tone of the story will be ?
3- Write an opening sentence of a short story in which you briefly introduce the village of 1a as it might appear in winter rather than in autumn.
4- Write two parallel text opening sentences in which you describe in different words a village you know. Ask a partner which village s/he prefers.
5- Discuss what different kinds of stories might follow on the basis of the opening sentences. Write an original first sentence of this story thinking of yourself as translator and drawing on both translation as your resources.

7.1.9.2. Exercise 2: Prep Lesson for a story "A trip to the Beach"

7.1.9. 2.1. Language Experience Activities

The lessons just preceding the story should focus on activities that make a transition from the prep stage to the introduction of the story. This can be achieved through the use of language experience activities. For example, structures such as:

at the..... / on the..... / near the ..... ; there is / a ..... ; I have ..... , she has ..... ; I wear / swim / play ..... , etc.

To prepare students to discuss the text, activities should be planned that engaged students in meaningful use of the selected vocabulary from the text. Teacher can have students categorize vocabulary according to the topics as s/he responses on charts. For instance, words associated with the sun, water, clothing worn at the beach, objects that float and sink. This activity can be done as follow by *looping* or *cubing* technique. For example,

Fig. 1 Looping technique

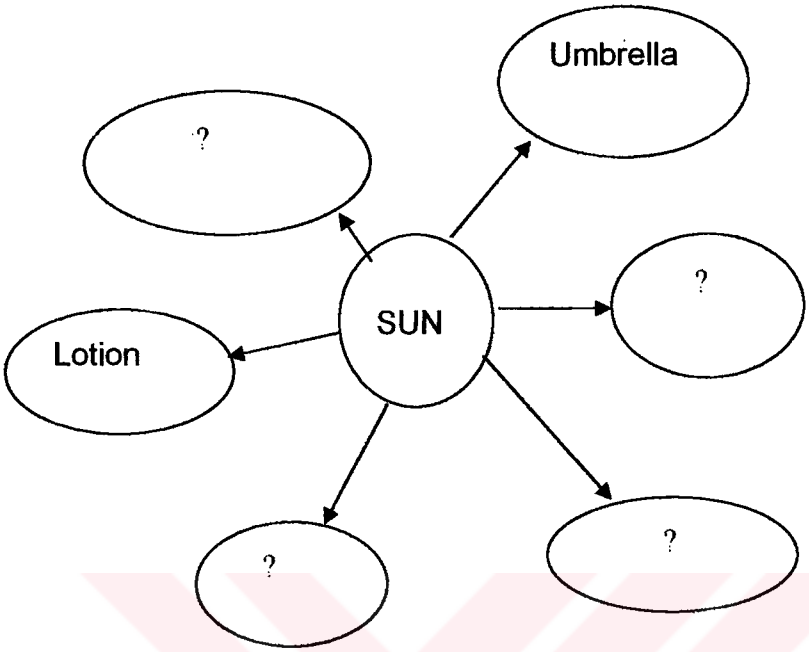


Fig. 2 Looping technique

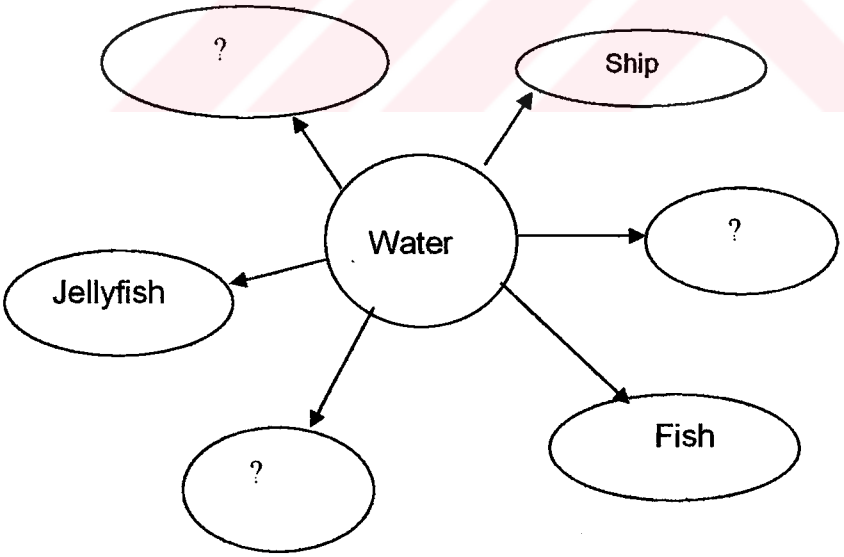
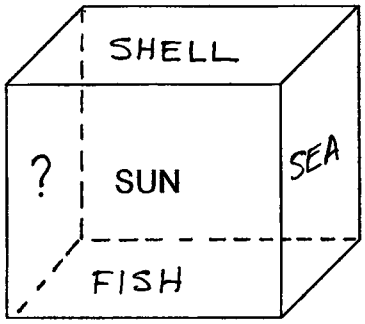


Fig 3 Cubing technique



The language experience itself can then take place in three phases: the trip – discussion about the trip – dictation of students' experiences.

1 – The Trip to the Beach: this book calls for visuals and objects which can be displayed to represent the beach. For example, Sea shells, showels, umbrellas, sand, etc. Children can get ready for the trip by writing lists of items to take; by discussing the mode of transportation, departure time, number of days to stay, where to stay, etc. The actual trip might include an imaginary bus or car ride. Upon arriving at the beach, students can be guided to look at several prepared pictures of activities at the beach. For instance, teacher can bring some posters into the classroom including the pictures of "A family playing in sand" "children swimming and playing on sand" , "Animals that live in the sea", etc. As students view the pictures, teacher can guide them to identify what they see in the scenes. The trip ends with "the return home".

2 – Sharing impressions: in this session, children can be directed to recall what took place during trip as the teacher writes his/her thoughts. Teacher may also expand the child's L2 by accepting thoughts in L1 and reinforcing them in L2. The following charts may be used to help students recall details.

Fig. 3

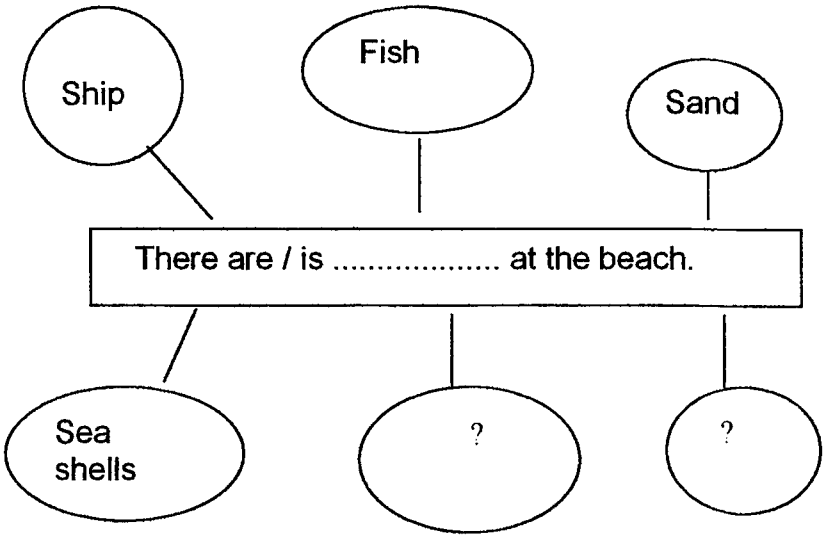


Fig. 4

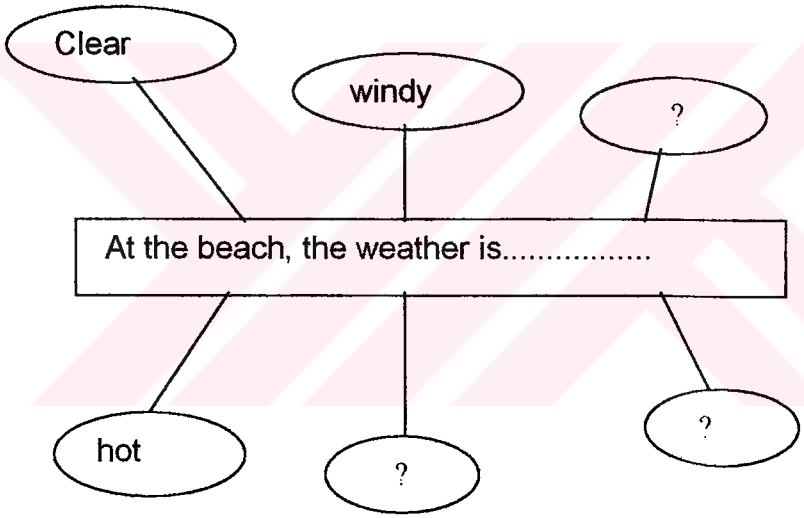
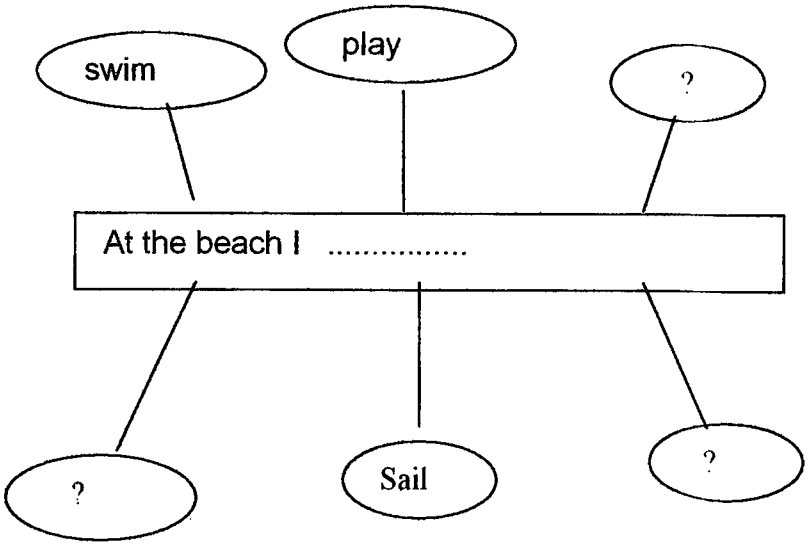
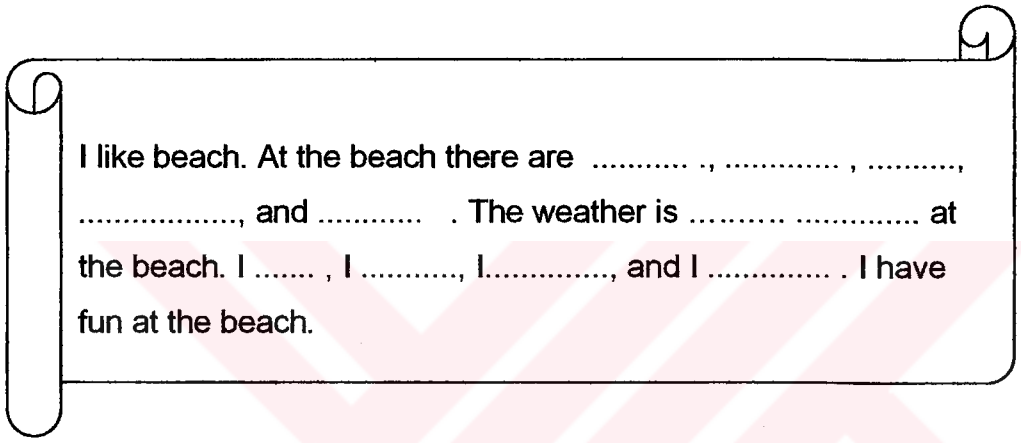


Fig. 5



3 – Class reading and Writing activities: The shared impressions of the trip to the beach can then be incorporated into reading and writing activities which extend L2 usage. For the emergent reader and writer in L2, teacher may want to prepare some of the context of the story ahead of time on chart paper so that children can complete the story with their own ideas as recall from their shared impressions. For example,



This technique is effective at the beginning stages of reading because it allows a great deal of flexibility for the students while giving them a framework within which to focus their ideas. To assist the children in completing the story the teacher can use guiding questions. For more advanced classes the guiding questions and charts can be used to help students create a story from the language they dictate to the teacher. For example,

1 – Do you like the beach?
2 – What is at the beach?
3 – What is the weather like at the beach?
4 – Do you have fun at the beach?
5 – What do you do at the beach?

When story is finished teacher can use the text as a reading, directing the children to read it silently as s/he reads it aloud. Then students can read the story chorally and individually.

7.1.9.3. Exercise 4: Muddled Sentences / Paragraphs

This type of activity helps learners to get the spatial relationship in a paragraph and to understand the importance of the chronological order. Students are given some types of sentences in a muddled order like below and wanted to put them into the right order. For example,

> (1) Altough it is the part of Turkey that is the farthest North, winters are not as cold as they are in the interior of the country. (2) The Black Sea coast, on the North, is separated from the interior of the country along almost its entire length by mountains. (3) This coast receives a good deal of rain during the winter, especially in the East, and extensive forests grow in the mountains. (4) The Anatolian part of Turkey can be conveniently divided into several geographic areas.
>
> *(Demirezen, 1993 b: 164)*

> (1) Most of the land between the Appalachians and the Mississippi , however, is used for farming. (2) Near the Great lakes, in and around such cities as Chicago, Detroit, and Pittsburg, are located most of the big industries of the nation. (3) Nearly all the farming there is done by machine and a relatively small number of farmers are able to grow quite large crops. (4) The Mississippi River (2.348 miles) separates this area from the great plains, an almost completely flat region of large farms.
>
> *(Demirezen, 1993 b: 164)*

7.1.9.4. Exercise 5: Puzzle / Rhyming Pairs

Six of the words in the box are incomplete. Complete them with the help of the pictures. Then put the twenty-four words into twelve rhyming pairs. For example, (English Puzzles, 1994:14)



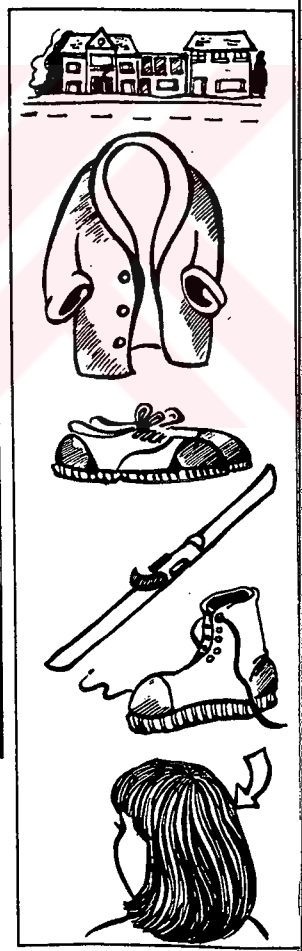
Rhyming pairs

Six of the words in the box are incomplete. Complete them with the help of the pictures. Then put the twenty-four words into twelve rhyming pairs.

For example:



_h_ _s | rude | note | s_ _ | good | s_ _ _ _t | great | those | food | eat | her | where | were | wait | flute | me | sky | rose | my | c_ _ _ | _a_ _ | _ _ _t | wood | whose

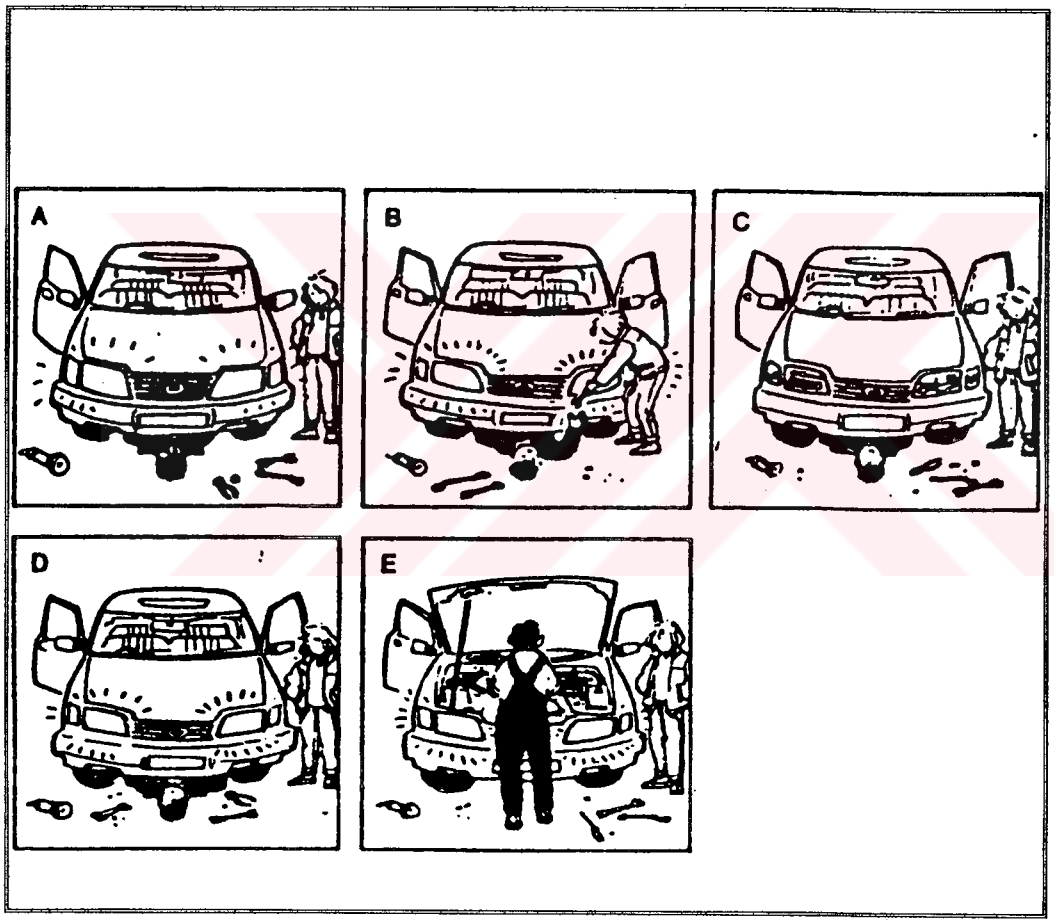


great	wait		

7.1.9.5. Exercise 6: Look and Say

This activity can be applied in listening and speaking courses. Students are listened some statements from a tape and then they are asked to select the appropriate picture from the text. For example,

Instruction: In this listening activity you will have five pictures in front of you. You will listen to four sentences of which you are required to select the appropriate one being described. Picture is given here:



Students will hear:

1- Both car doors are open.

2- It is daylight but both headlamps are on.

3- The man who is repairing the car is lying underneath it.

4- Although the girl sees the man working hard, she does not help him.

Thus students are able to narrow down the choice available to them as follows:

1- B C D E (Only A shows one door open)
2- B D E (Only C shows the headlamps off)
3- B D (Only E shows the man standing up)
4- D (Only B shows the girl helping the man)

Consequently, it can be said that the Whole Language Approach provides a learning environment in which the students participate in meaningful language experiences. Through the process of constructing language for communication purposes, the students develop the ability to listen, speak, read, and write in a natural manner. The Whole Language environment immerses students in language-rich experiences and provides opportunities for them to create meaningful language in response to that environment. According to proponents of whole language research, the process of language learning is a natural development of communication skills that is influenced by the learner's cognitive, linguistic, and social systems.

The Whole Language Approach has much to offer teachers and students. The planning of an instructional unit that is based on literary text, the integration of topics from the elementary curriculum, and the adaptation of selected whole language strategies is rewarding experience when put into practice (Redmond, 1994:441).

7.2. THE LEXICAL APPROACH

The Lexical Approach was introduced by Michael Lewis in 1993. Michael Lewis developed many of the fundamental principles advanced by proponents of the Communicative Approach, for example, the communicative value of foreign language is increased and natural acquisition of foreign language is encouraged in the classroom. The most important difference

from The Communicative Approach is the increased understanding of the nature of lexis in naturally occurring language, and its potential contribution to language pedagogy. The most important contribution of The Lexical Approach is to highlight the importance of vocabulary as being basic to communication. It is claimed that if learners do not recognize the meaning of keywords they will be unable to participate in the conversation, even if they know the morphology and the syntax of the foreign language. But Lewis insists that The Lexical Approach is not simply a shift of emphasis from grammar to vocabulary teaching, as " *language consists not of traditional grammar and vocabulary, but often of multi-word prefabricated chunks.*" (Lewis,1997:7). Chunks include collocations, fixed and semi-fixed expressions and idioms, and they occupy a crucial role in facilitating language production, being key to fluency.

According to the supporters of the Lexical Approach, an explanation for native speakers' fluency is that vocabulary is not stored only as individual words, but also as parts of phrases and larger chunks, which can be retrieved from memory as a whole, reducing processing difficulties. For them, learners who only learn individual words need a lot more time and effort to express themselves. According to Lewis (1996:8) "grammar-vocabulary dichotomy is invalid-much language consists of multiword chunks, and language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar.". So, it is essential to make students aware of chunks, giving them opportunities to identify, organize and record these items. Lewis (1996:116) offers that activities as well as objects can be named, so that verbs as well as nouns can be taught lexically. Common irregular past tense forms, such as; went, said, came, etc, can be taught as vocabulary items, before they are mastered as elements of the grammatical system. For him, verbs, particularly as collocates of nouns, deserve increased attention as elements of vocabulary, rather than grammar teaching.

The Lexical Approach suggests a much more central role for

vocabulary in foreign language teaching. Vocabulary is viewed as central to communicative effectiveness. Most of the activities stand on the work on vocabulary. But they stress that the primary purpose of the activities is aware raising rather than formal teaching. Within The Lexical Approach less attention is paid to individual words and substantially devoted to ensuring that learners are aware of lexical items, particularly collocations, which carry much of the referential meaning in the written text. "Many of the activities are of the receptive kind. Teachers used to formal vocabulary teaching, using largely productive practice, need to make an important change of emphasis, learning truly to value receptive practice." (Lewis 1997:116). The Lexical Approach criticizes Behaviorism and totally rejects the present-practice-produce style offered by the behaviorist-teaching model.

7.2.1. Principles and Theory of Language and Learning

A Lexical Approach in language teaching refers to one derived from the belief that the building blocks of language learning and communication are not grammar, functions, notions, or some other unit of planning and teaching but lexis, that is , words and word combinations (Richards and Rogers,2001:132) They stress that lexical approaches in language teaching reflect a belief in the centrality of the lexicon to the language structure, second language learning, and language use, and in particular to multiword lexical units or chunks that are learned and used as single items. The Lexical Approach develops many of the fundamental principles advanced by proponents of the Communicative Approach. The most important difference is the increased understanding of the nature of lexis in naturally occurring language, and its potential contribution to language pedagogy. Here are some key principles of the Lexical Approach:

1- The grammar / vocabulary dichotomy is invalid; much language consists of multi-words 'chunks'.

2- A central element of language teaching is raising students' awareness of, and developing their ability to 'chunk' language successfully.
3- Although structural patterns are known as useful, lexical, and metaphorical patterning are accorded appropriate status.
4- Collocation is integrated as an organizing principle within syllabuses. The central metaphor of language is holistic - an organism; not atomistic - a machine.
5- It is the co-textual rather than the situational element of context which are of primary importance for language teaching.
6- Grammar as a receptive skill, involving the perception of similarity and difference, is prioritized. Receptive skills, particularly listening, are given enhanced status. The Present-Practice-Produce paradigm is rejected, in favor of a paradigm based on the Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment cycle.
7- Language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar.

Contemporary language teaching methods tend to be similar for students at different level of competence; with the Lexical Approach the materials and methods appropriate to beginners or elementary students are radically different from those employed for upper-intermediate or advanced students. Significant re-ordering of the learning program is implicit in the Lexical Approach.The Lexical Approach to second language teaching has received interest in recent years as an alternative to grammar-based approaches. The lexical approach concentrates on developing learners' proficiency with lexis, or words and word combinations. It is based on the idea that an important part of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce lexical phrases as unanalyzed wholes, or "chunks," and that these chunks become the raw data by which learners perceive patterns of language traditionally thought of as grammar (Lewis, 1993:95). Instruction focuses on relatively fixed expressions that occur frequently in spoken language, such as, "I'm sorry," "I didn't mean to make you jump," or "That will never happen to me," rather than on originally created sentences (Lewis, 1997:212). This digest provides an overview of the

methodological foundations underlying the Lexical Approach and the pedagogical implications suggested by them.

Michael Lewis (1993), who coined the term *Lexical Approach*, suggests the following:

1- *Lexis is the basis of language.*
2- *Lexis is misunderstood in language teaching because of the assumption that grammar is the basis of language and that mastery of the grammatical system is a prerequisite for effective communication.*
3- *The key principle of a lexical approach is that "language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar."*
4- *One of the central organizing principles of any meaning-centered syllabus should be lexis*

Again as it quotes from the book *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*, Richards and Rogers (2001:134) explain the words of Lewis as follow. According to Lewis, lexical approach has ignored the coherent learning theory; therefore, it should be rectified with the following assumptions:

1- *encountering new learning items on several occasions is a necessary but sufficient condition for learning to occur,*
2- *noticing lexical chunks or collocations is a necessary but not sufficient condition for input to become intake,*
3- *noticing similarities, differences, restrictions, and examples contributes to turning input into intake although formal description of rules probably does not help*
4- *acquisition is based not on the application of formal rules but on an accumulation of examples from which learners make provisional*

generalizations. Language production is the product of previously met examples, not formal rules,

5- *no linear syllabus can adequately reflect the nonlinear nature of acquisition.*

The Lexical Approach makes a distinction between vocabulary-traditionally understood as a stock of individual words with fixed meanings-and lexis, which includes not only the single words but also the word combinations that we store in our mental lexicons. Lexical Approach advocates argue that language consists of meaningful chunks that, when combined, produce continuous coherent text, and only a minority of spoken sentences are entirely novel creations.

The role of formulaic, many-word lexical units has been stressed in both first and second language acquisition research. (See Richards & Rodgers, 2001, for further discussion.) They have been referred to by many different labels, including "gambits" (Keller, 1979), "speech formulae" (Peters, 1983), "lexicalized stems" (Pawley & Syder, 1983), and "lexical phrases" (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). The existence and importance of these lexical units has been discussed by a number of linguists. For example, Cowie (1988) argues that the existence of lexical units in a language such as English serves the needs of both native English speakers and English language learners, who are as predisposed to store and reuse them as they are to generate them from scratch. The widespread "fusion of such expressions, which appear to satisfy the individual's communicative needs at a given moment and are later reused, is one means by which the public stock of formulae and composites is continuously enriched" (p. 136).

Lewis (1997b) suggests the following taxonomy of lexical items:

a- words (e.g., book, pen)

b- polywords (e.g., by the way, upside down)

c- *collocations, or word partnerships (e.g., community service, absolutely convinced)*

d- *institutionalized utterances (e.g., I'll get it; We'll see; That'll do; If I were you . . .; Would you like a cup of coffee?)*

e- *sentence frames and heads (e.g., That is not as . . . as you think; The fact/suggestion/problem/danger was . . .) and even text frames (e.g., In this paper we explore . . .; Firstly . . .; Secondly . . .; Finally . . .)*

Within the Lexical Approach, special attention is directed to collocations and expressions that include institutionalized utterances and sentence frames and heads. As Lewis maintains, "instead of words, we consciously try to think of collocations, and to present these in expressions. Rather than trying to break things into ever smaller pieces, there is a conscious effort to see things in larger, more holistic, ways" (1997a, p. 204).

Collocation is "the readily observable phenomenon whereby certain words co-occur in natural text with greater than random frequency" (Lewis, 1997a, p. 8). Furthermore, collocation is not determined by logic or frequency, but is arbitrary, decided only by linguistic convention. Some collocations are fully fixed, such as "to catch a cold," "rancid butter," and "drug addict," while others are more or less fixed and can be completed in a relatively small number of ways, as in the following examples:

f- blood / close / distant / near(est) relative

g- learn by doing / by heart / by observation / by rote/ from experience

h- badly / bitterly / deeply / seriously / severely hurt

In the Lexical Approach, lexis in its various types is thought to play a central role in language teaching and learning. Nattinger (1980: 341) suggests that teaching should be based on the idea that language production

is the piecing together of ready-made units appropriate for a particular situation. Comprehension of such units is dependent on knowing the patterns to predict in different situations. Instruction, therefore, should center on these patterns and the ways they can be pieced together, along with the ways they vary and the situations in which they occur.

Advances in computer-based studies of language, such as corpus linguistics, have provided huge databases of language corpora, including the COBUILD Bank of English Corpus, the Cambridge International Corpus, and the British National Corpus. In particular, the COBUILD project at Birmingham University in England has examined patterns of phrase and clause sequences as they appear in various texts as well as in spoken language. It has aimed at producing an accurate description of the English language in order to form the basis for design of a lexical syllabus (Sinclair, 1987). Such a syllabus was perceived by COBUILD researchers as independent and unrelated to any existing language teaching methodology (Sinclair & Renouf, 1988). As a result, the Collins COBUILD English Course (Willis & Willis, 1989) was the most ambitious attempt to develop a syllabus based on lexical rather than grammatical principles. Willis (1990) has attempted to provide a rationale and design for lexically based language teaching and suggests that a lexical syllabus should be matched with an instructional methodology that puts particular emphasis on language use. Such a syllabus specifies words, their meanings, and the common phrases in which they are used and identifies the most common words and patterns in their most natural environments. Thus, the lexical syllabus not only subsumes a structural syllabus, it also describes how the "structures" that make up the syllabus are used in natural language.

Despite references to the natural environments in which words occur, Sinclair's (1987) and Willis's (1990) lexical syllabi are word based. However, Lewis's (1993) lexical syllabus is specifically not word based, because it "explicitly recognizes word patterns for (relatively) de-lexical words,

collocation power for (relatively) semantically powerful words, and longer multi-word items, particularly institutionalized sentences, as requiring different, and parallel pedagogical treatment" (Lewis, 1993, p. 109). In his own teaching design, Lewis proposes a model that comprises the steps, Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment, as opposed to the traditional Present-Practice-Produce paradigm. Unfortunately, Lewis does not lay out any instructional sequences exemplifying how he thinks this procedure might operate in actual language classrooms.

According to Lewis, too few language teachers exhibit the kind of intellectual curiosity and readiness to change that is normally associated with professional status. It is disappointing that so few teachers are anxious to inform themselves and their learners about recent changes in linguistics and methodology; it is even more disappointing that many teachers are hostile to anything which challenges the central role of grammatical explanation, grammatical practice and correction, all ideas which the Lexical Approach demotes or discards. The hesitating or even actively negative position of teachers can be explained (but not shared or understood) by summarizing the guiding principles of the Lexical Approach:

1. The grammar/vocabulary dichotomy is invalid.
2. Collocation is used as an organizing principle. [-1-]
3. Successful language is a wider concept than accurate language.
4. The Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment cycle replaces the Present-Practice-Produce Paradigm.
5. Most importantly, language consists of grammaticalised lexis--not lexicalised grammar. (Kranz, 2002: 5)

On the other hand, Zimmerman (1997, p. 17) suggests that the work of Sinclair, Nattinger, DeCarrico, and Lewis represents a significant theoretical and pedagogical shift from the past. First, their claims have revived an interest in a central role for accurate language description. Second, they challenge a traditional view of word boundaries, emphasizing

the language learner's need to perceive and use patterns of lexis and collocation. Most significant is the underlying claim that language production is not a syntactic rule-governed process but is instead the retrieval of larger phrasal units from memory. Nevertheless, implementing a lexical approach in the classroom does not lead to radical methodological changes. Rather, it involves a change in the teacher's mindset. Most important, the language activities consistent with a lexical approach must be directed toward naturally occurring language and toward raising learners' awareness of the lexical nature of language.

Lewis, again in his book, *Implementing the Lexical Approach*, says that it may be helpful to provide a checklist of some of the changes in both content and methodology which implementing the Lexical Approach involves. For that reason he stresses that;

a- more attention should be paid to:

1- lexis – different kinds of multi-word chunks,
2- specific language areas not previously standard in many EFL texts,
3- listening (at lower levels) and reading (at higher levels),
4- activities based on L_1 and L_2 comparisons and translation,
5- the use of the dictionary as a resource for active learning,
6- probable rather than possible English,
7- the language which learners may meet outside the classroom,
8- preparing learners to get maximum benefit from text.

b- less attention should be paid:

1- sentence grammar – single sentence gap-filling and transformation practices,
2- uncollocated nouns,
3- indiscriminate recording of *new words*,

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DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ

4- talking in L_2 for the sake of it because you claim to use *a communicative approach.*

In sum, the Lexical Approach can be summarized in a few words: language consists not of traditional grammar and vocabulary but often of multi-word prefabricated chunks. Teachers using the Lexical Approach will not analyze the target language in the classroom, but will be more inclined to concentrate learners' attention upon these chunks. This new approach is understood as a serious attempt at revaluation for the individual teacher and the profession as it develops many of the fundamental principles advanced by proponents of Communicative Approaches. The most important difference is the increased understanding of the nature of lexis in naturally occurring language, and its potential contribution to language pedagogy. Language teaching claims to be a profession. If it is, its practitioners cannot simply rely on recipes and techniques; they also need an explicit theoretical basis for their classroom procedures.

7.2.2. Syllabus

The syllabus of the Lexical Approach includes a list of lexical items (girl, boy, go away, shut up, etc.) with associated collocations and idioms, usually divided into graded sections. One such syllabus, based on a corpus – a computerized collection of samples of authentic language – is described by Willis. At the same time both structures and lexis can be specified either together, in sections that correspond to the units of a course, or in two separate lists.

Harmer (2001:297) states it is possible to organize a syllabus on the basis of vocabulary and lexis to create a lexical syllabus. Applying syllabus design criteria to a lexical syllabus can be complex since there are so many facets to lexis such as:

1- the vocabulary related to topics, e.g. art, clothes, crime

2- issues of word formation, e.g. suffixes and other morphological changes
3- word-grammar triggers, e.g. verbs which are followed by certain syntactic patterns
4- compound lexical items, e.g. walking-stick, multi-storey car park
5- connecting and linking words, e.g. when, if, where
6- semi-fixed expressions, e.g. would you like to ?, If I were you I'd..
7- connotations and the use of metaphor

Richards and Rogers (2001:136) put forward materials and teaching resources to support lexical approaches in language teaching are of at least four types. Type 1 consists of complete course packages including texts, tapes, teacher's manuals, and so on. Type 2 is represented by collections of vocabulary teaching activities. Type 3 consists of printout versions of computer corpora collections packaged in the text format. Type 4 materials are computers concordancing programs and attached data sets to allow students to set up and carry out their own analyses.

As Willis states that courses are based on lexical syllabus and the application of it in the Collins Cobuild English Course represent the most ambitious attempt to realize a syllabus and accompanying materials based on lexical rather than grammatical principles. Willis, again, stresses that the lexical syllabus does not only subsumes a structural syllabus, it also indicates how the structures which make up syllabus should be exemplified.

Classroom procedures typically involve the use of activities that draw attention to lexical collocations. As Richards and Rogers (2001:138) put forward, this procedure can be divided into four important stages:

1- teaching individual collocations,
2- making students aware of collocations,
3- extending what students already know by adding knowledge of collocation restrictions to known vocabulary,

4- storing collocations through encouraging students to keep a lexical notebook.

For that reasons, teachers should reexamine their course books for collocations, adding exercises that focus explicitly on lexical phrases. They should also develop activities that enable learners to discover collocations themselves, both in the classroom and in the language, they encounter outside the classroom.

7.2.3. Learner and Teacher Roles

Teachers do not get an easy ride here, and you will wonder how far we can go in bringing about the changes that Lewis calls for. He is deliberate and self-conscious in identifying the conceptual restrictions that false linear oppositions lead our thinking and behavior into. Indeed, on the one hand, he is masterful in providing the reader with an alternative metaphorical base for appreciating the essentially holistic nature of language and learning: out goes the "language as machine" metaphor; in comes the "language as organism" metaphor, which can cope with the dynamic growth and change that both language and learning thrive on. This new metaphor can liberate us from an underlying behaviourist tradition. On the other hand, he is also scathing in his attacks on the "jolly performer-never-a-dull-moment" type of teaching that is often popularized in the wonderful world of ELT.

Teacher talk is a major source of learner input, like in Krashen's Natural Approach, in demonstrating how lexical phrases are used for different functional purposes. Teachers need to understand and manage a classroom methodology based on stages composed of Task, Planning and Report. They should create an environment in which learners can operate effectively and then helping learners manage their own learning.

Learners make use of computers to analyze text data previously collected or made available free-form on the Internet. Learners assume the

role of data analyst constructing his or her own linguistic generalizations based on examination of large corpora of language samples taken from real life.

7.2.4. Strong Sides

1- The Lexical Approach is primarily concerned with the nature of language and addresses pedagogical questions. The Lexical Approach full recognizes that a generative element novelty and innovation – possible language – become impossible.

2- Teaching assistance is another strong side of the Lexical Approach since it is useful in leading the learners through the different stages of lexical analysis such as observation, classification, and generalization.

3- The Lexical Approach steered teachers away from an over-concentration on syntax and tense usage towards the teaching of phrases which show words in combination, and which are generative a different way from traditional grammar substitution tables (Harmer, 2001:92). Thus, instead of saying *"will"* for the future, we might instead have students focus on its use in a series of utterances such as *I'll give you a ring, I'll be in touch, I'll see what I can do, I'll be back in a minute,* etc.

7.2.5. Weak Sides

1- So few "communicative" textbooks are organized according to semantic notions. Indeed, despite what is advertised, most textbooks are still largely structure-based. Worse still many teachers spend a lot of their classroom time correcting their students' mistakes, prioritizing accuracy over fluency, or engaging them in artificial, step-by-step language-manipulating exercises rather than in real communicative tasks. Part of the problem is, according to Lewis, the teacher's mindset.

2- Another weak side of the Lexical Approach is that it is very hard to apply it

at the beginning stages. Because identifying chunks is not easy, and at the beginning stages, learners need a lot of guidance. It is very difficult for the teacher who applies this approach in raising the awareness of learner to the chunks instead of individual words. There should be much more activities on individual vocabulary items at the background. Structural, functional, and semantic properties of foreign language vocabulary items should be taught together.

3- No one has yet explained how the learning of fixed and semi-fixed phrases can be incorporated into the understanding of a language system. Indeed, it can be argued that learning system is vital prerequisite of the ability to string phrases together into a coherent whole.

7.2.6. Contributions to ELT

The Lexical Approach introduced a new way of vocabulary teaching in foreign language teaching. Dealing with chunks, rather than individual words is a meaningful way of vocabulary teaching. It leads to save time in foreign language vocabulary teaching which a strong side of The Lexical Approach is. It offers enjoyable communicative activities totally stressed on vocabulary and it is another strong point of The Lexical Approach. Idioms, collations as semantic aspects of foreign language vocabulary are taken into consideration. It is easy for learners to set up a direct association with the utterance and the meaning of it by this way.

7.2.7. Related Methods

Direct Method can be used when intensive and extensive reading and listening exercises are employed; Grammar Translation can be used in order to make comparison between the native language and the target language. Semantic mapping is a useful way to apply the activities in the lexical Approach classes. The strategy of semantic mapping, or grouping ideas into meaningful clusters, helps learners to provide some order to the chaos.

Making such semantic maps can be done individually, but they make for a productive group work technique as students collectively induce order and hierarchy in the passage. As the story is read, or after reading the story, students can add words and new categories to their own copies of the map. In the final phase of the semantic procedure, which is a class discussion, there is an opportunity for redefining the learned information and a chance to integrate it with the new information. In addition to class discussion, semantic mapping can be used either individually or group work as it mentioned earlier. Semantic mapping has been used successfully by teachers with students with all grades varying from high school to college levels, and adults to motivate and involve them actively in the thinking and reading process (Heimlich and Pittelman, 1989:28)

7.2.8. Discussion Questions for Students

1- What are the roles of the teachers in the Lexical Approach?
2- What are the weak sides of the Lexical Approach?
3- How language is taught in the Lexical Approach?
4- State the similarities / differences between the Lexical and Whole Language Approach.
5- What activities other than ones mentioned above can be employed in the Lexical Approach classes?
6- What is the role of Semantics in the Lexical Approach?

7.2.9. Basic techniques and Exercise / Activity Types

Activities used to develop learners' knowledge of lexical chains include the following:

1- Intensive and extensive listening and reading in the target language.
2- First and second language comparisons and translation—carried out chunk-for-chunk, rather than word-for-word—aimed at raising language awareness.

3- Repetition and recycling of activities, such as summarizing a text orally one day and again a few days later to keep words and expressions that have been learned active.
4- Guessing the meaning of vocabulary items from context.
5- Noticing and recording language patterns and collocations.
6- Working with dictionaries and other reference tools

7.2.9.1. Teaching Vocabulary

Traditionally, the teaching of vocabulary above elementary levels was mostly incidental, limited to presenting new items as they appeared in reading or sometimes listening texts. This indirect teaching of vocabulary assumes that vocabulary expansion will happen through the practice of other language skills, which has been proved not enough to ensure vocabulary expansion. Nowadays it is widely accepted that vocabulary teaching should be part of the syllabus, and taught in a well-planned and regular basis. Some authors, led by Lewis (1993) argue that vocabulary should be at the centre of language teaching, because 'language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar'. Several aspects of lexis need to be taken into account when teaching vocabulary. The list below is based on the work of Gairns and Redman (1986):

1- *Boundaries between conceptual meaning*: knowing not only what lexis refers to, but also where the boundaries are that separate it from words of related meaning (e.g. cup, mug, bowl).

2- *Polysemy:* distinguishing between the various meaning of a single word form with several but closely related meanings (head: of a person, of a pin, of an organization).

3- *Homonymy:* distinguishing between the various meaning of a single word form which has several meanings which are NOT closely related (e.g. a file: used to put papers in or a tool).

4- *Homophyny:*understanding words that have the same pronunciation but different spellings and meanings (e.g. flour, flower).

5- *Synonymy:* distinguishing between the different shades of meaning that synonymous words have (e.g. extend, increase, expand).

6- *Affective meaning:* distinguishing between the attitudinal and emotional factors (denotation and connotation), which depend on the speakers attitude or the situation. Socio-cultural associations of lexical items is another important factor.

7- *Style, register, dialect:* Being able to distinguish between different levels of formality, the effect of different contexts and topics, as well as differences in geographical variation.

8- *Translation:* awareness of certain differences and similarities between the native and the foreign language (e.g. false cognates).

9- *Chunks of language:* multi-word verbs, idioms, strong and weak collocations, lexical phrases, fixed expressions.

10- *Grammar of vocabulary:* learning the rules that enable students to build up different forms of the word or even different words from that word (e.g. sleep, slept, sleeping; able, unable; disability).

11- *Pronunciation:* ability to recognize and reproduce items in speech.

The implication of the aspects just mentioned in teaching is that the goals of vocabulary teaching must be more than simply covering a certain number of words on a word list. We must use teaching techniques that can help realize this global concept of what it means to know a lexical item. And we must also go beyond that, giving learner opportunities to use the items learnt and also helping them to use effective written storage systems. Understanding how our memory works might help us create more

effective ways to teach vocabulary. Research in the area, cited by Gairns (1986) offers us some insights into this process.

It seems that learning new items involve storing them first in our short-term memory, and afterwards in long-term memory. We do not control this process consciously but there seems to be some important clues to consider. First, retention in short-term memory is not effective if the number of chunks of information exceeds seven. Therefore, this suggests that in a given class we should not aim at teaching more than this number. However, our long-term memory can hold any amount of information. Research also suggests that our 'mental lexicon' is highly organized and efficient, and that semantic related items are stored together. Word frequency is another factor that affects storage, as the most frequently used items are easier to retrieve. We can use this information to attempt to facilitate the learning process, by grouping items of vocabulary in semantic fields, such as topics (e.g. types of fruit) (Moras, 2001:3)

Oxford (1990) suggests memory strategies to aid learning, and these can be divided into:

> *a- creating mental linkages: grouping, associating, placing new words into a context*
>
> *b- applying images and sounds: using imagery, semantic mapping, using keywords and representing sounds in memory*
>
> *c- reviewing well, in a structured way;*
>
> *d- employing action: physical response or sensation, using mechanical techniques.*

Moras (2001:4) also stresses that the techniques just mentioned can be used to greater advantage if we can diagnose learning style preferences (visual, aural, kinesthetic, and tactile) and make students aware of different memory strategies. Meaningful tasks however seem to offer the best answer to vocabulary learning, as they rely on students' experiences and reality to

facilitate learning. More meaningful tasks also require learners to analyze and process language more deeply, which should help them retain information in long-term memory.

Forgetting seems to be an inevitable process, unless learners regularly use items they have learnt. Therefore, recycling is vital, and ideally it should happen one or two days after the initial input. After that, weekly or monthly tests can check on previously taught items. The way students store the items learned can also contribute to their success or failure in retrieving them when needed. Most learners simply list the items learnt in chronological order, indicating meaning with translation. This system is far from helpful, as items are de-contextualised, encouraging students to over generalize usage of them. It does not allow for additions and refinements nor indicates pronunciation.

Teachers can encourage learners to use other methods, using topics and categories to organize a notebook, binder or index cards. Meaning should be stored using English as much as possible, and also giving indication for pronunciation. Diagrams and word trees can also be used within this topic/categories organization. The class as a whole can keep a vocabulary box with cards, which can be used for revision/recycling regularly. Organizing this kind of storage system is time-consuming and might not appeal to every learner. Therefore adapting their chronological lists to include headings for topics and a more complete definition of meaning would already be a step forward.

On the other hand, contextual guesswork and using dictionaries should be the main ways to deal with discovering meaning. Guided discovery involve asking questions or offering examples that guide students to guess meanings correctly. In this way learners get involved in a process of semantic processing that helps learning and retention. Contextual guesswork means making use of the context in which the word appears to derive an idea of its meaning, or in some cases, guess from the word itself, as in words of Latin

origin. Knowledge of word formation, e.g. prefixes and suffixes, can also help guide students to discover meaning. Teachers can help students with specific techniques and practice in contextual guesswork, for example, the understanding of discourse markers and identifying the function of the word in the sentence (e.g. verb, adjective, noun). The latter is also very useful when using dictionaries.

Students should start using EFL dictionaries as early as possible, from Intermediate upwards. With adequate training, dictionaries are an invaluable tool for learners, giving them independence from the teacher. As well as understanding meaning, students are able to check pronunciation, the grammar of the word (e.g. verb patterns, verb forms, plurality, comparatives, etc.), different spelling (American versus British), style and register, as well as examples that illustrate usage.

Another strategy for advanced learners is to turn their receptive vocabulary items into productive ones. In order to do that, we need to refine their understanding of the item, exploring boundaries between conceptual meaning, polysemy, synonymy, style, register, possible collocations, etc., so that students are able to use the item accurately. It must be borne in mind that a lexical item is most likely to be learned when a learner feels a personal need to know it, or when there is a need to express something to accomplish the learner's own purposes. Therefore, it means that the decision to incorporate a word in ones productive vocabulary is entirely personal and varies according to each student's motivation and needs. Logically, production will depend on motivation, and this is what teachers should aim at promoting, based on their awareness of students needs and preferences. Task-based learning should help teachers to provide authentic, meaningful tasks in which students engage to achieve a concrete output, using appropriate language for the context. Here some types of activities will be exemplified.. *(Note: Idea taken from Michael Lewis, Pedagogical Implications of the Lexical Approach, p. 261. Lexical items taken from the Cambridge*

International Dictionary of English, p.405) All these exercises were taken from online services.

7.2.9.1.1. *Exercise 1: Collocations: "Do" verbs meaning perform*

1. Give, Make, Take: Choose from these words for making *strong word associations* with each of the verbs below:

help	a risk	support	a chance	a decision	birth
lunch	a drink	action	protection	dinner	a bath

- GIVE
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
- MAKE
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
- TAKE
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____

Assignment: Use some of the word collocations to write something about your or somebody else's life.

7.2.9. 1.2. *Exercise 2 : Collocations: "Do" verbs meaning perform*

2. Make, Pay, Hold

Choose from these words four that make *strong word associations* with each of the verbs below:

a compliment	talks	a choice	attention	a call on	an effort
a conversation	an attempt	debates	changes	job interviews	a visit

- MAKE
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
- PAY
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
- HOLD
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____

Assignment: Use some of the word collocations to write something about your or somebody else's life.

7.2.9.1.3. *Exercise 3: Collocations: "Do" verbs meaning perform*

Give, Do, Hold

Choose from these words four that make *strong word associations* with each of the verbs below:

a cry	a shout	a talk	a speech	the washing	the wash
the cleaning	the dishes	a meeting	a referendum	an election	a debate

- GIVE
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
- DO
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
- HOLD
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____
  - _____

Assignment: Use some of the word collocations to write something about your or somebody else's living.

7.2.9.1.4. Exercise 4: Suggestions for Money Problems Game

Activity type	Information search role play
Number of students	Whole class.
Time	10-20 minutes
Functions:	Making suggestions, giving advice and opinions.
Lexical area	Money problems in a person's life
Grammar:	Modals
Target phrases:	Why don't you... You can always... I suggest you... One way would be to... If I were you, I would... Why not... Perhaps you could... How about... Try...

Game idea

- **Speaking:** One student reads the problem and the other suggests ways of getting some fast cash (e.g. borrowing from a friend, using a credit card, selling something, getting a loan, etc.)
- **Writing:** Write your problem down on a piece of paper and then pass it to your neighbor who will suggest a solution. Game **Components :** Money Problem List Suggestions for Money Problems Game - Money Problem List

1. "I want to move out of my apartment because of the noise. I just found a really nice place, but they want $250 as a deposit."

2. "Wow! I just saw the greatest used car. The owner is leaving for Mexico City tomorrow morning and he wants just $800. But he wants it in cash. What am I going to do?"

3. "Did you see that they've got a sale on at the downtown mall? Well, I saw this vacuum cleaner for just $30, but I only have 20 dollars in my pocket. What do you think I could do?"

4. "Think of something you'd really like to have. Then think of a bargain price and ask your friend how you'd go about getting the object."

7.2.9.1.5. *Exercise 5: Budget Negotiation Game - Teacher's Notes*

Activity type	Role play, small group
Number of students	Any number. Groups of 3 to 4. Have to copy additional sets of cards for each additional group.
Functions:	argument: stating and justifying opinion, stating needs and wants, agreeing and disagreeing.
Lexical area	household objects, household activities
Grammar:	comparison, connectives for reason giving: because, so that, modals: should, need, will, would, would like, want to
Target phrases:	I/weneed/want I think that/In my opinion...other It would be better/more useful to...

7.2.9.1.6. Game idea

A group of college students living together pool the monthly allowances they get from their parents. They get together one night to make a budget for next month. Their pooled allowances amount to $1,000. The

provision cards show things that they can buy (or budget for) with their pooled allowances like food, beverages, entertainment, and other necessities. The role cards or housemate cards tell each player/housemate what provisions they would like to purchase with the pooled money. They should come up with some reasons for buying these things and try to convince the other players/housemates that these provisions should be bought. If two or more players want to buy the same thing but disagree on how much should be spent, it is possible to negotiate over how much should be spent on it.

7.2.9.1.6.1. Setting up the game

Photocopy one set of , and one set of for each group of 3 to 4 students. Deal out the housemate cards so that every one of the 3 to 4 students in the group get one. Place a set of the provision cards face down in the center of each group.

7.2.9.1.6.2. Playing the Game

Going clockwise around the members of the group each player/housemate takes a provision card from the top of the stack and depending whether it is included or not included on his role play/housemate card argues to purchase or not purchase it, respectively. If the other players/housemates decide to purchase the provision, then the player whose role play/housemate card includes this provision keeps this provision card. If they decide not to purchase it, the card is discarded. The object of the game is to accumulate provision cards. The player/housemate with the most number of provision cards at the end of the game is the winner.

7.2.9.1.7. Variation

Students suggest additional provisions that might not be included in the provision cards The teacher determines a price for them and then

students order the additional provision from the teacher practicing the language for ordering.

7.2.9.1.7.1. *Game Components Budget Negotiation Game - Housemate Cards*

Doug

Steaks every Sunday ($80)
Ice cream with Monday Night Football ($40)
A keg on tap 24 hours-a-day ($400)
Food for dinner, lunch, and breakfast ($400)
Time magazine ($12)
Video tape rentals, 3 times a week ($40)
Toilet paper ($24)

Chip

Night out at the pub once a week ($200)
Food for dinner, lunch, and breakfast ($600)
Subscription to the local newspaper ($15)
Pumpkins for Halloween ($50)
A puppy (not to eat) ($75)
A donation to "Save the Whales" ($50)

Joe

Food for dinner, lunch, and breakfast ($500)
A keg on tap occasionally ($200)
Laundry service so we don't have to wash our own clothes ($75)
A subscription to Newsweek magazine ($15)
One gigantic pumpkin (100 lbs) for Halloween ($50)
Invite all our parents over to dinner one night this month ($75)

Caesar

Food for dinner, lunch, and breakfast ()
Invite all the gals over at Psi Epsilon Mooo sorority over to dinner one night this month ($150)
Invite all our parents over to dinner one night this month ($100)
A pumpkin for Halloween ($25)
A keg on tap on the weekends ($200)

7.2.9.1.8. *Budget Negotiation Game - Provision Cards*

Steaks every Sunday ($80)	Ice cream with Monday Night Football ($40)
Toilet paper ($24)	Night out at the pub once a week ($200)
Video tape rentals, 3 times a week ($40)	Subscription to a magazine or newspaper ($12-$20)
A pet ($75)	A donation to some charitable organization ($50)
A keg on tap ($200-400)	Laundry service so we don't have to wash our own clothes ($75)
A pumpkin or pumpkins for Halloween ($25-$50)	Invite all our parents over to dinner one night this month ($75-100)
Invite all the gals over at Psi Epsilon Mooo sorority over to dinner one night this month ($150)	Food for dinner, lunch, and breakfast ($400-700)

7.2.9.1.9. Opinions: Language for Opinions:

Asking for an opinion

1- How do you feel about (the new highway they are building near your home)? 2- What is your view on (women's' rights)?
3- What do you think about (Dad's new haircut)?
4- What do you think of (the new tax bill)?
5- What is your opinion on (the IMF bailout)?
6- What is your opinion of (Joe)?
7- How do you feel about (Dan's promotion)?
8- What is your view on (women's rights)?
9- What do you think?
10- What do you think about (the Asian financial crisis)?
11- What about (men's rights)?
12- The (spaghetti) is pretty terrible, isn't it?
13- What is your reaction to (Clinton's testimony)?
14- Do you have any opinion on (the new copyright laws)?
15- What would you say to (going out on Sunday night)?
16- How would you react to (my asking you to marry you)?

Giving your opinion

1- *As I see it, (life is too short to spend a lot of time worrying).*
2- *In my opinion, (they should leave Clinton alone).*
3- *Personally, I feel that (that hat is too big).*
4- *Personally, I believe that (our children will live in a better world).*
5- *It seems to me that (people around here drive a little too fast).*
6- *The way I see it, (we should not really worry whether the world is round).*
7- *From my point of view, (her actions have been deplorable.).*
8- *If you ask me, (he should apologize).*
9- *I'd say (we could all do with a little rest).*
10- *I am convinced that (if you persevere you will succeed no matter what the obstacles).*
11- *I am of the opinion that (children should be seen but not heard).*
12- *It is my opinion that (the West is a civilization in decline).*
13- *I hold the view that (men and women are created equal).*
14- *Personally, I consider (Sue's comment to be completely out-of-line).*
15- *It is my considered opinion that (he will make a comeback).*
16- *To be quite frank, (you should change the color of your hair).*
17- *To be perfectly frank, (you are too tall for me).*

Saying you have no opinion

1- *I really could not say.*
2- *I am afraid I couldn't say.*
3- *I have no strong feelings about X.*

4- Your guess is as good as mine.
5- I do not know.
6- It is really not something that I've thought about a great deal.
7- I really cannot say that I have any particular views on the subject.

Avoiding giving an opinion

1- Do you think so?
2- I suppose it depends on your point of view.
3- It's difficult to say.
4- I would have to think about it a bit.
5- I would rather not say.
6- I do not know really.
7- It all depends.
8- Maybe yes. Maybe no.
9- Perhaps
10 Could be. I really could not say.
11- I would rather not commit myself right now.
12- I was worried you would ask me about that.

Trying to change an opinion

1- Surely, you do not think that X.
2- Surely, you do not mean that X.
3- Another way of looking at it would be X
4- Do you really think that would be possible?
5- Yes, but on the other hand.
6- No, but look at X.
7- Hold on, X.
8- Think of it this way, X
9- Look at it like this, X.
10-You do not really think X.
2- Are you kidding?
3- Seen from a different angle, you might say that X
4- Looking at it in another light, X
5- But there are other things to consider. For example, X.
6- Have you really taken everything into consideration? For instance,X
7- Yes, but if you look at the big picture X.
8- I respect your opinion, however X.
9- Others might say that X.

7.2.9.1.10. Exercise 6: Ending a Story

Find a story with an unhappy ending. Summarize the plot or events leading up to the unhappy outcome. Divide the class into pairs and have

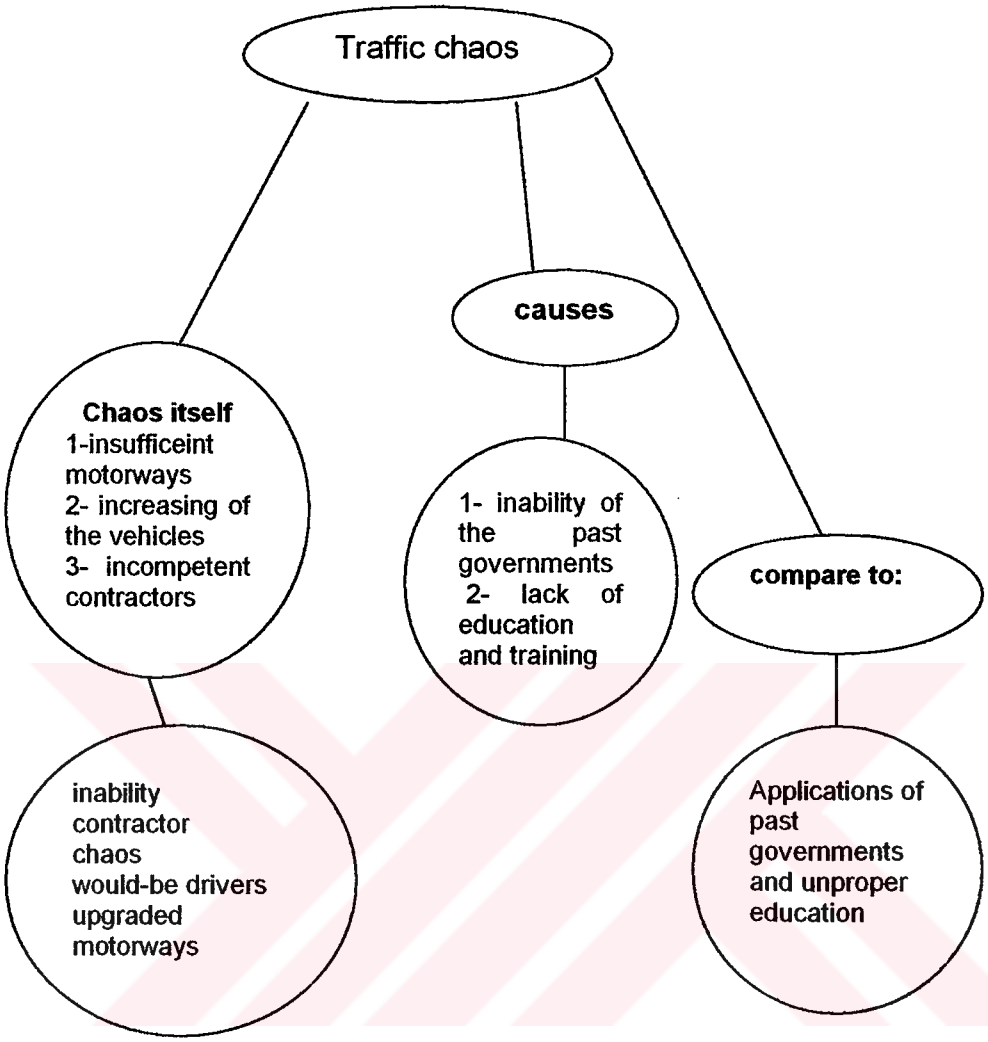
them read the story. After they read the story have them ask each other what the people could or should have done to avoid the unhappy outcome. Also have them speculate what the outcome of various alternative actions would have been. Have them use the modal phrases "could have"," should have", and "would have". Have the students write down their opinions and then have them circulate throughout the class asking each other's opinion. The teacher can also circulate and note down various opinions on the board.

7.2.9.1.11. Exercise 7: Semantic Mapping

This activity can be helpful to teach a reading text and to help the learners get he meaning of the vocabulary items by drawing a semantic map of many kinds of written texts. While reading or after reading, students are allowed to prepare a semantic map about the text. This can be done by either individually or in pairs. The following text and a sample semantic mapping are given as an example.

The factors contributing to the present day traffic chaos can be classified as follows. The most important factor is the inability of the past governments to build alternative systems of transport to the existing motorways. Secondly, proper education and training have been given to would-be drivers for the last twenty years. The condition of the existing motorway system not being upgraded parallel the increasing number of vehicles is yet another factor. Finally, the work done on motorways by contractors is not properly supervised or inspected by government officials.

(From Writing Task, II. 1998:26)



7.2.9.2. Teaching Listening and Speaking

In speech, communication is achieved only when the participants–both speaker and listener--are able to successfully match the sounds of words with meaning, and at the same time to associate the word with the correct set of morpho-syntactic properties. A further ability consists of recognizing the salient cognitive meanings of words as well as the semantic associations and connotations that the chosen words are related to. This is an essential stage in discourse understanding, since words may be synonymous at the cognitive level but may differ consistently in the associations they trigger. This principle has certainly guided the authors

when planning the activities of the course. The question now is: How can teachers train their students to store in mind a wide vocabulary that is helpful in their future jobs?(Watson-Delestree, and Jimmy Hill, 1998:1-6) Extensive listening practices are different kinds: a) listening for gist; b) listening for specific information; c) listening for the exact words of a phrase or expression; d) listening while reading; e) listening and taking notes; and f) listening for details. On the other hand, the main speaking activities entail: a) fluency work; b) speaking in public; and c) answering the phone.

7.2.9.2.1. Exercise: *The Working Week*

This is an intermediate business English course based on situations which arise daily in ordinary businesses from Monday to Friday. Since the course is designed to teach students to understand and speak English at work, each unit is based on dialogues that are immediately relevant to the students' needs. Given these premises, it is natural that *The Working Week* presents a situational and functional syllabus where communicative ability and fluency are given prominence over grammar.

The course is organized by setting each unit in a different company during a morning or afternoon of the five working days. The resulting ten units each include four or five parts devoted to the acquisition of language functions and vocabulary as well as to grammar review. Each unit opens with a photograph that provides context and stimulates interest. The photographs and cartoons are not mere illustrations, but serve to either contextualize the dialogue or to stimulate discussion of wider issues. Then a short paragraph provides the details of the company in which the unit is set.

Part 1 always presents one or more "problems" (e.g., orders not sent, supplier can't supply raw material, customers' complaints) presented through conversations that are exploited in one or more listening activities. The language of the conversations is further re-used in the follow-up activities. For example, students' attention is drawn to pronunciation and in particular to

where to pause in speech. *Part 2* contains the "solution" to the problem, again presented in spoken form. The language of the solution is exploited through a short written follow-up or pair work/role play.

Before introducing Parts 3 and 4, students are given the chance to relax and talk. The *"Coffee Break Discussions,"* which are designed to break up the more formal language activities, contain discussion points that raise issues relevant to topics related to work and employment. In some units, Part 3 focuses on expressions and idioms that are common in business English; in others, it proposes writing or listening activities. The "Grammar Review," which generally forms Part 4, has a twofold aim: On the one hand, it ensures a comprehensive revision of basic points; on the other, it proposes exercises that are useful for extrapolating grammar points from the dialogues. [-1-] A "Vocabulary Review" is provided at the end of each unit, in Part 5. It is meant to draw together the lexis, collocations, and expressions presented in the unit.

Since *The Working Week* is based on a Lexical Approach, the syllabus is shaped around four complementary strands:

1. Most of the language and skills work is presented through situational dialogues.
2. Combinations of words, collocations, and immediately usable multi-word expressions are widely exploited to provide students with an extensive range of lexis so as to build their mental lexicon.
3. The four skills are balanced, even though listening and speaking are given prominence because they are the most useful skills in a business context. Those combined skills that are needed at work (such as reading while listening, taking notes while listening, listening and then making a note, writing a summary or letter after a discussion) are extensively practiced.
4. A comprehensive review of basic grammar reinforces the acquisition of structures useful in business contexts.

In addition to the listening and speaking activities, reading activities are also included in this course. These are: a) reading informal notes; and b) reading business letters. However, writing activities include the following: a) writing a letter of confirmation; b) writing faxes and letters; c) writing a memo; and d) writing a speech. Since the course teaches all four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, more emphasis is given to those activities that combine two skills at the same time: a) listening *then* writing; b) reading *while* listening; and c) listening *and* speaking.

The cassette that accompanies *The Working Week* offers a series of recordings that present realistic language at natural speed and with different accents, thus providing learners with authentic practice of language as it is used in real business outside the classroom.

7.2.9.3. Teaching Writing

Teachers need to provide strategies to assist both reading and writing students in synthesizing meaning in larger segments of text (Nattinger, 1992:160). These strategies must be based on elements that provide both cohesion and coherence in the discourse, and must divert students' attention, whether on the local or global level, from individual lexical items to larger lexical phrase from / function composites. For a more specific illustration of how all of this might work, Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992:164) offer three different types of writing tasks. These are essay writing, informal letters, and business letters. Here are some examples taken from *Lexical Phrases and language teaching, 1992:165.*

7.2.9.3.1. Exercise 1: Writing an Essay

Progressing to complete essay, students might work with the following structure of functions and phrases. For example,

Opening : it is / has been asserted / believed / noted / emphasized that .....

Topic nomination: the basic emphasis / purpose / goal of this article is to.....

Topic : I / we claim / maintain / contend that .....

Topic organization : this paper will show / demonstrate / compare / contrast / describe that .....(by) analyzing / comparing / demonstrating (that ....) then by ..... ing ....., and finally by .....

Body assert: : it can be claimed / said / assumed that .....

Agree : ..... provides / ends support to .....'s argument / claim / conclusion that .....

Disagree : ..... does not support .....'s argument / claim / conclusion that .

Compare : both .....and ..... are (quite) similar in .....

Contrast : ..... is unlike ..... in that / with respect to .....

Generalize : one can generalize that .....

Closing : in conclusion / sum.....

Later, students would practice combining many of the variations of these, creating a skeleton structure for the essay, later filling in the specific arguments for the blanks. Teachers can also have students outline texts that have been written by others, essays from the textbooks, and other kinds of lexical phrases like described above.

7.2.9.3.2. Exercise 2: Writing about a general subject

In this activity students are given a specific topic and some words or phrases that will help students make brainstorming about their outlining. These words or phrases can be categorized under three main headlines: specific, more specific and most specific ones. Here is an example:

General Subject: keeping fit		
SPECIFIC	**MORE SPECIFIC**	**MOST SPECIFIC**
Part 1: doing sports →	team sports →	basketball,football
	individual sports →	jogging, swimming
Part 2: having a healthy diet →	lots of vegetables and fruit →	spinach, oranges
	limited amount of carbohydrates →	hamburger, dessert
Part 3: leading an organized life →	regular sleep →	min. 8 hours a day
	regular work hours →	max.8 hours a day

In short, the Lexical Approach to second language teaching has received interest in recent years as an alternative to grammar-based approaches. The lexical approach concentrates on developing learners' proficiency with lexis, or words and word combinations. It is based on the idea that an important part of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce lexical phrases as unanalyzed wholes, or "chunks," and that these chunks become the raw data by which learners perceive patterns of language traditionally thought of as grammar.

That is to say, the Lexical Approach emphasizes the need for very large amounts of input and encourages students to recognize and use grammatical structures without explicitly teaching them. The Lexical

Approach rejects the traditional split of language into grammar and vocabulary. Instead, it proposes four types of language:

1.Words, e.g. *ball, chair, car.*

2. Chunks – words that often occur together, e.g. *a crime has been committed, get in touch with the police.*

3. Fixed phrases, e.g. *Can I help you?*

4. Semi-fixed phrases, e.g. *It's great to see you, It's lovely to see you, Great to see you again*, etc. By this way, the status of lexis in language teaching has been considerably enhanced by developments in lexical and linguistic theory, and by recognition role of multiword units in language learning and communication.

So, the lexical approach makes a distinction between vocabulary--traditionally understood as a stock of individual words with fixed meanings--and lexis, which includes not only the single words but also the word combinations that we store in our mental lexicons. Advocates of the Lexical Approach argue that language consists of meaningful chunks when combined, and it produces continuous coherent text, and only a minority of spoken sentences is entirely novel creations.

CONCLUSION

Approaches, theories and methods are the most prominent characteristics of contemporary second and foreign language teaching. These reflect the strength of the profession of the language teachers. Teachers are not always free to choose the methods and approaches according to the needs and the expectations of the learners because teacher's books can also specify them right from the beginning. The main aim in foreign language teaching is to supply the necessary knowledge and the basic skills of the target language. According to the recent and contemporary programs, educational programs include aims, goals, objectives, contents, teaching-learning processes and evaluation phases. Today, these facilities have been supported by some scientific fields such as *sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, educational linguistics, pragmatics, semantics* and etc. On the other hand, the aims of the learners in learning a foreign language differ in many ways, it makes compulsory to improve varied teaching approaches and methods for different target communities.

For centuries scholars studied on languages in order to teach them effectively ; therefore, they put forward many views such as *Traditional View, Structural View, Generative View, Functional View, Interactional View* and *Communicative View*. In addition, as a result of developmental psycholinguistics some different kinds of approaches such as *Theoretical Approaches, Behavioral Approaches, Linguistic Approaches, Interactionist Approaches , Cognitive Approaches*, etc. came into being. First of all, these scholars studied languages with the aim of writing their grammars. In doing so, they concentrated only on the written form of the language under study since they believed that vernacular or everyday speech was impure and erroneous. These grammarians used Greek and Latin as a model as to how people should use language. In addition they were not concerned with how people used their mother tongue but with how they should be using it. This

approach towards language ,which was the application of a *Traditional View*, came to be regarded as *Prescriptivism* . According to Prescriptivists, the knowledge of language consisted of knowing the rules of sentence formation together with the knowledge of vocabulary.

At the turn of the 20th century, linguists adopted a totally different view toward the study of languages which contradicted with Prescriptive grammarians. These scholars were intersted in everyday speech rather than the language of literary works. That's to say, they studied what people said not what grammarians prescribed as the standards of correctness. As a part of the *Structural View* , which accepts language as a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning , this new approach was *Descriptivism* which tried to describe the components of language at the levels of sounds, words and structures. Structuralism was heavily criticized by Chomsky and his followers who were the initiators of the *Generative View.* They differentiated the *deep structures* from *surface structures* on the one hand , and *competence* and *performance* on the other. They also proposed that *Generative rules* are employed to change the *deep structures* while *Transformational rules* are employed to change *the deep structures* into the *surface structures*. Although according to this view, the linguistic knowledge of native speakers consisted phonology, lexicon and syntax, the main concern was with the syntactic knowledge they possessed.

Chomsky's linguistic competence was thought to be insufficient and incomplete because some environmental factors such as the speaker-hearer relationship, physical context, and discourse elements were ignored. Therefore, in the light of the *Communicative View*, the term *communicative competence* came to be used to refer to different aspects of native speakers' knowledge, namely *grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence* and *strategic competence.*

Functional View, on the one hand, accepted language as a vehicle for the expression of functional meanings. The Communicative movement in

language teaching subscribes to this view of language. (Richard & Rodgers , 1990 : 16- 17) This theory emphasized the semantic and communicative dimensions rather than the grammatical characteristics of language and led to a specification and organization of language teaching content by categories of meaning and function rather than by elements of structure and grammar. Besides this view, there were one more view called *Interactionist View.* It accepted language as vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals. Language was seen as a tool for the creation and maintenance of social relations. Language teaching content may be specified and organized by patterns of exchange and interaction or may be left unspecified, to be shaped by the inclinations of learners as interactors.

Furthermore, it must be noted that as well as all these ideas are important and related to the language teaching, it mustn't be forgotten that there are also some effective factors in this field. These factors ; for example , are selecting course material, needs assesment , needs analysis and etc. Because it is obvious that if any course is supported by a qualified, well-prepared material or a course book responding to the needs and the expectations of the learners, it will be more effective and useful. That's to say, if any course book, no matter how effective it is, it is used without any necessary modification as mentioned above, then the result will not be efficient. But it must be borne in mind that if any course book has been written depending on a method, it is certain that these books will be more efficient both for learners and the teachers.

It can be said that language teaching is not an easy process since it requires many objectives. For that reason, it has become a very immense field since the beginning of the 19th century. Many scholars, linguists, and trainers put forward many different approaches, theories, and methods to teach it effectively. That is to say, language teaching has been a matter of discussion and discovery in linguistics, psychological and methodological

circles for long. Therefore, language teaching consists of three major components being interrelated to each other.

1- linguistic component
2- methodological component
3- pedagogical component

Since the attitudes, facts, theories, methods, techniques, and approaches are provided by the first two, the third establishes and fits the language teaching activity into the appropriate slots in accordance with the expectations and the needs. Needless to say, language teaching and learning go hand-in-hand. So, all language teachers and trainers should be aware of this fact and before starting a lesson they should decide on the methods or the approaches based upon the needs of this dissertation and the necessity of the course to be taught. Although these are the basic objectives of a language course, it must be borne in mind that these factors may sometimes be insufficient if they are not supported by a suitable course material because of the fact that most of the course books are written by experienced and well-qualified people and helps the teachers teach efficiently. (Cunningsworth, 1984: 7) But here, some questions come into the minds:

1- Is any kind of teaching material suitable for every course?
2- To what extent can it be successful in teaching the aimed purposes?
3- To what extent is it suitable for the contents of the course?
4- Is the book or the material selected taking into consideration the content of the course?
5- What method is the book or the material based on or does it have any method?
6- Are the students provided with enough exercises to work on?

In the light of the ideas mentioned above, as a language teacher and seeing that there are not so many suitable and satisfying books for the

course of *Approaches in ELT*, we offer to prepare our own course book for the classes mentioned paying attention to the needs and expectations of our own students and teachers. So, this study aims at the preparation of a textbook for the mentioned course. It is hoped that our study and our suggested textbook will cover the missing points of the books on the market. The content of this suggested textbook will be as follows:

a) chronological order of some of the common and recently developed approaches and their principles, underlying philosophies and the theories of them, weak sides, strong sides, contributions to ELT and also related methods of each approaches,
b) the role of the teachers and the learners within the approach,
c) creation of some applied material in forms of exercises and activities

As it is known, it may not be so easy to find a textbook satisfying all the needs of the teachers, students and the content of the course, of course. In short we can say that it is possible to prepare alternative course books for some courses in ELT departments. In this dissertation, therefore, we try to suggest an alternative course book for *Approaches in ELT* courses of the faculties of ELT, which is the main concern of our study. In addition, it can be said that students studying at ELT departments, teachers who have been teaching *Approaches in ELT Course* and prospective teachers who think that will be able to make use of this suggested textbook.

This dissertation includes eight chapters and a conclusion chapter. In the first chapter, the general aim, scope, methods, problematic areas, and the hypotheses for writing this dissertation are given. Needless to say, course books provide unlimited facilities to the learners and the teachers as it is mentioned earlier in this study. For that reason, every lesson should be supported with at least a course or a textbook. When teachers decide to use a course or a textbook book for his / her lesson, they should decide on some criteria. That is to say, they might decide to use a textbook, but to change it

to make more suitable and effective for the students. If the material is not very substantial teachers might add something to it – a role-plays, games, and exercises after reading a text, perhaps, or extra situations or activities for practice. The lack of these activities and the exercises are seen as defects or handicaps for a course book since it is believed that any subject can be understood better, when they are supported by exercises and activities. Therefore, most of the teachers complain about the inadequate exercises or the application sections of the course or textbooks and as a result, this causes some serious problems. This idea became the starting point of our dissertation.

We put the approaches into a chronological order in this suggested textbook in accordance with the syllabus prepared by YÖK as a result of its reconstruction at ELT faculties. The chronological order of the approaches starts from 1930 to 2000 because of the reason that in each decade certain strategic inventions, current developments from the neighboring sciences, and educational technology exerted a deep impact on ELT to a greater extent. For these reasons, in the third chapter, approaches which emerged during 1930 and 1950 ; in the fourth chapter approaches which emerged during 1950 and 1970; in the fifth chapter approaches which emerged during 1970s ; and in the sixth chapter approaches which emerged during 1970 and 1980; and in the seventh chapter approaches which emerged after 1980s were handled and explained. This type of categorization was made by taking into the specific developments took place during these periods. For example, in 1931 wireless had been invented, and 1950 was the year of the invention of the tape recorders, which had helped the emergence of the Audiolingual method. All the principles, philosophies, techniques, weak, and strong points of these approaches were discussed and at the end of the sections, each of them exemplified with exercises and activities that will be helpful to the teachers to be able to put into practice with four skills. However, before stating the approaches, first, the most important contributions of some schools and scholars were determined.

The second chapter of this dissertation includes the explanations and the definitions of some scholars related to the terms such as approach, method, and technique which constitute the main issue of our study. Before giving the general explanations and the definitions of these terms, firstly, some important approaches which gave path to the emergence of language teaching approaches were handled in a general sense. That is to say, we tried to unearth what is meant by saying Behavioristic Approaches, Humanistic Approaches, Linguistic Approaches, Functional Approaches, and so on. Many scholars have studied on this issue depending upon their studies to the philosophies of these specific approaches, that is , they categorized language teaching approaches and methods in terms of these umbrella terms. For example, Blair (1991: 25) states Total Physical Response and the Natural Approach as the outcomes of Comprehension-based approaches; Suggestopedia and Counseling-Language Learning / Community Language Learning as the outcomes of Humanistic approaches; on the other hand, Richards and Rogers (2001:151-244) put forward Communicative Language Teaching, Cooperative Language Learning, Content-based Instruction, and Task-based Language Teaching are the results of current communicative approaches and so on. Therefore, it is thought that it will be enlightening to give some knowledge about these specific approaches in this chapter.

Later, differences among approach, method, and technique have been given. In this dissertation, the term approach has been investigating in its real sense. That is to say, it does not refer to "*start dealing with a task, problem, etc. in a particular way*" as its dictionary meaning. An approach must be *concept* which provides ways of teaching a language in terms of all four skills. It should not need proof; it should be supported by undisputable philosophies, theories, and should have strong principles. As it mentioned in the "*aims and scopes*" section, in the language teaching field there have been unlimited so-called approaches, most of which have only deals with one skill. For that reason, only the ones that support all the four skills have been

taken into this study. That is to say, an approach should have: language, language theory, and a philosophy.

On the other hand, as it is known method should be a set of procedure which is compatible with an approach and technique should be a scientific type of learning activity used in methods. For example, Communicative Approach can be employed by Direct Method by using meaningful exercises or Humanistic Approach may be carried out by Suggestopedia by using peripheral learning. It must be borne in mind that, of course, before applying the necessary approaches or methods to the language teaching field.

Chapter three, finally, is the opening chapter of the main issue of our dissertation. Approaches handled in this dissertation have been put into a chronological order according to their coming into the agenda. As the starting point, the year 1930, which was the earlier times of the 19th century and also the beginning of the innovations in the language teaching field, was taken, and then most common ones were listed year-by-year according to their emergence. Before stating the main approaches related to the Behaviorism, first of all, general ideas are given about Behaviorism and the Behaviorist Approach. Finally, the approaches arose in this century, which has been accepted as the Scientific Era by some scholars, were taken into consideration. The most significant approaches emerged during 1930 and 1950 were Behavioristic Approach, Structural Approach, Audiolingual method, Audiovisual method, and Oral Approach .Of these Oral (Situational) Approach, otherwise known as Situational Language Teaching, states the importance of the spoken form of language; target language is the language of the classroom; graded teaching of grammar is essential; reading and writing are emphasized with lexical and grammatical basis; new language points are introduced and practiced situationally. Humanistic Approach, however, has been influenced by the principles of the humanistic psychology that emphasizes affective as well as cognitive factors in language learning. It insists that students have feelings, attitudes, and opinions as well as mind

and those teachers should meet students' affective needs. Audiolingual method is a teacher-dominant process. Teachers look like the orchestra leaders, directing and controlling the language behaviour of the students. Students are imitators of the teacher's model. They follow the teacher's directions and respond as accurately and as rapidly as possible. New vocabulary and structures are presented through dialogs. The dialogs are learned through imitation and repetition as in the behaviortistic learning. With this approach, drills such as transformational, substitution, expansion, and so on became important in the language teaching field.

Students' successful responses are positively reinforced. Grammar is induced from the examples given; explicit grammar rules are not provided. Cultural information is contextualized in the dialogs or presented by the teacher. Students' reading and written work is based upon the oral work they did earlier. In addition, the habits of the students' native language are thought to interfere with the students' attempt to master the target language. Therefore, the target language is used in the classroom, not the students' native language. A contrastive analysis between the students' native language and the target language reveals where a teacher should expect the most interference. The Audiovisual method also supports that language is for communication within the boundaries of the Audiovisual method, teachers can make use of pictures, films, slides, listening cassettes, or tape recordings. They are very useful in supporting the achievement of learning objectives. Students can understand the topic as they both see and hear contextual clues

In the fourth chapter, approaches from 1950 to 1970 have been investigated. These approaches are Cognitive-code Approach and Cognitive Approach. In the Cognitive-Code Approach, the four skills are taught at once for the communication purposes. The Cognitive-Code textbooks should also be designed in such a fashion that rules are presented in details with the examples and they are practiced through varied exercises as it is done in this

dissertation. The nature of the Cognitive-Code Approach paved the way for the advancement of communicative and humanistic approaches which were inspired by the individual mental processing idea of the cognitive theory. It is also possible that the theory behind of this approach caused to appear the eclectic approach because it also bears some eclectic features in its foundation. It points out the deductive learning and is sequenced. Active, encouraging, rule-seeking, problem solving activities or exercises are the essential for the teaching process. So, this approach provides valuable ideas and techniques for ELT teachers to develop teaching materials and activities for the teaching of both language skills and language areas, and to create opportunities for learners to use the real language in a creative and appropriate manner.

Later, Cognitive Approach, whose origin dates back to the Gestalt Theory, emerged in which transformation at generative concepts represented the linguistic component and became associated with a cognitive view of psychology of learning. It presented the language as an intellectual learning problem. It can be claimed to be a revolution in terms of rejecting the behaviorism which constitutes the milestones of the psycholinguistics. It informs teachers about the cognitive readiness which refers to the adequacy of existing cognitive capacity to cope with the cognitive learning task. It reflects the individual differences in individual background. According to the Cognitive Approach as mentioned in the fourth chapter, four skills are to be introduced at approximately the same time in the natural sequence in which the teacher should organize a hierarchical organization of tasks from competence to performance. Finally, after giving the necessary information about these two approaches, supplementary exercises and activities were included to make teachers use them in practice. In short, the fourth chapter is said to be concerned with the approaches generally dealing with the cognitive and meaningful learning between the years 1950 and 1970. Almost all of the approaches emerged during these years were the supporters of

somewhat teacher-centered language teaching because the methods provided by these approaches can be seen as teacher- oriented models.

In chapter five, the Humanistic Approach is seen. This approach generally depends on some principles such as: the development of human values, growth in self-awareness and in the understanding of others, sensitivity to human feelings and emotions, active student involvement in learning and in the way learning takes place (Richards & Platt, 1992:169). So, the Humanistic Approach has been changed when Rogers's ideas were added and adapted to language teaching in the light of the Humanistic psychology. He is not as concerned about the actual cognitive process of learning, but the concept of learning everything they need to.

In chapter six, Communicative Approach, the Functional-Notional Approach, and the Natural Approach have been dealt with. These approaches emerged between the years 1970-1980. The essential principles of these approaches are to teach the functions and the notions of the target language as it mentioned in details in the fifth chapter. The Communicative Approach, which aims at students' becoming communicatively competent takes an important place in English language teaching by using the authentic materials in English language classes. Students are provided with real life situations in role-plays, games, or problem solving activities. So, they can completely control over the English language. Communicative Approach mainly deals with the functions the language is used for. The Communicative Approach receives much more attention since it goes beyond the structure of the language and deals with the effects of the communication with regard to cultural differences between the first language and the second language on the learners of English language, and the verbal, nonverbal, visual communication gain importance in English language teaching.

The Functional-Notional Approach states that language learning needs to learn different functions or speech acts such as requesting, inviting, promising, and so on. In addition to the functions, learners also need to get

the meaning through the notions such as time, duration, location, etc. That is to say, the Functional-Notional Approach necessitates: communicative competence as the desired goal to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately, widespread promotion of foreign language learning at the very moment, starting of reading and writing from the first day if desired, fluent and acceptable language, and so on.

And, on the one hand, the Natural Approach is similar to the Communicate Approach but it is based on its own set of hypotheses. This approach puts into practice the theory of second language acquisition that Krashen developed. The Natural Approach is designed primarily to enable a beginner level student to reach acceptable levels of oral communicative ability with the foreign language vocabulary items. The central tenet of The Natural Approach is that "acquisition occurs in a natural order when students receive comprehensible input, messages they understand." (Freeman-Freeman1998:19). Vocabulary is acquired by a natural order and comprehension is the key factor in the foreign language vocabulary acquisition.

The Natural Approach is based on a theoretical model consisting of five hypotheses: (1) the acquisition-learning hypothesis (the distinction between natural acquisition as seen in L1 and the formal learning that emphasizes conscious rules and error corrections); (2) the natural order hypothesis (that vocabulary items tend to be naturally acquired in a predictable order without artificial sequencing of input); (3) the monitor hypothesis (that conscious learning has the limited function monitoring or editing language performance) ; (4) the input hypothesis (that language is acquired when input is an interesting and relevant context that is slightly above one's current level of competence) ; (5) the affective filter hypothesis (that attitudinal factors are related language acquisition) (Zimmerman 1997).

The Natural Approach, therefore, stands on these hypotheses and it emphasizes comprehensible and meaningful input rather than structurally correct production with vocabulary items.

Chapter seven includes the approaches emerged during 1980 and up to our present day. Approaches emerged during this period generally semantic-based oriented since the meaning gained importance in the mid of the 20th century and in the early periods of the 21st century. However, approaches of this period generally tend to teach one skill, which may be accepted as a defect for an approach. For that reason, most the approaches are not included in this dissertation except the Whole Language Approach and the Lexical Approach.

The Whole Language Approach, for example, involves a philosophy about teaching and learning, which is grounded in current research. It is good for all types of learners of all ages. Language teachers may adopt the parts approach, the Whole Language Approach, or a combination of the two as they formulate their philosophy of second language learning. The Whole Language Approach provides a learning environment in which the students participate in meaningful language experiences. Through the process of constructing language for communication purposes, the students develop the ability to listen, speak, read, and write in a natural manner. The Whole Language environment immerses students in language-rich experiences and provides opportunities for them to create meaningful language in response to that environment. According to proponents of whole language research, the process of language learning is a natural development of communication skills that is influenced by the learner's cognitive, linguistic, and social systems.

On the other hand, Lexical Approach to second language teaching has received interest in recent years as an alternative to grammar-based approaches. The Lexical Approach concentrates on developing learners'

proficiency with lexis, or words and word combinations. It is based on the idea that an important part of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce lexical phrases as unanalyzed wholes, or "*chunks*," The most important contribution of The Lexical Approach is to highlight the importance of vocabulary as being basic to communication. It is claimed that if learners do not recognize the meaning of keywords they will be unable to participate in the conversation, even if they know the morphology and the syntax of the foreign language. In addition, makes a turning point for *Lexical Syllabus Design* for language teaching. It is the Lexical Approach that emphasized on the use of patterns of lexis and collocation instead of studying isolated and decontextualized words.

Consequently, with this dissertation a known method has been applied into a new area. The first decision of the teachers is that they have to make a decision on whether they should use a textbook or not since the available ones could not respond to their expectations, so the aim of the lessons will not reach the expected objectives, so teachers either have to teach the lessons without a textbook – which will be highly exhausting and boring – or they have to replace the textbook with an alternative one if any. Therefore, teachers should be aware of its good and bad points in order to choose the best and the appropriate one for their courses. Ur (1996:187-188) states some criteria for the selection of a suitable course book. For example, a textbook should:

1- have some theoretical knowledge
2- have adequate guidance for the teachers,
3- clear attractive layout; print easy to read,
4- listening and speaking communicative tasks,
5- reading and writing communicative tasks,
6- mixed-skills communicative tasks,
7- some entertaining or fun activities.
8- have appropriate visual materials available,

So, in the light of the explanations given above, one of the most important samples of the problem has been seen at *Approaches in ELT Courses* of the English Language Teaching Departments of the Faculties of Education, which constitutes the objectives of our dissertation because the available course and text books for this lesson should not provide most of the criteria mentioned above. For that reasons, our dissertation aims at the importance a course book which has been designed according to the criteria mentioned above. A suggested textbook has been aimed at in this dissertation for *Approaches in ELT Courses* to compensate the inadequacy and shortcoming of the available book.

For that reason, the most common and the important language teaching approaches have been included in this dissertation. They have been listed in a chronological order, that is, according to the emergence of them, beginning in the year 1930 up to 2000. While deciding and choosing these approaches, the views and ideas of the most common scholars and linguists have been taken into consideration because this dissertation will be a suggested course book. As it is known, *Approaches in ELT* courses have been given in 3-hour courses in one semester, so it will not be possible to teach all the approaches in limited course hours.

As a result, all approaches handled in this dissertation are enriched with examples and activities. One of the most serious and important issues in this course is that of the lack or insufficient materials, exercises, and activities to put into practice the theoretical parts of these approaches. Books which had been taken for this course had enough theoretical knowledge, but insufficient exercises. For that reason, lots of exercises and activities related to each approach were added, which are thought to be helpful for the language teachers and for learners in order to learn the issues more consciously.

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