

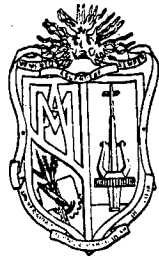
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un análisis de los métodos

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Método - Educación

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UNIVERSIDAD TECNICA PARTICULAR DE LOJA

FACULTAD DE LENGUAS

DEPARTAMENTO DE INGLES

**“AN ANALYSIS OF THE EFL
METHODS”**

A research submitted in partial
fulfillment of the requirement for
the Licenciante's degree in EFL

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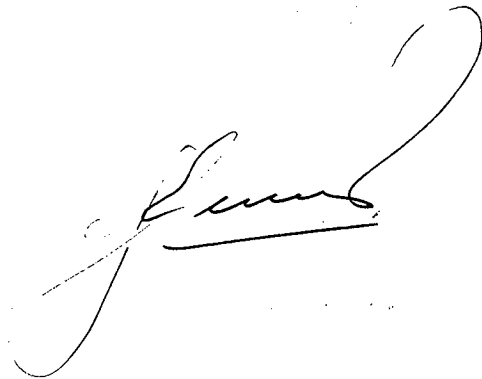
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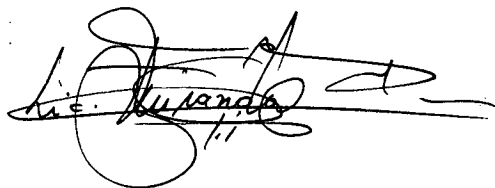
2017



Lic. Mario Miranda Delgado, Professor
of the Technical University of Loja,
and Director of the Thesis
"AN ANALYSIS OF THE EFL METHODS,"

C E R T I F I E S:

That the present work has been
carefully revised and supervised in
all its parts, and therefore
authorizes its presentation.



Lic. Mario Miranda Delgado.

DEDICATION

To my daughter and son
my life's reason

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I present my sincere acknowledgment to every one who helped me in the doing of this work. To the Technical University of Loja which gave me the opportunity to acquire my academic formation. To Lic. Mario Miranda, my Thesis's director, who oriented me in the development of this research. And specially to my parents, sister and brothers who offered me their support in every moment.

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INTRODUCTION

This research is written in order to give useful and adequate orientations to students and teachers of English as a foreign language. But these orientations are not only theoretical, you can find here methods, techniques and strategies which can be used in the classroom to get good results.

The teacher must be conscious about the procedures and materials he will use in the classroom. This research is an attempt to facilitate the hard work of language teaching by providing teachers and students with the adequate methods and procedures. With this in mind, I am providing here a discussion of what can be considered as traditional methods, innovative methods and new trends in teaching, from a very beginning level through intermediate to advanced levels. Nevertheless the teacher has to choose what is most suitable for him in the classroom. Frequently, methods, techniques and procedures which are useful at one level, do not work at another. So I will try to focus on the problems and needs of classroom teachers according to the student's level.

The reader of this paper will have the opportunity to find problems, benefits and to clarify doubts as well about the teaching-learning process of English as a foreign language. Consequently, the student-teacher will be able to assess new

methods, recognize and avoid fads, and appreciate the potential of various teaching approaches, this, by the reading of selected articles and chosen materials and by the explanations given here about those methods that for many of us have been unknown.

The purpose of this research paper is to offer proven methods and also those that have been tested in the classroom in order to help readers to help themselves out. Of course, I expect that the readers of this work will agree and disagree on some issues, and therefore they will have their own beliefs and make their own choices. But in spite of these differences, I am sure of one thing, we all agree on the great benefits of some of the therapeutic techniques proposed by Lozanov, the cathartic play acting Suggestopedia, the Learning Approach of Curran, as well as the Total Physical Response proposed by James Asher or the Silent Way introduced by Caleb Gattegno.

Each method has its own distinctive characteristics, but all of them seem to focus a great deal of attention on the teacher as a director of what happens in the classroom. In addition to this, each in its own way is also very much attuned to what goes inside the students, and what the student as an individual brings to the classroom and takes away from it.

I also present here a chapter about the four skills. These skills appear separately, first oral, then written, not because I advocate the classical audio-lingual method, but because it will be easier to discuss and teach them if they are considered as independent units. The student-teacher should know how to apply and use them in the classroom and of course

he is invited to learn how to do it.

Something important to mention about this theoretical study is that a good teaching practice is based on good theoretical understanding which implies a good knowledge on methods, techniques and procedures, plus the practice in the classroom. The reader of this work is invited to get into the foreign language teaching and learning process. I assume that second languages are difficult to learn and no less difficult to teach. But I am also conscious that the teacher should put time and effort in order to achieve better goals in teaching, choose his/her own methods, and perform according to the teaching environment he/she is surrounded, this will benefit the students in the long run.

CHAPTER I
TRADITIONAL METHODS

1.1 GRAMMAR TRANSLATION OR TRADITIONAL METHOD

1.1.1 MAIN FEATURES

A foreign language can be acquired by reading, writing and translation. Grammar translation as its name suggests, emphasizes the teaching of the foreign language grammar. Its principal practice technique is the translation from and into the target language.

1.1.2 SOURCES AND HISTORY

It appeared in the 18th century, but this approach did not emerge full-blown until the decades of the 19th century. During the second half of the last, it had received wider acceptance. But after its highest point, the natural methodologists and linguists who advocated instruction based on phonetic principles, began a controversy with grammar translation followers that finally resulted in the direct method approach. As a consequence of this challenge for grammar translation, by the end of the 19th century it was losing support. The majority of the language teaching reforms in the late 19th century and during the first half of the 20th century developed in opposition to grammar translation. But after all, this method is still widely used and employed as a complement

with other strategies.

1.1.3 OBJECTIVES

Its goal was to produce students who could read and write in the target language. Little or no emphasis was paid to pronunciation, oral communication or listening to second language speech. Grammar translation practitioners considered that it was a necessary preliminary to the study of literary works.

1.1.4 TEACHING TECHNIQUES

Its methodology was mainly grammatical rules and paradigms which were provided as the basis for translating native language sentences into the foreign or viceversa. The native tongue was used to give long explanations of grammar; classes could be taught in the students' native language with little teaching skill needed by the instructor. Lessons were presented in short grammatical chapters or readings containing a few grammar followed by rules and illustrated by examples.

The learner was expected to study and memorize rules and to produce errorless translations from the beginning. Rules always included vocabulary lists, prepositions, grammar structures, etc. Obviously, exercises consisted of words, phrases and sentence in the first language which the learners, with the help of a bilingual vocabulary list or a dictionary, translate into the target language. Another kind of exercises were designed in order to translate in the same way from the

target language into the native language. Then according to the practice and level of the learner, he would gradually translate paragraphs and texts.

1.1.5 THEORETICAL ASSUMPTIONS

As a method, the grammar translation considered that the target language is primarily interpreted as a set of rules to be employed in texts and sentences and also to be related to the first language rules and meanings.

The language learning process seemed to be an intellectual activity involving rules learning, memorizations and facts related to the first language meaning by means of a lot of translation practice. The learner maintained a reference from his native language during the acquisition of his target language, so in this regard, this method for learning modern languages is justified.

1.1.6 ASSESSMENT

In spite of all its uncertainties and attempts to change it, the grammar translation or traditional method has maintained certain importance. As years have passed and methods have been proved, it seems that the native language remains as an important reference for the second language learners.

Appeals of grammar translation included the cognitive, systematic use of grammar rules as a basis of instruction, not unlike the generative transformational grammar appeal in the

post-audiolingual era. The directness of translation and the utilization of the students' native language proficiency were also appealing features.

Its major defect lies in the overemphasis on the language as a set of rules and in the limitations of practice which will maintain always the learner tied to his native language. However, this method provides a safe, easy and practical entry into a second language.

(H.H. Stern, 1983: 453-456 / Allen and Vallete, 1977: 268-276)

1.2 THE DIRECT METHOD

1.2.1 PRINCIPAL FEATURES

Its main characteristic is the use of the target language as means of instruction and communication within the classroom. On the other hand, it is also characterized by the avoidance of the use of the first language and of translation as a technique.

1.2.2 SOURCES AND HISTORY

The language teaching reforms which began at the middle of the 18th century, attempt to make language teaching more effective by a radical change from grammar translation. These reforms appeared under a variety of names as: reform method, phonetic method, psychological method, natural method, etc., but the most adequate term to describe the various features of the new approach to language learning

and teaching was the term Direct Method.

Its acceptance can be partly attributed to the reformers' impetus and to the need for better language learning in a new world of industry and international trade and travel. Historically the development of this method is closed linked with the introduction of phonetics into language pedagogy because both, phonetics and the direct method emphasized the use of the spoken language, conceptually, however they are not necessarily linked.

In the following decades, the direct method was not totally applied, its influence on theory and practice was profound and widespread. It represented a challenge to teachers, they had to adopt from the direct method its emphasis on the spoken language and many of its techniques, but no translations and explanations in the native language. In several european educational systems, the translation of texts was totally replaced by direct study of printed texts, narrations and writing of free compositions. This method then, had introduced into the language teaching process a rift between what teachers actually do in their classes and what they believe they should do.

1.2.3 OBJECTIVES

Its main objective is to train students with the everyday language, something that was totally lacking in the grammar translation method. It represents more a change in means than in the ends of language teaching, and its goals in language instruction are not fundamentally different from

those of its procedures. Special attention is paid in pronunciation and oral communication.

1.2.4 TECHNIQUES

The procedure involved the classroom presentation of a text by the teacher, it is usually short, specially constructed for the classroom. The students read the text for practice and they are asked some questions; new expressions and grammatical rules are explained in the target language with the help of paraphrases, synonyms, demonstrations or contexts, but the students are encouraged to discover for themselves the grammatical principles involved. Exercises consist of transpositions, substitutions, dictations, narrative and free composition. Classes involve much use of spoken language, for this reason, phonetic transcription was regarded as an important part of this method.

1.2.5 THEORETICAL ASSUMPTIONS

Linguistically language teaching was supposed to be based on phonetics and on a scientifically established coherent grammar. The acquisition of a second language was viewed analogous to the first language acquisition so the language learning process was often interpreted in terms of a comparative psychology. Hence the importance of emphasizing on sounds and simple sentences and the direct association of language with objects and persons of the intermediate environment.

1.2.6 ASSESSMENT

The direct method was the first in which the impetus came both, from the creative imagination of a few practitioners and from the critical and theoretical thought about the nature of language and language learning. It was the first attempt to make the language learning process a process of language use, and to train the learner to abandon his native language as the frame for reference. It demanded a lot of imagination on the part of teachers in order to get what the method itself tries by the use of demonstrations, spoken narratives, dictations, imitations and many other grammatical exercises that have resulted from the direct method.

Besides its advantages and objectives, there are two major problems that have affected the direct method. One has been how to get and convey meaning without translating and how to get away from misunderstanding without any reference to the first language. Another problem has been how to apply the direct method beyond elementary stages of language learning. It means that direct method has focused its strategies on early stages of teaching, but has added relatively little attention to the teaching of advanced learners.

(H.H. Stern, 1983: 456-460 / Allen and Vallete, 1977: 277-291)

1.3 THE READING METHOD

1.3.1 PRINCIPAL FEATURE

This method has deliberately restricted its goal within the language learning process to training in reading comprehension.

1.3.2 SOURCE AND HISTORY

In the second decade of the 19th century, many educators argued that learning to read fluently was more important than learning to speak. They recommended an emphasis on reading not only because it was a useful skill to be acquired in a foreign language but also because it was the easiest skill and represented a great help for students in the early stages of language learning. It was considered a practical form of language teaching and let students realize by themselves the rules involved in a determined reading. The student was given instructions on reading strategies, so the spoken language was not entirely neglected.

In spite of the criticisms this method received during the time it was advocated in America and during World War II, there has been a renewed interest in the teaching of languages for specific purposes as reading of scientific literature.

1.3.3 OBJECTIVE

The reading method is a theory of language teaching that has as a main objective to train students in

reading comprehension which is a practical attainable utility.

1.3.4 TECHNIQUES

Its techniques were not completely different from those used under previous methods. The use of the native language was not totally excluded from the language instruction. Explanations and introductions were oral as in the direct method, pronunciation was an important aid in reading comprehension. Vocabulary control in reading was considered as of prime importance, and also it marked the difference between detailed study and extensive rapid reading for general comprehension.

1.3.5 THEORETICAL ASSUMPTIONS

This method has a strongly pragmatic basis. Its educational and theoretical assumptions had something to do with those of current language schools of the twenties. It was an attempt to adapt educational activities to specified ultimate practical uses.

1.3.6 ASSESSMENT

The reading method appeared as a consequence of practical educational considerations not from a change in linguistic or psychological theory. It introduced into the language teaching process four important elements: 1) the possibility of planning techniques of language learning adapted to specific purposes, in this case reading; 2) the application of vocabulary control to second language texts as a

mean of better grading of texts; 3) the creation of graded readers; 4) thanks to vocabulary control, the introduction of techniques of rapid reading to the foreign language classroom.

(H.H. Stern, 1983: 460-462 / Allen and Vallete, 1977: 291-307)

1.4 THE AUDIOLINGUAL METHOD

1.4.1 PRINCIPAL FEATURES

As main features of this method can be mentioned the following: 1) separation of the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing ; 2) the use of dialogues as the chief means of presenting the language; 3) emphasis on some practice techniques, mimicry, memorizations, and pattern drills; 4) the use of a language laboratory; 5) establishing a linguistic and psychological theory as a basis for the teaching method.

1.4.2 SOURCES AND HISTORY

The audio lingual method has been described and used in some influential books which appeared from about 1960. It seemed to be born in America, but had considerable influence on language education process in most parts of the world. It appeared under various names as: the oral-aural method, but after, the term audiolingual was adopted for this method. Its period of greatest influence did not last too much; it was severely criticized on theoretical and pragmatic grounds, and demands for a new orientation became more and more advocated.

The audiolingual theory was probably the first language teaching theory that claimed in a direct way to be derived from linguistics and psychology. Followers of this method did not only assert to have placed language teaching on a scientific basis, they also were able to demonstrate that the principles derived from the scientific disciplines would be applied in concrete and useful forms in language teaching materials, and in practices that were used within that process.

Meanwhile teaching materials and teaching practice have only just caught up with the audiolingual classroom innovations and thoughts. The differences between the rapid changes in theoretical positions and the slower development of practice let a sense of confusion and desorientation in the practitioners of the audiolingual method. This in the early seventies.

1.4.3 OBJECTIVES

In this method, the emphasis was placed on what were considered as fundamental skills: reading and speaking. These two skills precede in the teaching sequence to listening and writing. It also tries to develop the foreign language skills without reference to the native language. Language learning was primarily focused on the acquisition of a practical set of communicative skills.

1.4.4 TECHNIQUES

The audiolingual method does not present emphasis on grammatical knowledge, however it is not completely

neglected in this method. The use of the native language in the language class or in the learning materials is not as deep as in the direct method.

Here, the learning process is viewed as one of habituation and conditioning without the intervention of any intellectual analysis. Its intention is to make language learning a matter of effort and frequent repetition and imitation instead of a mental burden practice. The audiolingual method introduced memorization of dialogues and repetitions, and developed pattern drills. These audiolingual techniques appeared to offer the possibility of language learning without requiring a strong academic background and inclination. Its techniques were simple and direct and involved speaking and listening which without being actual conversations rehearsed the verbal exchange of everyday talk by means of stimulus and response according to tape recordings.

1.4.5 THEORETICAL ASSUMPTIONS

The audiolingual method reflects the descriptive, structural and contrastive linguistic of the fifties and sixties. Its psychology deals with the interpretation that the language learning process has to be studied in terms of stimulus and response besides operant conditioning and reinforcement with an emphasis on successful error-free learning in small well-prepared steps and stages. On the other hand, this method has been repeatedly criticized because of the lack of sophistication and of consistency in its application of psychological and linguistic theory.

1.4.6 ASSESSMENT

There seemed to be a period in which the audiolingual method was in front of the second and foreign language teaching methods, but, by the end of the sixties everything that went wrong related to language teaching, was related to this method. Its theoretical basis was found to be weak, and what was hoped about its practical terms, had not been fulfilled. At the same time, teachers that have been using this method and audiolingual materials, realized and complained about the lack of effectiveness of the techniques in the process and the boredom they created among students.

But not all are criticisms about the audiolingual method. It is necessary to stress the major contributions of audiolingualism to language teaching. First it was among the first theories to emphasize the development of the teaching process based upon declared linguistic and psychological principles. Second, it attempted to let large groups of ordinary learners to get into the second or foreign language learning process. Third, it was mainly concerned with syntactical progression, while other methods have tended to be more emphatic with vocabulary and morphology. Fourth it was characterized by the use of simple techniques, without translation and intensive practice of specific features. Last it developed the separation of the language skills into a pedagogical device. This method introduced specifically designed techniques and oral practice.

(H.H. Stern, 1983: 462-466 / Allen and Vallete, 1977: 308-315)

1.5 THE AUDIOVISUAL METHOD

1.5.1 PRINCIPAL FEATURE

There is a scenario that is presented visually and provides the principal means by which the learner is involved in meaningful utterances and contexts.

1.5.2. SOURCES AND HISTORY

This method was developed in the fifties at the Centre de Recherche et d'Édudé pour la Diffusion du Français - CREDIF. It was applied by a small team of practitioners and linguists who applied the principles of the audiovisual method to a small number of programs prepared and published by the CREDIF team. These programs included courses for adult beginners, for young children and some other courses. Some of these programs were adapted to English and produced in America.

The CREDIF methods as well as the programs became widely known through teachers' courses, in which a strict training in the principles of the audiovisual method and its applications was given. After some years of its appearance, a more flexible view of teaching techniques and sequences has been advocated by the CREDIF team.

1.5.3 OBJECTIVES

The audiovisual method tends towards the application of the foreign language in familiar and in everyday

speech, at the same time it tries to involve the capacity to talk more fluently on general topics and to read non-specialized fiction and the newspaper. But, on the other hand it tends to involve the use of more specialized discourse of professional and other interests.

1.5.4 TECHNIQUES

This method consists of a carefully planned and rigid order of events. A lesson begins with the film strips and tape presentation, which involve a stylized dialogue and narrative commentary. Something important to notice is that the filmstrip and the tape, it means the visual image and spoken utterance, complement each other and constitute jointly a semantic unit. Then comes the explanation given by the teacher through pointing, demonstration selective listening, question and answer. Usually the dialogues are repeated several times and memorized by the students with the help of frequent replays of the tape-recordings and the filmstrip, or by language laboratory practice. As the next stage of the teaching sequence in this method comes the development phase, here students are gradually emancipated from the tape and filmstrip presentations, for example, the filmstrip is now shown without the tape recording and the students are asked to recall the commentary or make up their own one, or maybe the subject matter of the scenario could be modified and applied to the student himself, his family or friends, by means of questions and answers or role playing.

Besides, each lesson contains its part of grammatical drill which makes the students to practice a pattern or a group

of patterns that have occurred previously in the tape or in the filmstrip presentation. Grammatical and phonological features are practiced but no importance is attributed to linguistic explanations. Reading and writing are not emphasized as in the audiolingual method, but they are given the importance that is necessary according to the CREDIF team.

1.5.5 THEORETICAL ASSUMPTIONS

The audiovisual method seeks a basis in linguistics. It derives its grammatical and lexical content from the descriptive linguistic studies and it stresses the social nature and situational embeddedness of language. Here, the visual presentation is more than an added strategy, it is an attempt to stimulate the social context in which the language is used.

The learner of a second or foreign language through the audiovisual method is encouraged to assimilate the utterances he hears on the tape in the context he sees on the screen, in other words, not to analyze. But, intonation of rhythmic patterns and semantic units should not be neglected. The stimuli in the exercises is illustrated, and the attempt is made to practice all features to be learned in a meaningful context. The pattern practice without attention to meaning and outside a context is avoided.

1.5.6 ASSESSMENT

This approach developed by the CREDIF, represents a distinctive modern attempt to face the problems of

language learning. It has attempted to place language learning into a simplified social context, and to teach language from the outset as meaningful spoken communication. It has provided an alternative in language pedagogy and a benefit of language teaching because of the replacement of the printed text by a scenario presented visually by a filmstrip and aurally by corresponding recording. Like the audiolingual method, it bases itself on declared linguistic and psychological principles.

The audiovisual method has commonly been criticized by two main aspects. It has difficulties in conveying meaning; the visual filmstrip image is not a guarantee that the meaning of an utterance is not misinterpreted by the learner. This interpretation presents practical difficulties. The other criticism that can be made is that the rigid teaching sequence imposed by this method are based on an entirely unproved assumption about learning sequences.

(H.H. Stern, 1983:466-468 / Allen and Vallete, 1977: 315-321)

1.6 COGNITIVE CODE LEARNING

1.6.1 PRINCIPAL FEATURES

This method has been interpreted by some as a modified up-to-date grammar translation theory, and by others as a modified up-to-date direct method approach. In general, its emphasis lays on the conscious acquisition of language as a meaningful system and it seeks a basis in cognitive psychology and in transformational grammar.

1.6.2 SOURCES AND HISTORY

The cognitive theory was developed as an alternative to the audiolingual method. It appeared from the mid sixties in response to the criticisms against the audiolingual method. It was an attempt to bring to language pedagogy the new insights of psychology, psycholinguistics and modern developments in linguistics.

Some language programs have been published with their basis on cognitive theory. But the practice techniques that have been introduced through this method, are not really different from those introduced by other methods. Its main effect seems to have been that it has loosened the tight hold that the audiolingual method had exercised on materials and practice and that it removed the stigma that had been placed on grammar translation and direct method practices.

1.6.3 OBJECTIVES

Cognitive theory is less concerned with the primacy of the audiolingual skills. Instead it emphasizes the control of the language in all its manifestations as a coherent and meaningful system, which the learner can put to use in real life situations. It gives more importance to the learners' understanding of the structure of the foreign language than to the facility in using that structure; the facility will develop automatically with the use of the language in meaningful situations.

1.6.4 TECHNIQUES

In the cognitive theory, the conscious teaching of grammar is not rejected. It does not avoid the presentation of reading and writing in association with listening and speaking. It also seeks the intellectual understanding of the language as a system instead of expecting automatic command of the language and habit-formation from intensive drill. The general view of learning in terms of conditioning, shaping, reinforcement, habit formation and overlearning, has been replaced by an emphasis on rule learning, meaningful practice and creativity.

1.6.5 THEORETICAL ASSUMPTIONS

This theory reflects the theoretical reorientation in linguistics and psycholinguistics. Rejecting behaviourism and structural linguistics, it seeks in transformational grammar and cognitive psychology a basis for second or foreign language teaching. The user of a given language gives evidence of knowing the rules by applying them automatically. The fact that the rules are applied automatically, however does not mean that they must be learned automatically. A new language is best learned in conjunction with demonstration and practice of the action and of what the student has learned.

1.6.6 ASSESSMENT

Cognitive theory is principally a critique of audiolingualism. It has attacked theoretical and practical

weaknesses of the audiolingual method and it has put its attention on important facets of language learning that the audiolingual method has disregarded or underemphasized. It has also rediscovered valuable features in grammar translation and in the direct method. However, by overlooking the merits of audiolingualism, cognitive theorists have sharpened the battle of the dogmas without providing convincing evidence of doing anymore than redressing the balance in certain aspects.

(H.H. Stern, 1983: 469-471 / Allen and Vallete 1987: 322-330)

CHAPTER II

INNOVATIVE METHODS

2.1 THE SILENT WAY

This method was introduced by Caleb Gattegno two decades ago. In language classes given by teachers who employ this method, the teacher speaks under 10 percent of the time. But this is not simply to provide students with more time to talk, it is done in order to give students time to reflect and assimilate what they have heard. There is a considerable discovery and individual initiative and students often learn from one another. The teacher does not answer questions and does not make oral corrections either this makes students to accept one another as contributors to their experience and to accept responsibility for their own learning.

At the beginning, as materials only a few wooden rods and phonic wall charts are used, and the native language of students is always avoided. The rod is used to present vocabulary, which in the first classes constitutes a very limited amount. Also it is used to show spatial relationship and prepositions, comparatives, tenses, and every aspect of the grammar of the target language.

A class for beginners usually goes like this: The teacher chooses one of the colored wooden rods, then says "a rod". He repeats this with rods of different colors and he will say "a

blue rod" or "a black rod" etc. He signals two students to come to the front. The teacher says to one of them "take the red rod" or something like that, when this action has been performed he says "give it to him." What the teacher says is reinforced through mime, gesture and assistance from the fellow student. Then without verbal explanation, the teacher changes places with one of the students, and the student begins to make requests. The teacher gradually speaks less and the student more. Utterances are quickly expanded to ten-, twelve- and fifteen-word sentences.

In the silent way method, it is very important the training in the rhythm of the language. Students are exposed to taped passages even before they have acquire enough language to understand the meaning of what they are listening to. In language classes, the visual dictation is also very important. With the help of a chart and a pointer, the teacher makes reference to words already known. The teacher may produce an utterance by himself and the students will be able to point the words he has uttered on the chart.

According to the level of students and when they need to learn more vocabulary, silent worksheets, drawings, pictures and transparencies are used. Books are not used during the basic skills development period, while controlled readings and anthologies are ultimately used in teaching reading and advanced skills. This method has been widely used and it has achieved impressive results. For many methodologists, it provides invaluable insights to teachers of a second or foreign language. On the other hand, it has some limitations as the "rod technique" which for many adult learners is irrelevant to

their needs.

2.1.1 SUMMARY

2.1.1.1 GATTEGNO'S PRINCIPLES

- Teaching should be subordinated to learning. Students learn to accept their responsibilities through the teacher's behaviour.
- Learning is not primarily imitation or drill, but discovery.
- In learning, the mind equips itself by its own working, by trial and error, by deliberate experimentation, by suspending judgment, and by revising conclusions.
- As the mind works, it draws on everything it has already acquired, particularly its experience of learning its native language. But since the learner cannot recreate the environment of the first-language learning, Gattegno devises an artificial method rather than trying for a natural one.
- If the teacher's activities are really to be subordinated to that of the learner and if the learner is to be truly engaged in the activity described in the third principle then the teacher must stop interfering with and sidetracking that activity.
- At all times, speech is accompanied by appropriate action, even if the action consists only of the teacher pointing to the

symbol for a single sound.

2.1.1.2 RELATED POINTS

- Utilizes and permits "short-term memory": new auditory material is available for about 20 seconds for rehearsing, practicing, etc.
- Students learn in new ways to use their minds, ways they may have utilized earlier but have since forgotten.
- The most important and perhaps the only thing a teacher can actually teach is awareness, that is, developing sensitivity to what is going on in the learning process. The student's individual awareness makes the learning task an individual and personal process.
- The students' conclusion from the above is "I have learned", rather than "I have been taught", this conclusion is considered to be a powerful factor.
- Students learn from the classroom procedures that competition is an irrelevant matter, both, "defensive learning" and "destructive competition" become unnecessary and unimportant.

2.1.1.3 PROCEDURES

- The teacher teaches sounds, using a color-coded chart containing all the sounds of the target language.

- Basic functional vocabulary is taught first, the vocabulary is limited to the words on the word charts.
- Colored rods are used to demonstrate basic concepts and relations.
- Spelling is taught normally, using the sound color relationships, by means of colored word charts.
- Inconsistencies in spelling are demonstrated by means of spelling charts.
- Vocabulary is expanded by using picture charts.

(Oller and Richard-Amato, 1983: 72-88 / Bratt and Newton, 1976: 143-183)

2.2 COMPREHENSION TRAINING

This approach was developed by Harris Witnitz and James Reeds, it is also called "Rapid Acquisition of a Foreign Language by Avoidance of Speaking." It is based on what the authors call "a functional property of the human brain."

In this method, there is a clear difference between speaking and writing until the language is early established through listening. If a student makes any error in speaking, he does not give importance to this, because they are ignored. Students are asked to look at a quadrant of pictures while they are listening to sentences, then they select the pictures which are referred on the tape. Rules and grammatical

structures are not explicitly taught. Sentences listened to become more and more complex while they include new patterns and vocabulary. Reading requires just a minimal explicit instruction, and students do not need to speak in the target language until they have mastered the basic structures and vocabulary of the target language.

The following is a typical "problem-solving" exercise in which pronouns are introduced: students are shown four pictures: a man, a boy, a dog and a girl, all with some food. They are then given a verbal stimulus such as "she" or "her food" or "hers", and are asked to select the correct picture that corresponds to the words. After seeing several groups of pictures, where the correct choice may be a female, a male or a neuter, the student through associations, eliminations or some other problem solving process will have a clear concept of the meaning and will be able to produce the words appropriate at some future point in the program.

A rapid language acquisition is one of the advantages of this method. But among its limitations there is the absence of a complete four-skill offering, lack of variety in presentation and little or no provision for flexibility in meeting the student's interest and interaction needed at intermediate and advanced levels.

2.2.1 SUMMARY

- Language should be understood before it is produced (i.e. spoken). Speech is not discouraged, it is just not used as a medium for language instruction. Speech will develop if it is

believed without any direct training. Concentration on comprehension is efficient because it is a single task, attention is not divided or distracted by the need to produce speech. Comprehension is easier to develop than production, there is also less stress because comprehension is both, silent and private.

- Grammatical knowledge is tacit knowledge: internalized rules are not usually or necessarily available to the speaker-hearer.

- Language acquisition is non-linear, and language elements are often learned out of sequence rather than in a rigid order.

- There is a good reason to believe that language acquisition is an implicit process underlying rules and internalized by contact with sentence samples.

- Thus, language materials should be structured so that there is a repetition of vocabulary, structures and phrases with sufficient variations and changes of context to show the full functioning of the items.

- Regular short comprehension tests offer each half-hour of instruction showing the students the success of his/her learning. The student is encouraged to repeat the preceding tape if the score on the test is insufficient.

(Croft, 1980:89-103 / Bratt and Newton: 1976, 185-199)

2.3 TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE

This method introduced by James Asher, has frequently been incorporated as an instructional technique. Asher stresses listening comprehension delaying speech, because he believes that in a time-limited language course the instructor should concentrate on the skill that has the most positive transference to the other language skills. His research has also demonstrated that when students are taught speaking and listening together, listening comprehension is greatly delayed.

The use of controlled experiments has proved that rapid and permanent language acquisition commands accompanied by physical actions appropriate to the command, are employed to improve the foreign language learning process. The instructor elaborates a command and they carry it out. Initially the teacher will model the physical response and then the student will act alone upon commands.

An interesting claim for this method by those who teach adults is that older students out perform children in language retention, quite the contrary to language acquisition in other methods. In this method, the imperative form can be present in all essential structures. This form serve as the basis for the language instruction and therefore has immediate educational relevance. Something important to mention is that the acquisition of the foreign language is through communicative chunks rather than in structure based fragments.

Besides, a substantial amount of transfer has been noted from listening skills to reading and writing. For this reason,

students besides carrying out the tasks, give commands to each other and also they are able to respond to written directions. By successfully carrying out directions, learners quickly recognize the need and usefulness of this form. Advantages include its low anxiety characteristics and communicative focus. But since it has been applied essentially to beginners, many have questioned its suitability for intermediate and advanced students.

2.3.1 SUMMARY

- Language should be understood before it is produced. Opportunities for speaking are fewer than in comprehension training because the student is engaged in acting and in observing action.
- Understanding should be developed through movements of the students' body, especially when complex actions are involved.
- Observing others performing actions is practically as constructive as participating in the actions.
- Speaking should not be forced from the students as much as ten or twenty hours of acting-listening can take place before any attempt at speaking. This delay is beneficial and natural and can even accelerate student progress in a traditional program.
- At least 80% of language structure can be incorporated in command sentences, and these structures are learned along with more obvious imperative patterns.

(Croft, 1980: 33-65 / Rivers, 1968: 123-135)

2.4 COUNSELING LEARNING

This method is also known as community language learning and was introduced two decades ago by Charles Curran. However, it was virtually unknown in foreign languages learning circles until a decade ago.

Differently from any other contemporary method, counseling learning reflects a concern for the development of positive human relationships. Besides, personal enrichment of teachers and students is seen as contributing to more effective teaching and improved learning. Teachers are able to recognize each individual's needs for personal fulfillments, therefore communication in language classes should stem from joint learner efforts directed toward completing a given task. An essential strategy to be taken into consideration in a classroom is the interaction generated by cooperative efforts of learners in completing tasks. In order to facilitate this interaction, the teacher changes himself from his usual roles and persuades students to emerge from their protective attitude of noninvolvement. As a result of this change of roles, the process is hopeful accompanied by increased trust and mutual interest. It is also assisted by the individual's personal fulfillment.

The actual instruction appears simple on the surface. The students named "clients", sit in a circle. The teacher or teachers referred to as "knowers or counselor-teachers" stand outside the circle. During the initial stages of the learning process, students are simply invited to talk about any topic with one another. The teacher remaining outside the circle and

standing behind the students, translates these utterances into the foreign language and the student repeats the translations. It is common that the student's translated utterances are taped, but not his native language message. There are periods of time where students can study and assimilate what they have heard. The recorded material is played back near the end of the period. Some parts of the material may be written on the board and grammar points can be briefly clarified.

Over a period of time, learners go through five stages. In the initial or Embrionyc stage, they are very dependent on their conselor-teacher. Then at the self-assertion stage, they speak directly to the fellow class members in the foreign language, receiving assistance only when they hesitate or ask for it. In the third or birth stage, there is greater independence on the part of leaners and improved unity of purpose in the relationship among knowers and clients. In the fourth or reversal stage, students speak more freely with confidence that peers understand what is being said. Here, the counselor teacher makes corrections without being asked, knowing that students are ready enough to accept the improvements offered. Lastly, in the stage five, the independent or enrichment period, the counselor intervenes to improve what students have communicated, by adding idioms and more elegant or socially appropriate means of expressing what is said.

Counseling learning students tend to be very pleased with the control they have over their own learning. On the other hand, they tend to be impressed with the mutual assistance given in classes and the mutual trust and respect existent

among students and between students and teachers.

Advantages of counseling learning include the high motivation of learners, the impressive initiative assumed by them and their speed of acquisition. But, as limitations can be mentioned that sometimes, it fails to meet the expectations of learners, specially adults seeking quick and practical training. Besides, it requires a teacher who is sensitive enough to provide the counseling situation that this approach requires. Finally, it is best suited for a linguistically homogeneous class.

2.4.1 SUMMARY

- Teaching is subordinated to learning; students specify what they want to learn by asking the counselor to translate their sentences. They specify pace as well.
- Learning session is supportive: no teacher judgment of student values full acceptance by counselor of learner decisions and attempts. Security increases.
- Counselor provides confirmation of learner hypothesis and learners' linguistic wishes (i.e. provides grammatical explanation they ask for).
- Group learns to communicate and interact, linguistically and personally. Pressures are minimized through discussion, and through interpretation by counselor. Students learn to take linguistic and personal chances, ego defense diminishes.

- Reactivated cognitive processes: hypothesis and experiment. Accepted and approved by counselor.
- Developing awareness about learning process by individual and group.
- No pressure/stress on student to participate, especially when tense, personal and group responsibility develops.
- Satisfaction in learning and in controlling the process. Important motivation.
- Defensive learning and competition are diminished. Group support is actively developed.

(Oller and Richard Amato,1983: 146-178 / Bratt and Newton, 1976:233-248)

2.5 SUGGESTOPEDIA

It was developed in Bulgaria by the psychiatrist Georgi Lozanov. It is also called **Suggestology** and it has been used in many countries as Canada and the Soviet Union. This method was mainly developed to take advantage of our ability to learn languages by avoiding the fears and inhibitions that supposedly impede language learning. An important aspect is generating great confidence in the program and the competence of the instructor. It is also very important to get a relaxed and nonthreatening atmosphere. The experience becomes pleasurable not only by a sense of progress in learning the new language but even through physical comfort

and sthetic satisfactory.

Lozanov denies this method utilizes hypnosis. But he claims that "hypermnnesia" accelerates learning and it greatly enhances creativity. This occurs in part by making aside negative attitudes toward learning.

In order to start, classical suggestology avoids the "threatening" classroom and changes it into a living room atmosphere with carpeted floor and easy chairs, this is intended to get a more natural flow of conversation as if the students were at home. Music and other art forms are introduced for relaxation, in this way language acquisition will be easier. Every few days, the teacher introduces some lines as a manner of dialogues. The emphasis is given on communication, so homeworks are minimal. Students are given a new name the first day of classes and they begin living out their new identity by being immersed in the foreign language they are learning.

Dialogues are presented with simple explanations of language features, then comes the explicative reading in which the teacher covers everything that might cause difficulty for students as new vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar. Explanations are given in a simple and informal way, students may ask questions and talk to the teacher. Then comes the intonational reading, here the teacher presents the dialogue with three special intonations: one line in normal voice, the next hushed and the following in a strong voice. Then students are invited to put away their dialogue transcripts, relax and listen to an expressive reading of the dialogue accompanied by

beautiful music. Next interaction activities utilize lexical and thematic material from the dialogues elaborating materials through songs, games, readings and translations. Homeworks consist merely of skimming over the previous dialogues.

The results of using this method have shown positive effect, great fluency and communicative ability in a short period of time. Limitations include the need for linguistically homogeneous students and bilingual teachers of the right temperament. Frequently some students present deficiencies in grammar and phonology.

2.5.1 SUMMARY

- The teacher is an authority-figure who is positive, reassuring and trust-worthy. The learner is encouraged to be trusting and accepting, like a child.
- The breaking down of antisuggestive barriers, -prejudices about illogical perceived as negative, and unfamiliar, unusual- is vitally important because receptive learning depends on that.
- The student is encouraged to be active, creative and self-expressive.
- Students are encouraged to believe that their mental capacity is far greater than they have been taught to believe.
- Immersion in and use of the target language develops motivation; this is done with lengthy segments of language in

dialogues.

- Physical and mental and emotional comfort are necessary for successful learning to take place.
- Cognitive processes take a new direction: holistic presentation of language is emphasized, rather than analytic and the utilization of both, hemisphere of the brain is important for efficiency in learning.
- Practice with structures is subordinated to practice with chunks of language-expressive, interactive language. Activity and creativity follow a natural approach, rather than an intellectual analytical one.
- Stress is minimized through relaxation and physical exercises, mind-calming exercises, emphasis on pleasant learning experiences, as well as through confidence in authority, the new identity given the student, the accompanying music, and the comfortable surrounding.
- Satisfaction comes from success or approximate success, increasing motivation.
- Defensive learning and competition are diminished by the security of the positive attitude and positive environment generally, by the role-playing and the anti-classroom setting.

(Croft, 1980:218-241 / Lado Robert, 1964: 54-71).

2.6 CONTRASTIVE FACTORS WITH TRADITIONAL METHODS

As factors differentiating the innovative methods from the traditional ones, we can mention the following:

- a) Subordination of teaching to learning; shared responsibility between students and teacher.
- b) Whole person learning (cognitive + affective + societal).
- c) Group involvement in the learning process, and group support.
- d) Recognition of the individuality and the need of the student.
- e) Creativity versus mechanical learning.
- f) Recognition of the importance of immediate communication.

Also we can mention some characteristics which are not necessarily applicable to every method. They are:

- a) Use of natural, authentic language materials and appropriate registers.
- b) Emphasis on comprehension before production.
- c) Learning through activity.

- d) Teaching joining to constant "testing". (i.e. evaluation through feedback).
- e) Inductive, problem-solving approach.
- f) Trial and error hypothesis testing.
- g) Concern for cognitive variables and different learning styles.
- h) Accomodations for differing rates of learning.
- i) Concern for affective variables. This means developing trust in the teacher, minimizing anxiety about learning and peer pressure, recognition of variety in student ability facilitating motivation.
- j) Emphasis on real communication but not necessarily conversation.

At the end of this, we think it is necessary to mention props and paraphernalia of the innovative methods:

Silent Way: Colored rods, color charts for teaching sounds and spelling, teacher silent.

Counseling learning: Circle of chair for students, tape recorder, teacher outside.

Total Physical Response: Space for activity, variety of props

and pictures.

Comprehension training: Tape recorder and programmed text of cartoon stories.

Suggestopedia: Comfortable environment, recorder music, prepared texts.

(Oller and Richard-Amato, 1983: 202-215 / Bratt and Newton, 1976: 130-151)

CHAPTER III
NEW
TRENDS IN TEACHING

3.1 THE NATURAL APPROACH

This approach has been suggested as an alternative to get a more efficient foreign language acquisition. Tracy D. Terrel, the creator of this method, used the adjective **natural** since the supports for observations and studies he made on language acquisition, were made in natural and not in academic contexts.

3.1.1 COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Terrel attempts to prove that it is possible for students in a classroom situation to learn to communicate in a foreign language. However, there are some linguists who suggest that the goal of communication may best be deferred to more advanced levels of instruction and to special purpose courses. In addition, the final products of most of our language classes, unfortunately support this suggestion.

The majority of foreign language students in one and in two years language courses do not attain even a minimal level of communicative competence. In most first year courses, efforts are directed toward exercises and drills to teach grammar but not to get effective communication competence.

Terrell suggests that the amount of grammar taught in the first years of language classes, is not absolutely essential for normal communication with native speakers. Besides, it is probably that first year language students will not control in their speech the great amount of grammar they are taught.

According to Terrell, communicative competence is a term used to mean that a student can understand the essential points of what a native speaker says to him in a real communicative situation and can respond in such a way that the native speaker interprets him with little or no effort. On the other hand, he points that the levels of competence needed for minimal communication acceptable to native speakers is much lower than that supposed by most teachers. If the primary goal is communicative competence, for the purposes of listening comprehension, morphology is by necessity ignored by the language learners at beginning levels.

Most of the problems in interpretation stem from the fact that the sentence uttered in the classroom by the teacher or student have no communicative context since they are created by the practice of some morphological or syntactical unit being studied. Then, the preoccupation with grammatical correctness in early stages of the foreign language teaching, is essentially a felt need of language teachers and is not an expectation of either language learners or most native speakers.

In the traditional classroom, the students expand their grammar one rule at a time, learning each as perfectly as possible and progressing from a simple to a more complex out

put. The output at any point is restricted but is as grammatical as possible. In the natural approach, the output is as varied as possible and expresses quite complex ideas at all times. It is the grammaticality of the utterances which increases with time and experience. If communicative competence is the immediate goal, a large lexicon with very general syntax rules has to be established as quickly as possible. Vocabulary acquisition is relatively simple, this gives the students the ability to comprehend utterances and at least some ability to respond in real communicative situations.

3.1.2 LEARNING AND ACQUISITION

Language knowledge stems from two sources: what is learned and what is acquired. **Learning** is the conscious process of studying and intellectually understanding the grammar of the foreign language. **Acquisition**, on the other hand, refers to the unconscious absorption of general principles of grammar through real experiences of communication using the foreign language. If we consider the diverse situations in which most adults communicate in the foreign language, it is probably true that most second languages are not learned in academic situations, but acquired naturally. In many cases the adult speaker has moved to another language area and must learn a new language for his daily communication. The main point is that people of all ages and backgrounds acquire second languages very often without the help of formal educational courses. Then, one important factor is that language learning takes place when there is a real need and motivation for it. In fact, what may be necessary for the adult to acquire real native proficiency in a second language is a persevering

motivation and the desire to identify with another cultural group.

In summary, there are three important factors in learning and acquisition: 1) immediate communicative competence should be the goal for the beginning language instruction; 2) students should be given the opportunity to acquire language rather than be forced to learn it; and, 3) affective factors are primary forces operating in language acquisition.

3.1.3 GUIDELINES FOR A NATURAL APPROACH TO FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

3.1.3.1 DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNING AND ACQUISITION ACTIVITIES

Among the teacher's responsibility in his class, there is that knowing how much time to dedicate to the various sorts of activities involved in gaining communicative competence. In order to clarify this point, these activities can be classified as: explanation, practice and application activities. The first two activities are more directed to learning, which application may involve both, learning and acquisition. Methods differ with regard to the amount of time spent in each activity. There are differences of opinion on which language, the native or the foreign language to use for the explanation and what sorts of practice are useful.

Since the teacher takes the responsibility for explanation, practice and application, most of time classroom

is necessarily spent on explanation and practice, and very little on communicative situations, in which the student may use what he has learned. Then, the situation in most beginning classrooms is even worse than it seems.

It is important that the entire class period be devoted to communicative activities. Explanation and practice are essential. Classes could be developed outside but they must be carefully planned and highly structured. Explanations must be clear enough to be understood by most of the students. Exercises must be self-correcting, or at least, a liberal use made of keys for corrections.

3.1.3.2 ERROR CORRECTION

There is no evidence which shows that the correction of speech errors is necessary or even helpful in language acquisition. Most linguists agree that the correction of speech errors is negative in terms of motivation. In normal foreign language acquisition, the speech of a learner is almost never corrected. If the student's speech at the beginning stages is corrected, he will soon learn that he will be able to respond adequately only in very severely restricted contexts. Consequently, most students avoid trying to communicate anything which goes beyond simple direct answers.

Terrel suggests that error corrections should be done only in written assignments and never during oral communication. In this way, the student is encouraged to say new and interesting things with the knowledge that he will never be corrected in front of his peers.

3.1.3.3 RESPONSE IN BOTH, NATIVE AND SECOND LANGUAGE

In the natural foreign language acquisition, the student usually begins his language acquisition spending a large number of hours simply listening to the language, avoiding a large number of hours simply listening to the language, avoiding direct participation in a conversation. Slowly, he will become accustomed to intonation, pronunciation and so forth. He has time to acquire a basic vocabulary. His initial responses are normally very short, and in general the learner tries to gain experience with comprehension until he feels more confident in understanding the questions or comments addressed to him.

In summary, Terrell proposes three general guidelines which could facilitate foreign language acquisition for communicative competence: 1) all classroom activities should be devoted to communicate with focus on content; 2) No speech errors should be corrected; and, 3) students should feel free to respond in their native language, in the foreign language they are learning or in any mixture of the two.

3.1.4 COMPREHENSION

Listening comprehension of a foreign language is a matter of learning to comprehend what is being heard without knowing all of the structures or all of the lexical items of the sentence. The learning of vocabulary is the key to comprehension and speech production, with a large enough vocabulary the student can comprehend and speak a great

deal of the foreign language even if his knowledge of structure is for all practical purposes nonexistent.

The student's first task is to learn a large number of common words so that he can understand what the teacher is saying to him. The main point is that the student can memorize words and use them in a normal conversation. The minimum amount of words to be learned per week is 100 or 125, so in four weeks, it may be possible for the student to recognize around 500 words, which is certainly enough to understand many conversations.

3.1.5 READING AND WRITING

There is of course no **natural** approach to the teaching of reading and writing a second language. However, although the goal of the natural method is oral communication, students have to be taught to read and write the language they are learning. Through reading and writing the student can expand the topics of conversations, it facilitates vocabulary acquisition and reinforces the learning and acquisition process.

(Oller and Richard Amato, 1983: 72-78 / Brooks, 1984: 143-183)

3.2 THE INTEGRATION OF A SYLLABUS

3.2.1 DEFINITION

The syllabus has been variously defined. Peter Stevens says that "a syllabus is partly an administrative instrument, partly a day-to-day guide to the teacher, partly an statement of what is to be taught and how and sometimes partly an statement of approach." In this work, a syllabus will be distinguished from a method by assuming that, while a method gives primary attention to how a language is learned, it means the theoretical assumptions about how the mind processes and sorts linguistic data and their practical ramification.

The selection of a syllabus involves some factors that need to be considered, among them should be mentioned the extent to which English is known in the country and where it is used, the forms of the language that are used and the attitude of the community toward the acquisition and use of English. A syllabus reflects a particular view of the structure of the subject by delineating what should be taught and in what sequence, a syllabus provides a vehicle for achieving the goals of a curriculum.

3.2.2 TYPES OF SYLLABUSES

In general, the literature distinguishes three major types of syllabuses: structural, situational and notional. Before any suggestions can be made in order to integrate the various syllabuses, it is necessary to examine each in terms of its focus and its basis for selecting and

ordering materials.

3.2.2.1 STRUCTURAL SYLLABUSES

The primary focus of structural syllabuses is the grammatical structure of the language. In view of this focus, the question of what to include in the syllabus is relatively easy, the full range of grammatical structure in English. But, the question of how to sequence this content is more problematic. It requires part of intuition and tradition. Besides, the teacher should consider four criteria typically employed in designing a syllabus: simplicity, regularity, frequency and contrastive difficulty. The standard of simplicity assumes that simple structures should be taught first. The second standard involves teaching those structures that have greatest generalizability and productivity first. The standard of frequency involves teaching structures that are commonly used first. And finally, contrastive difficulty entails emphasizing those structures that cause problems due to the native language influence. These criteria seem to be very well focused, but there is a major problem with employing them, it is that they may at times be in conflict with another. That is, a structure with high frequency may not have structural simplicity. Also, the frequency of an item may vary dramatically from one register to another. Undoubtedly, the major disadvantage of a structural syllabus is that while it introduces the learner to many important linguistic structures of the language, it does not deal with how these items are used by native speakers. Further it seems that the exigencies of a structural syllabus are often at variance with the practical needs of the adult student.

3.2.2.2 SITUATIONAL SYLLABUSES

These type of syllabuses focus on language as social medium. Their basic assumption is that language structures must be related to the social setting, since structures are dead, without the situation which engenders them. Then, a situational syllabus should examine the manner in which language use is affected by things as social roles of the participants, their psychological status, the type of conversation and the setting.

In most situational syllabuses the selection of content is based on a prediction of what situations the students will have to deal with. However, when a class is composed of students with diverse backgrounds, interests and occupations, it is difficult to include situations that will be relevant to all of them.

In general, situational syllabuses do not demonstrate clearly defined criteria for the sequencing of material. But exists an attempt to specify these criteria. Teaching situations can be devided into three types: the first is **limbo** situations in which the functions of the discourse and its grammatical patterns predominate and the setting is relatively unimportant (introductions, asking for directions). The second type, **concrete** situations are enacted against a specific setting, thus leading to particular subject matter (ordering meal at a restaurant). The last type **mythical** situations depend on a story line (Mr. X's home is burglarized).

The main advantage of a situational syllabus is that

content can be selected according to the needs and interest of the learner. But, there is a major problem in designing situational syllabuses, it is the difficulty to select situations that will interest to all learners.

3.2.2.3 NOTIONAL SYLLABUSES

The essence of a notional syllabus is its attention to the **semantic content** of language. The aim of these syllabuses is to ensure that the students know how to express different types of meanings as disagreements, compliments, etc. Its selection is also related to the needs of the learners. The first step in designing the syllabus is to predict what types of meaning the learners will need to communicate. The selection of content in a notional syllabus is further complicated by the fact that a variety of linguistic forms can be used to express the same meaning.

The syllabus designer needs to predict in which contexts the students will be using the language, if spoken or written, formal or informal. Clearly the designing of notional syllabuses depends on the resolution of at least two questions: first, which functions should be included; and the second, how these functions should be sequenced. While the development of grammatical competence is related to a number of clearly defined elements, such as a verb tenses, subject-verb agreement, etc., it is much less certain at the present moment what constitutes the core functions of communicative competence. Even if the order in which materials should be sequenced within the syllabus is already determined, the problem still remains because the designer has to determine which functions are more

central to the language use, if requests, offerings or invitations.

3.2.3 AN INTEGRATED SYLLABUS

Each type of syllabus reflects an important dimension of communication competence: grammatical social and rhetorical. The best way for designing a syllabus is to consider forms in which the strengths of all three can be integrated. The major problem with starting a syllabus design with grammatical structures is that it avoids the usual focus on real communication where attention is generally directed to making a request rather than forming a yes/no question.

Thus, the choice of taking either a situational or notional perspective as a starting point for an integrated syllabus remain. Both have the advantage of focusing on language use, but neither one has clear criteria for the selection and sequencing of content. However there are several advantages to initially organizing a syllabus, on a notional rather than situational basis. One advantage is its wider applicability. It is possible to describe a ball game or predict the future economic trends in a country. A second advantage has to do with the relationship between forms and meaning. A notional syllabus is best structured to demonstrate this close relationship between a speaker's intention and the choice of grammatical form.

Of course, the social context is also important in determining how will the learner use the language. Then it is important to integrate in a syllabus notional and situational

approaches.

One way to guard against a fragmental presentation of functions is to begin the design of a syllabus by specifying the units of discourse that are important to the learner, as telephone conversations, interviews, etc. When the syllabus designer is selecting a unit of discourse, he can take advantage of the fact that notional categories typically do not occur in isolation, but rather they appear as part of a patterned use of language. Once a unit of discourse is chosen, the problem of selection and sequencing can be resolved by analyzing the functional patterns of the discourse that is being studied. Furthermore the ordering of these functions within the syllabus can be matched to the pattern that typically occurs in that determined discourse. For example, within telephone talks, there are many typical patterns to be used as: greetings, excusing a wrong number, or taking messages, etc. This strategy can be applied to written discourse. Academic papers, for example, generally exemplify a series of core functions, such as summarizing, analyzing and expressing opinions with some patterns of these functions.

In short, the designing of a syllabus could proceed as follows: (1) a selection of the discourse (interviews, telephone talks, etc); (2) an analysis of this discourse to discover its core functions and their sequence; and (3) a clarification of the social context. A final step is the integration of grammatical concerns. On a beginning level, traditional grammatical structures could still form the basis for designing a syllabus, but with more attention to their functional applications. On the intermediate level, larger

pieces of discover could guide the designing of a syllabus.

The designing of a syllabus is one of the most tasks that EFL teachers have to face. If a teacher wants to promote fluency in the language, a complete syllabus must include all of the elements of communicative competency: grammatical, social and rhetorical. Thus, the answer to the question of which approach to syllabus writing is appropriate, is clear: all of them are essential. What is needed is more reflection on how to integrate them in a manner that meets the needs of the students and ensures full communicative competency.

(Croft, 1980: 72-83 / Bratt and Newton, 1976: 135-151)

3.3 THE INPUT HYPOTHESIS AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

The Input hypothesis is the central part of a more complete theory of second language acquisition which is at the time formed by five hypotheses.

The five hypotheses are:

1. **The acquisition-learning hypothesis:** According to this hypothesis, there are two independent ways of developing ability in second language. The first one is **acquisition** which is a subconscious process identical in all important ways to the process children utilize in acquiring their first language. The second one is **learning** which is a conscious process that results in knowing about language.

2. The natural order hypothesis: This hypothesis was first proposed for second language acquisition by Pits Corder. Its main principle is that a person acquires the rules of language in a predictable order, some rules tend to appear early and other later. The order does not seem to be determined solely by formal simplicity and there is evidence that it is independent of the order in which rules are taught in language classes.

3. The monitor hypothesis: Through this hypothesis it is possible to establish how acquisition and learning are used in production. The ability to produce understandable utterances in another language comes from an acquired competence. Learning or conscious knowledge serves as an editor or **monitor**. We appeal to learning in order to make corrections, to change the out put of the acquired system before we speak or write (or sometimes after we speak or write as in self correction). Two conditions need to be met in order to use the monitor: the performer must be conscious about correctness, and he or she must know the rule. These two conditions are difficult to meet.

4. The input hypothesis: It claims that humans acquire language in one way, by understanding messages or by receiving comprehensible input. Humans progress along the natural order by understanding input that contains structures at the next stage, structures that are a bit beyond the current level of competence of learners.

According to Stephen Krashen, learners of a second language process through natural developmental sequences. One

role of the Input Hypothesis is to determine some mechanisms to account for how they go from one point to another in those natural developmental sequences. There are two corollaries of the input hypothesis:

- Speaking is a result of acquisition and not its cause. Speech cannot be taught directly but emerges on its own as a result of building competence via comprehensible input.
- If input is understood, and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided. The language teacher needs not attempt deliberately to teach the next structure along the natural order -it will be provided in just the right quantities and automatically reviewed if the student receives a sufficient amount of comprehensible input.

5. The affective filter hypothesis: The affective filter is a mental block that prevents acquirers from fully utilizing comprehensible input they receive for language acquisition. When it is up, the acquirer may understand what he hears and read, but the input will not reach the Language Acquisition Device (LAD). This occurs when the learner is unmotivated, lacking in self-confidence, or when he/she considers the language class to be a place where his/her weaknesses will be revealed. The filter is down when the acquirer is not concerned with the possibility of failure in language acquisition and when he considers himself to be a potential member of the group speaking the target language.

Comprehensible input is the essential ingredient for second language acquisition. All other factors thought to

encourage or cause second language acquisition work only when they contribute to comprehensible input and a low affective filter.

3.3.1 EVIDENCE SUPPORTING THE INPUT HYPOTHESIS

3.3.1.1 CARETAKER SPEECH

Stephen Krashen argued that caretaker speech, the special language directed at children acquiring their first language, is helpful for language acquisition. It is intended for communication and not to be comprehensible. Caretaker speech complexity is not finely-tuned to the level of the child. As the child develops linguistically, caretaker speech tends to get more complex. The finding that caretaker speech is not finely-tuned but that is comprehensible and consistent with the second corollary of the Input Hypothesis. The child's next rule need not be covered in every utterance or even in every interchange. Given enough comprehensible input, the necessary grammar is covered in sufficient quantity. It is in fact valuable data in that it focuses attention on what is essential for language acquisition, that is, not simplified input but comprehensible input.

It is important to notice that there are other sources of input besides the mother. Other members of the family and other children can also supply comprehensible input. Since older children in mainstream cultures are known to be capable of modifying their speech to young children, they may be an important source of comprehensible input in other cultures as

well.

Teacher's talk, the language of classroom management in second language classes, and **foreigner talk**, the adjustments made by native speakers when talking to non-native speakers, also provide comprehensible input, or at least attempt to provide the non-native speaker with comprehensible input. There may be dangers however, when using a wrong provider for comprehensible input, errors in the input may be acquired by listeners.

3.3.1.2 THE SILENT PERIOD

The Input Hypothesis also accounts for the silent period, a phenomenon that is very noticeable in child second language acquisition. Very typically children in a new country, faced with a new language, are silent for a long period of time. The second language production may not emerge for several months. During this silent period, the child is building up competence by listening, via comprehensible input. His first words in the second language are not the beginning of his second language acquisition, but they are the result of the comprehensible input he has received over the previous months.

Adults are not usually allowed a silent period in language classes, a condition that makes many language students very anxious about foreign languages study. The Input Hypothesis provides a clear explanation for this silent period. While children are passing through this period, they are building up a great deal of competence via listening and reading.

3.3.1.3 AGE DIFFERENCES

Stephen Krashen supports that the data on age differences in second language acquisition could easily be interpreted in terms of the Input Hypothesis and the affective filter hypothesis. This data indicates that while children are generally superior in second language attainment in the long run, adults, at least initially, acquire at a faster rate. The explanation for this data is as follows: older acquirers progress more quickly in early stages because they obtain more comprehensible input, while younger acquirers do better in the long run because of their lower affective filters.

Older acquirers obtain more comprehensible input in several ways. Their greater experience and knowledge of the world helps make the input they hear and read more comprehensible. Besides, older acquirers can participate in conversations earlier than younger acquirers by using the strategy of falling back on first language syntactic rules, supplemented by second language vocabulary and repaired by the monitor. This strategy allows early productions, early participation in conversations and more input.

Younger acquirers receive what looks like simpler input, input with less complex grammar, more frequent vocabulary, etc. Older acquirers, however, are better to regulate the input: they work harder in encouraging more language from conversational partner, indicate more when they have not understood, and are better at keeping conversations going.

According to this explanation, the adult is still an acquirer; the adult utilizes comprehensible input in the same way children do. It also allows the possibility that perfect postpuberty second language acquirers may exist, it predicts that such individuals will have had plenty of exposure to comprehensible input, and will have very low affective filters.

3.3.1.4 THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTION

Some studies indicate that formal instruction helps second language acquisition, while others seem to indicate that informal environments are superior or just as good. But it seems more acceptable that language classes help when they are the primary source of comprehensible input. This is specially true for beginners, who often find real world input too complex to understand.

Language classes are less helpful when the students are already advanced enough to understand some input from the outside world and when the input is available to them.

(Bowen, Madsen and Hilferty, 1985: 103-126 / Croft 1980: 326-350)

3.4. FOREIGN LANGUAGE TESTING

The development of foreign language testing has been notably superior to that of the 1920's or 30's. At those times objective testing methods had been recently introduced in the foreign language field, and most of the tests that became available were of the pencil-and-paper variety and tested only

skills with the written language.

The development of tests in English as a Foreign language was spearheaded by the efforts of such people as Charles C. Fires and David Harris in the 1950's, but the formats and procedures of such tests did not become perfected until the 1960's. Even now the TOEFL test is under continual research scrutiny. There has been an enormous increase in the sophistication with which foreign language tests are constructed and used. Tests became more prepared and carefully designed, that is with more attention to the measurement properties of the test: its reliability, validity norming, standardization, and so on. Some aspects of language proficiency cannot be measured by solely objective techniques. This is generally true for the more active and productive aspects of competence: speaking, writing, pronunciation and fluency.

Since the introduction of the purely paper-and-pencil tests, nowadays there is a full range of tests purporting to measure not only competence and skill in written language but also competence and skill in spoken language, at various levels of ability and in various languages. Researchers are continually exploring the profits of new kinds of tests formats, such as the "cloze procedure."

These developments have been stimulated by a number of factors:

- The increased number of students of foreign languages makes necessary to increase the efficiency of testing

procedures.

-- The foreign language profession has been faced with the need to develop more accurate and comprehensive measures because such measurements are really important in educational and real life situations, for the selection, placement and guidance of students, and for the evaluation of competence of those who use or are likely to use foreign language skills in their work.

-- The marked changes in language teaching with an emphasis towards the real-life language skills, have been a challenge to test makers to provide measurements of such skills, not only the traditional four skills, but also tests of cultural knowledge, communicative competence and the like.

-- Many scientific developments on foreign language testing have been made, these are referred to theory and practice of educational and psychological measurement, scientific linguistics, psychology of language, and to educational research.

-- Funds and resources for the development of tests and measurements have become more plentiful and available than before.

-- The preparation of a number of excellent treatises on the techniques of the test construction, has permitted specialists to be more trained in this field.

Despite the relatively advanced development of foreign

language testing, there are certain persistent problems that will probably never be resolved. These problems in the foreign language testing may be considered under four headings:

1) The problem of validity: it means to be sure that the measurements and assessments the teacher obtains, reflect what he/she wants them to reflect.

2) The problem of scope: it means to be sure that the teacher measures or assesses all the varied components of foreign language competence and skill.

3) The problem of efficiency: it means to obtain the best assessments that can be obtained within the limits of time and resources available for the construction and administration of the assessment.

3.4.1 VALIDITY AND REALISM

Under this heading, problems of reliability or accuracy of measurement are included, but the problem of reliability is never as severe as that of validity. There are procedures for increasing the reliability of measurements but validity, or relevance, or realism is in the last analysis a judgmental problem.

Take what might appear to be a simple case evaluating the validity of a "reading comprehension" test in English as a

foreign language, a test that consists of some paragraphs that the examinee is to read, with the respective multiple choice questions based on these paragraphs. The test pretends to measure the student's ability to read and understand English with a sufficiently deep comprehension to let him use the printed materials he might encounter in his studies.

The scores in a representative sample of examinees are distributed like normal distribution. But, does this test measure "reading comprehension"? Does it reflect the student's ability to read and understand English?.

If the test is **valid**, high scores will have the desired ability, and low scores will be found not to have this ability. There are certain procedures that might suggest an answer; the teacher can **validate** the test against performance in the university, but even if the correlation with the university performance is high, this will not demonstrate that the test measures reading-comprehension ability, it may be measuring some general intellectual factors quite apart from reading comprehension ability.

Validating a test against external criteria is not a sure guide to whether it is measuring what it is trying to measure. It is possible to find that a reading comprehension test is too much dependent upon knowledge of vocabulary, it means that students knowing more vocabulary can get high scores without really understanding the meaning of the passages. Of course, the teacher should always consider possible sources of invalidity, and attempt to eliminate them. But even after eliminating them, it is not completely possible to conclude

that the test is valid beyond doubt.

The only possibility of deciding on the validity of the test would come from an analysis of what competences, skills and discriminations are essential, necessary and sufficient for successful performance of the test, and in the same way, what lacks of competence, skill, and discrimination are necessary and sufficient for poor performance of the test.

Even with the addition of remarks about the difficulty and complexity of the textual material, the construction of reading comprehension tests is only one particular aspect of foreign language competence. Judging the validity of tests of other competences such as listening comprehension, pronunciation accuracy, compositional skill, and so forth, would require the same kind of searching examination and analysis as for the reading comprehension test. Every well-constructed foreign language proficiency test must contain enough material relevant to language competences for this purpose.

3.4.2 THE PROBLEM OF SCOPE

This problem includes the question of whether foreign language tests can provide a properly comprehensive measurement of the various skills and competences that are embodied in the concept of "full foreign language competence," and if it is possible to differentiate those skills from one another in order to provide profiles or relative knowledges in different skills.

Some recent researches on the comprehensive measurement of

language skills, have demonstrated that the more the teacher attempts to measure different language skills, and the better those measurements are, the higher the correlations among the skills. It seems to indicate that there is indeed only one basic foreign language skill, which can be summarized as simply "knowledge of the structure and lexicon of the language." But perhaps it is incorrect to draw this conclusion.

Correlations among different test skills are subject to variation depending upon the types of instruction treatments. For example, we could expect a low correlation between reading and listening comprehension tests if instruction is focused on reading skills and gives little attention to speaking and listening skills. Even with a high correlation between reading and listening tests, it is possible to look at the relative levels of proficiency on these tests; frequently the average level of proficiency on a reading test is higher than that on a listening test.

Adequate profiling of different language skills will require not only careful differentiation of those skills, but also control of the ease and difficulty of the test materials. Test of language production could be improved by giving more thought to performance components such as the ability to retrieve lexical items quickly, the ability to manipulate syntactic elements flexibly, and the ability to encode meanings effectively.

3.4.3 THE PROBLEM OF EFFICIENCY

In this case, efficiency includes factors

of cost in terms of time, money and resources. It has several related aspects: first, efficiency in the test construction activities; second, efficiency in the actual use of testing time; and third, efficiency in the scoring or marking of tests and in test results.

Efficiency in the actual use of testing time and testing facilities seems to be a persistent problem. In order to obtain more reliable, valid and comprehensive measures of foreign language achievements and proficiencies, increasing amount of testing time will be needed. Test administrators need to be carefully trained, and test locations need to be carefully selected from the stand-point of comfort, lightning, acoustic conditions and so fort.

The matter of efficiency in the scoring, grading or marking of the completed tests will remain as a persistent problem in the foreign language field as in other fields, it is because of the great importance of subjectively scored tests.,

In order to keep out the demand, teachers keep to maintain their own "item banks", and they need to be aware of whatever technologies of test constructions and administration can be applied in their situation.

3.4.4 TESTING IN THE CONTEXT OF INSTRUCTION

No matter how much the teacher may improve instruction, the kind of tests that are used to evaluate students can often have adverse effects on students learning. It is natural for students to shape their learning efforts so

as to be maximally successful on the test, if the tests measure objectives that are in some ways different from those of the instruction, students will work towards those objectives and pay less attention to achieve other objectives.

The matter of the relation between instruction and examining is one of the persistent problems of foreign language testing. If examinations can have adverse effects on instructional efforts, they can also have beneficial effects. The solution for the problem of "teaching for the tests" is to make better tests, the nature of external examinations will often shape the behaviour of the teachers themselves.

(Croft, 1980:518-536 / Lado Robert, 1964: 48-69).

3.5 LANGUAGE TESTING TODAY

For Dr. John Oller, there are two principal kinds of tests: discrete point test and integrative test. It is possible to argue that a teacher can choose between both, or can even use a combination of discrete point tests and integrative tests. However, discrete point tests of the multiple choice sort are extremely difficult to prepare, a person who is not trained in the technicalities of developing multiple choice tests, can easily make serious errors when attempts to construct adequate so called discrete point tests of the multiple choice type.

In order to understand better discrete-point tests it is important to know that they are based on the notion that only one component of grammar should be tested at a time. For

example in the area of phonology, a test item might assess the learner's ability to discriminate between minimal pairs such as pool and pull. The most difficult aspect of this kind of test is its construction. The teacher must avoid writing test items with more than one correct answer. The test writer frequently has one particular interpretation in mind which excludes all but one correct alternative, however if other interpretations are possible, the examinee can often see more than one correct alternative, if this happens, the teacher has created a bad item. Other problems include difficulty in gaining items appropriately for the student's level of skill, and avoid clues that discover the correct answer such as making it the longest alternative, using opposites among the alternatives, including alternatives that are obviously wrong, independent of the questions, etc.

On the other hand, integrative tests are based on a rationale different from that of discrete point tests. Their main objective is to assess the efficiency of the internalized grammar the students acquire when they are learning a foreign language.

Integrative tests such as dictation, cloze procedure, essay writing, oral interviews, and other tasks, which require the rapid processing of sequences of verbally coded information in the language, qualify as devices for invoking the learner's internalized grammar.

Dictation can be used as a testing device for a number of difficult purposes. For instance, it provides a useful global measure of language proficiency for placement purposes. The

procedure most commonly used in such a situation is to read the passage three times: first, straight through at a fairly conversational rate to give the examinees an overview of the passage and its contents; a second time with pauses at appropriate phrase boundaries; and, a third time again at a conversational rate to give students an opportunity to make corrections. For classroom purposes and achievement testing, many other applications of dictation can easily be imagined. Dictation can be used to test the learner's ability to handle particular structures by choosing or creating a passage that contains specific grammatical forms. It can also be used to assess familiarity with assigned reading materials.

Another kind of integrative tests is the cloze test. It is a passage with blanks inserted for words that have been deleted, usually every fifth or sixth or seventh word is deleted. But, the first and last sentences are left intact. The teacher has to consider the time to complete the test, according to the number of blanks to be filled. For classroom purposes there are many variations of the cloze procedure. It is possible to select a passage that has many examples of a particular grammatical form, and test only that form. Cloze tests have been constructed for example, to assess the learner's skill in the use of prepositions, tense markers, articles, etc.

Another kind of integrative tests include essay writing and oral performance of various sorts. Such as reading aloud or telling a story. Usually a test will involve more than one of the traditionally recognized four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. It is the nature of the

communicative use of language that the components of grammar, whatever they may be, must be used more or less simultaneously or in parallel rather than one at a time for different tasks.

In general, it is much easier to prepare and administer an integrative test than it is to prepare and administer a discrete-point test. To get an adequate and effective discrete-point-test of the multiple choice objective type, it is sometimes necessary to go through several cycles of pretesting and revision of items.

If a teacher wants to test to what extent the learner knows the language, he/she should realize that "knowing" a language means having internalized its grammar. It means to have the ability to communicate in the foreign language with appropriate vocabulary and grammatical rules and expressing exactly what the learner tries to express. Thus, to test knowledge of the language it is necessary to press into action the internalized grammar of the learner. Integrative tests do this better than other kind of tests.

For classroom purposes, there are at least two ways of viewing language test. Teachers normally think of them in terms of what they tell them about the learner. But tests also discover a great deal about the effectiveness of the teacher and possible of the educational programs as a whole.

(Croft, 1980: 481-491 / Lado Robert, 1984: 75-96).

CHAPTER IV
THE FOUR SKILLS

4.1 THE TEACHING OF SPEAKING AND PRONUNCIATION

4.1.1 THE TEACHING OF SPEAKING

Generally, communicative competence is taken to be the objective of language teaching, that is, to produce communicative competent speakers to communicate in the target language. Efficient communicative competence must include not only the linguistic forms of a language, but also a knowledge of when, how and to whom it is appropriate to use these forms.

It is important to be clear about the goals of teaching communicative competence because the techniques and procedures of teaching follow from these goals. Linguistic competence forms part of communicative competence. But learning specific sounds and patterns does not necessarily entail the ability to use them, and students need practice in using the linguistic forms for the social purpose of language, as establishing social relations, seeking and giving information, etc.

Activities involving this kind of practice, should not be corrected by the teacher. If the basic teaching point is getting meaning across, the students have gotten the objectives of the exercise if they succeed in doing it. It is inhibiting

and frustrating to be consistently checked and corrected when one is struggling with ideas in another language. On the other hand, the teacher should help with vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation when he is asked. Then, students should early be taught phrases for talking themselves out of trouble, phrases like **how do you pronounce this word?, is that right?, etc.**

There are many types of activities in various combinations for developing communicative competence. Some of them are: social formulas and dialogues, community-oriented tasks, problem-solving activities and role plays.

4.1.1.1 SOCIAL FORMULAS AND DIALOGUES

This part covers such speech encounters as greetings, partings, introductions, excuses, compliments, complains, apologies, etc. There are exercises deliberately designed to develop communicative competence.

Example:

- A: I'm glad, you're still here! Sorry I'm so late.
 B: Don't worry. The bus hasn't come yet.
 A: I was just walking out the door and the phone rang. It was my mother, and,.... well, you know how my mother talks.
 B: I'm surprised you aren't later!.

- The teacher can assign two students to perform a dialogue on any on the topics he/she will give the students. These topics can be:

- You were supposed to be at home at nine o'clock, but

you couldn't.

- You asked your sister her new dress and you burnt it with a cigarette.

The teacher will explain the students how to use the appropriate form of apology.

The phrases and dialogues lend themselves to work in the language laboratory, but it is important that the teacher spends some time in the initial presentation of the section, in explaining the meaning, the connotation and sorts of situations in which the student would use the various expressions.

4.1.1.2 COMMUNITY ORIENTED TASKS

These are sets of exercises which compel the student to interact with native speakers outside the classroom in what could be called real situations.

Examples:

The banks:

- What is a checking account?
- What is savings account?
- What bank gives the highest interest rate in the city?
- How do you open an account?
- What services do banks provide?

The University:

- What is a university?
- What does University offer to you?
- How many universities are in your city?
- What careers can you study in this university?

The assignment is handed out in class and the topic explained in general terms. Then, it is up to the students to

find the answers outside the class. After a reasonable amount of time, they report their findings to the rest of the class. An alternative to oral reports is to have them act out their answers in a role play. The role play should be followed by a discussion session where students must ask what is unclear to them. It is absolutely vital that the topic be relevant to the student's needs and interests. These exercises may be given as group or individual assignments depending on the length and complexity of the assignment and the number of students in the class. The teacher has to look for a topic that meets the needs and interests of students as looking for an apartment, looking for a job, on the supermarket, etc. In this way it is possible to obtain a perfect good community-oriented task.

4.1.1.3 PROBLEM SOLVING ACTIVITIES

These exercises are just what they sound like, students are presented with a problem and some alternative solutions from which they have to choose the ones they consider the best.

A good exercise of this kind is the following:

The teacher reads: Ten of the world's most distinguished people are in a boat returning from an important meeting. When they are in the middle of the ocean, they are informed that the boat is going to sink. There is a single life jacket. Who would you give it to?. You must prepare a short statement, justifying your selection of the person who is to survive. Work in groups of five persons to make the selection and to write the statement supporting your choice.

Passengers of the boat:

1. President George Bush
2. Pope John Paul II
3. Michael Douglas
4. Maradona
5. Mother Teresa of India
6. Michael Gorbachov
7. Abdala Bucaram
8. Miss. Universe
9. Don Francisco
10. Chayanne

Problem solving activities may seem to be ideal for developing communicative competence, but most of them are communicative performance exercises for developing linguistic competence and carry no social cultural information. Most of them involve group work, so it is necessary to give importance to a few basic considerations as the number of members of a group, whether groups are going to be fluid or permanent, and so on.

4.1.1.4 ROLE PLAY

These are exercises where the student is assigned a fictitious role from which he has to improve some kind of behaviour, toward the other role characters in the exercise. The two basic requirements for role play are improvisation and fictitious roles. Role play exercises depend upon students proficiency, and they can be used in beginning classes or in advanced ones.

The format of role plays consists of three parts: the situation, the roles and useful expressions. The **situation** sets the scene and the plot, it explains and describes the task or action to be accomplished. Here is a good place to introduce some specific cultural information if that is a part

of the objective in a given role play. The **role** section assigns the roles, the list of characters. It is important to include such information as personality, experience, status, personal problems, and so on. The student himself has to create the personality through hints of background or behaviour. **Useful expressions** contain the linguistic information, primarily expression, phrases, technical vocabulary and grammar patterns. It is necessary to incorporate as much socio-linguistic information as possible in this section.

A section on background knowledge is occasionally needed. It is no good at all to ask students to act out roles which demand a general knowledge they do not have. There are some topics in which students must have subject matter information prior to the role play. This information need not be complicated at all - a short reading, a lecture by the teacher or a film, - some source of knowledge is necessary or the role play won't come off. **Example:**

Buying a house.

Mr. and Mrs. Torres are interested in buying a house in Loja. The Torres have three children, two dogs and two cars. The house they are looking at is a four bedroom with a small yard and a single big garage.

At a restaurant.

Ana and Paul are at a restaurant. They are given the menu and do not find what they want to eat. The waiter asks them what they are going to take for dinner and finally they decide to taste the house's especiality.

The procedures in order to develop role plays vary somewhat from play to play, but these are basic guidelines:

- Depending on the type and level of the class, the role should be done once a week, in the beginning of the week. Once the situation and rest of the information is explained, roles are assigned.

- It does not work very well to ask for volunteers, it wastes a lot of class time, so the teacher should assign the roles.

- Depending on the type of the role play, the students take home the role exercise they are assigned, they prepare what they are going to say, and when they perform the role in class they stand up and talk about it, but they are not allowed to have any written notes in their hands.

In some exercises, part of preparing of the role play involves acquiring some background or technical knowledge and it is an excellent way of coordinating lectures for aural listening comprehension or reading assignments with rest of class work. It is interesting to develop little role plays in the class without preparation on the part of students, here improvisation is needed with just little information due to the kind of role plays, which for this exercise have to be short, and have to catch the students interest.

4.1.2 THE TEACHING OF PRONUNCIATION

The acquisition of a good pronunciation in the target language is commonly held to be the most difficult of all tasks in language learning. This part is devoted to techniques of teaching pronunciation that will help students to understand and to be understood.

It is important to make clear that pronunciation practice cannot in any real sense be separated from listening practice. In actual classroom practice, listening and speaking should be coordinated. The teacher's job is to get the students' speaking ability to the point at which they can concentrate on the message rather on the code. Then, a good pronunciation of a foreign language is one which will not draw the attention of a native speaker of that language away from what the speaker is saying to the way in which the speaker is saying it. The main purpose when teaching pronunciation is the production of a sound system which does not interfere with communication, whether from the speaker's or the listener's point of view.

While all human vocal organs are structurally much alike, each language has its own system of combining the noises produced by the vocal tract. The articulation of an English sound is described in terms of the shape of the vocal tract. Articulation is broken down for consonants into the point of articulation and the manner of articulation. Description also includes whether the vocal cords are vibrating; if they are, the sound is described as **voiced**; if they are not, the sound is described as **voiceless**.

Because the spelling systems of many languages do not represent all of the sounds of the language, linguists use a special notation system, commonly referred to as phonetic alphabet, where one symbol stands for one specific sound. In order to get a good pronunciation of the English consonants, it is important to take into consideration their point and manner of articulation. Here, there are two charts which classify all the consonant sounds of English.

POINT OF ARTICULATION		Labial	Dental	Labio-Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glotal
MANNER OF ARTICULATION								
Stops	YL VD	p b			t d		k g	
Fricatives	YL VD		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ		h
Affricates	YL VD					tʃ dʒ		
Nasals	VD	m			n		ŋ	
Liquids	VD				l, r			
Glides	VD	w				y		

PHONEME	POSITION IN A WORD		
	Initial	Final	Medial
Stops			
p	pin	rip	ripping
b	bin	rib	ribbing
t	tin	right	attak
d	din	ride	adore
k	king	rack	racking
g	gun	rag	lagging
Fricatives			
f	fan	leaf	laughing
v	van	leave	leaving
θ	thin	breath	ether
ð	then	breathe	ither
s	sue	ice	ceasing
z	zoo	eyes	seizing
ʃ	shine	hush	blushing
ʒ		rouge	measure
h	hunt		
Affricates			
tʃ	char	beach	reaching
dʒ	jar	judge	budget
Nasals			
m	me	rum	swimming
n	knee	run	runner
ŋ		rung	hanger
Liquids			
r	red	hear	mirror
l	led	heal	miller
Glides			
w	wet	bow	bowing
y	yet	boy	boyish

I include here clear definitions of the manner of articulation:

Voiced-voiceless: In some consonants, the only difference is in the activity of the vocal cords. In voiced consonants they vibrate; in voiceless consonants they do not; one can feel the difference by putting the fingers around the throat in the area of the larynx and note the vibration of the vocal cords when a voiced consonant is pronounced.

Stop: The stream of air is cut completely at some point in the vocal tract: at the lips, at the alveolar ridge or the velum.

Fricative: This sound occurs when the stream of air is impeded, but not cut off entirely. This can happen with the teeth on the lower lip, with the tongue between the teeth, the tongue behind the teeth, and with the tongue in the middle of the mouth.

Affricate: This sound occurs when the stream of air is first stopped and then released.

Nasal: In nasal sounds, the air passes through the nasal cavity.

Liquid: In this sound, the passage air is obstructed in the middle of the mouth and air escapes around the sides of the tongue.

Glide: There is very little restriction with this sound.

It is also called semivowel.

When we talk about the vowel system, we are discussing sounds where the flow of air is relatively unobstructed through the oral cavity. It is the shape of the oral cavity and the movement of the tongue in the mouth which gives the vowels their characteristic quality. Compared with many other languages, English has a large number of vowel sounds. The students will need many exercises and a great deal of practice before they will be able to hear the distinctions.

This chart contains the vowels of the English language:

Phoneme	Example
i	peel, Pete
ɪ	pill, pit
e	pail, pate
ɛ	pale, pet
æ	pal, pat
ɑ	pot
ə	put
ɔ	Paul
o	pole
ʊ	pull
u	pool
Diphthongs	
aɪ	pie
ɔɪ	poise
aʊ	pout

In order to improve the pronunciation of the foreign

language, it is very important to know about suprasegmental phonemes. They include stress and rhythm, juncture and intonation. They are called suprasegmentals because they must always be overlaid on the segmentals (vowels and consonants) since they can never occur without them. The suprasegmental phonemes constitute the major difficulty for students in acquiring a good pronunciation.

Stress and rhythm: In any language some of the syllables in an utterance will be spoken with more force or intensity than others. In some languages these stressed syllables always come at the same place. The stress is fixed by automatic rules on a particular syllable in the utterance. English is characterized as a free stress language, that is, the stress is not dependent upon the place in the utterance but can occur on any syllable depending upon various factors.

Linguists usually describe four levels of stress for sentences: primary, secondary, tertiary and unstressed; the teacher should concentrate on stressed and unstressed syllables, specially at the beginning levels. The timing of syllables gives a language its characteristic rhythm. In many languages, as Spanish, each syllable receives an equal amount of time. In English, the stressed syllables tend to occur at regular intervals and the unstressed syllables in between are reduced and given less time. One of the characteristics which makes spoken English very difficult for foreign students to comprehend is this tendency to reduce and run together all unstressed syllables.

Juncture: The difference between "a nice man" and "an ice

man" is juncture. It is the combination of sounds into syllables which allows us to distinguish between "keep steeking" and "keeps ticking." Usually context will be sufficient to clarify the meaning. The teacher should be aware of this feature in order to diagnose students' problem in comprehension.

Intonation: Intonation is the rising and falling of the voice as we speak. The four pitch levels usually described for English are: 1) low; 2) normal; 3) high; and 4) extra high. It is also needed to describe the end of the utterance. There are two main terminals: rising and falling. In English intonation is related to sentence stress, since the accented syllable is often spoken on the highest note.

The following are the two most common patterns in English:

a. / 2 3 1 / this pattern is used for most declarative sentences, requests or commands and for WH questions. Example:

I'm going down town to ² morrow. ³ ¹

Please get me some ² cigarretes. ³ ¹

b. / 2 3 3 / this is the pattern for yes no questions, or any questions with statement word order. Examples:

Are you ² going? ³ ³

Is it time for ² class? ³ ³

The preceding discussion is a very general outline of the English sound system. It is included here because teaching pronunciation is more influenced by a technical knowledge of the linguistic feature than any other skill.

4.1.2.1 GENERAL ELEMENTS OF A PRONUNCIATION LESSON

The basic steps of a pronunciation lesson are (1) selection and presentation of the sound feature to be taught, (2) recognition of the new sound and discrimination between similar sounds, (3) production of the sound feature in words and phrases, (4) production of the sound feature in a communicative situation.

Teaching the segmental phonemes

Step 1.- Selection and presentation: As in teaching any other language skill, pronunciation is best taught by introducing only one thing at a time. The teacher should not introduce more than one segmental phoneme at once.

Most tests will have done a careful sequencing, but occasionally there are slips so the teacher should check (1) that new vowels are presented with previously learned consonants and viceversa, (2) that examples of the sound in all possible positions are included, and (3) that intonation and stress patterns used for practicing longer utterances are not new ones. The first step in actual classroom procedure is to introduce the sound, to focus the students' attention on the teaching point. It may be better to use the native language at

this stage.

Step 2.- Aural recognition and discrimination: Aural recognition of a new sound is a very difficult step for students in whose mother tongue the sound is absent or exists as an allophonic variation. The aural discrimination exercises should not take more than three to five minutes in the actual classroom presentation. As soon as the students can identify and discriminate the sound, the teacher should move on to the next step.

For teaching aural identification, there are the following drills:

- Minimal pair drills: The most common technique for aural discrimination is the use of contrast, either with a similar sound in the native language or of two sounds in the target language. For example, in one lesson the new sound /i/ is to be contrasted with /ɪ/.

1	1
bit	beat
hit	heat
mit	meat

- Same-different exercise drills: The purpose of these exercises is to realize whether or not the students can hear the phonemic contrasts. The teacher pronounces pair of words as (leave/live) and students are asked to identify whether the sounds are the same or different. The next step is to give three items and have the

students identify which ones are the same.

teacher: sheep - ship - ship-

Students: 2 and 3 are the same

A variation of this exercises is by using minimal sentences this to check the students' perception of the sound context.

1. Did he live? Did he leave? (different)
2. I have a sheep. I have a sheep (same)

The preceding drills are to help the student in his learning process, but no real learning will be accomplished until the students have a chance to practice discrimination in the context of real language. This last drill can be done if students know vocabulary and grammatical structures. The teacher makes statements and the students declare the message to be true or false.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------|
| 1. Students always write with a pin. | 1. false |
| 2. Students often write with a pen. | 2. true |
| 3. A sheep can take us to the U.S. | 3. false |
| 4. A ship can take us to the U.S. | 4. true |

Step 3.- Production: Once the students have demonstrated that they can distinguish the new sound, they must learn to produce it, first in isolated words and phrases, later in sentences and finally in communicative utterances. In minimal pair drills, students are frequently asked to practice with words from which they do not know the meaning. The reason

for this is that the primary criterion for selection words for pronunciation practice lies in the sound of the words rather than in their meaning. The practice with minimal pairs is so useful in teaching pronunciation.

In the production step of the lesson, the basic procedure is for the teacher to model the utterance and for the students to imitate. The teacher should stand up facing the class and try everyone to get an equal chance to hear clearly. He should be careful to speak at normal speed, and if he is not a native speaker, he should use tape recording of native speakers as much as possible. The students should drill with their books open; the written word reinforces the oral version.

For teaching sound production, there are the following drills:

- Repetition drills: The first step is a minimal pair drill where the new sound is contrasted with a previously learned sound. Example:

1 (previously learned)	2 (new sound)
pot	putt
lock	luck
rob	rub

The teacher reads across the columns, first word by word and then by pairs. The students repeat what they hear and the teacher tries to improve the students' pronunciation. Once the students have mastered the sound to the teacher's satisfaction through repetition and imitation, they should proceed to

testing drills of which there are various types.

- Testing drills: Among testing drills, there are frame drills, they involve the use of word frames for practicing various phonemic contrasts, especially the vowel contrasts. For example, the frame d.....n can be used to cue the students to many vowel sound: den / Dan / din / done / dune. It is possible as well to use a sentence frame and ask the student to complete it using charts or pictures as cues:

1. It is his

ship	lip	knee
sheep	tea	meat
key	chin	cheek

This exercise is also good for vocabulary expansion.

Step 4.- Contextualizing the practice: use the sound in a communicative situation: The drills which the students do should progress quickly from the sound in isolated words and phrases and sentences. But phrases and sentences are not really communicative, and if the students want to be able to use the newly learned sound in everyday situations, their classroom practice must also contain exercises where the focus is on the meaning the sound carries rather than on the sound itself.

One of the easiest ways of having the students practiced sentence length utterances in a meaningful context is by asking them questions. The teacher asks questions which require recapitulation of the studied material. Opinion-type

questions designed to stimulate discussion are adequate for more advanced students. Discussion-type questions are excellent for practicing real communication.

Teaching the suprasegmental phonemes

Suprasegmental phonemes have not been given sufficient attention in the EFL classroom. Probably because they involve linguistically very technical and difficult information or because it is doubtful that students learn no matter how much they are taught.

The basic sequence of presentation, recognition and production should also be followed with intonation, stress and juncture. It is important that the students have the necessary information for meaningful practice.

a. Intonation

Step 1.- Presentation: A short dialogue recorded in the students' native language and in the foreign language, can be used in order to demonstrate that there are differences between language in intonation. Once students are aware of these differences, they will need some kind of graphic representation. Beginning students will need the help of graphic symbols as an arrow (↗↘) following the utterance or a gesture of a raised or lowered hand at the end of the model sentences.

Step 2.- Aural discrimination: As soon as the students learn a grammatical pattern which requires an

intonation different from previously learned pattern, they should have contrastive exercises in discrimination. For example, when they are learning yes/no questions after having learned the verb BE in declarative sentences:

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------|
| 1. He's in class. | Statement |
| 2. He's in class? | Question |

The cues should differ in intonation only so that the students will learn to listen for this common pattern.

Step 3.- Production: Following the mimicry of a model, most techniques for production involve some kind of dialogue material. Dialogues should be carefully selected according to the level of student and to the topics previously studied.

Another kind of exercises, involve an oral cue given by the teacher and a series of responses to be read with the same pattern. Example:

- Cue: I'm going to live in Canada.
 Response: You must be crazy.
 You're out of your mind.
 What about your family?

This kind of exercises are useful at the intermediate and advanced stages, when students develop the typical listen and repeat phonological drills. The teacher reads the cue and the students read the responses individually using the same intonation as the teacher's.

b. Stress and rhythm

In actual practice it is not possible to practice stress apart from intonation, since stress usually coincides with the highest pitch of intonation. However, it is useful to consider them separately because stress sometimes functions independently and the students should be made aware of its importance in English.

Steps 1 and 2.- Presentation and aural discrimination:

Once the teacher had explained the students what they are going to do, they should begin with some exercises on stress. As a beginning exercise, the students underline the stressed syllables in sentences which are read at normal speed and in a low voice. Then, they mark stress for sentences read in a normal voice. Students should be given exercises which let them to notice how stress can change the meaning. This is a good one that combine stress and intonation.

The student listens to the cue and responds appropriately to the cue by the teacher. The teaching points are stress and tag question intonation.

T: You didn't eat that banana, did you?

S: No, I gave it away.

T: You didn't eat that banana, did you?

S: No, I ate the other one

Step 3.- Production: For beginning students, it is enough

if they learn to stress the word or syllable which coincides with the highest point in the intonation contour, and the same kind of exercises used to practice intonation will be useful for this purpose. More advanced students will need practice on compound noun stress, stress as it interprets grammatical meaning, stress in conversation and the affective meaning of various stress and intonation patterns.

Native speakers of any language learn early to interpret anger, amusement, sarcasm, etc. All the emotional states and attitudes that are expressed unconsciously by the way things are said, the "tone of voice". At the intermediate and advanced levels, where students may be in contact with native speakers, there should be exercises, information and discussion on these aspects of intonation. Besides practicing in class, students should transfer their practice to everyday life situations. This should be done by using a series of role play activities and students should also give oral reports to the class.

Oral reports are excellent practice on the intermediate and advanced levels: they put the responsibility for production on the student, they give recognition to the fact that the student has something to contribute and they give practice in the public use of the language. The student chooses the topic he desires and writes up his report then the teacher corrects it briefly and the student gives the report in class, it cannot be longer than six minutes.

Throughout the exercises in pronunciation, the progression is from controlled exercises to less structured ones in which

the student is allowed more than freedom to express his own ideas. When the students engage in conversational exchanges in the classroom using normal stress and expressing their own ideas, there is every reason to hope they will continue the practice with other students outside the classroom.

(Rivers Wilga, 1968:83-107 / Paulston and Bruder, 1976:55-126).

4.2. THE ORAL APPROACH TO LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING. ITS PRINCIPLES.

The main distinction between the formal or structural theory and the communicative or oral approach to language teaching is that the first views language outside a particular context of language use while the second presents the foreign language in a more clearly specified social context and situation. Theorists since the last decade have attempted to come closer to the reality of language use. It involved some of sociolinguistics perspectives and studies. The theorists' energies have been directed to bringing these sociolinguistic perspectives and studies. The theorists' energies have been directed to bringing these sociolinguistic perspectives into the language curriculum through new curriculum designs, and through new materials, teaching techniques and testing with a communicative orientation.

The approaches of new procedures have stimulated a great deal of interest among practitioners, but the gap between the inventories of language items in a "syllabus" and the teaching materials, teaching techniques and testing procedures has been

difficult to bridge, and even now these difficulties have not yet been entirely overcome.

Teaching materials and techniques which are based on sociolinguistic principles usually identify learners in a specific role of language use, for example, tourists, or university students, or migrant workers. Often the interactants are specified: shop-assistant/customer; foreign traveller / policeman; physician/patient, and so on. Situations of language use are indicated and sometimes described in a detailed scenario: for example, visiting a city, arriving at a hotel, reading academic papers, participating in seminar discussions; asking a neighbor for help, visiting a doctor's surgery. Next, speech acts are analyzed which regularly occur in the given situation: introducing oneself, enquiring, gathering information, asking permission, asking for help, giving reason or explanations, and the like. Eventually the linguistic manifestations of the speech act or acts are presented in a text, a dialogue, a flow chart, a table with explanations or an excerpt from a newspaper, etc. Learners are usually invited to enter vicariously into the situation so that they become participant. The learning tasks, therefore, frequently involve problem solving, simulation, or role playing. They may be conventional drill type exercises, but the difference from structural practice lies in the fact that the linguistic forms to be practiced have an identification place in a practical situation in which they can feel at home and in which they need the language items to be learned. Ideally, the practice is never entirely repetitive or imitative but offers natural options of language use which reproduce the kinds of choices that occur in

spontaneous communications.

- 1.- Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for oral communication.
- 2.- Writing and printing are graphic representations of the spoken language. Since language is speech, writing is only a secondary representation of language, and should be treated as such in the first stage of language learning.
- 3.- Language can be broken down into three major component parts: the sound system, the structure, and the vocabulary.
- 4.- Each language has its own sound system, structure, vocabulary, which are usually completely different from the systems of any other language.
- 5.- Language is continuously changing.
- 6.- The only authority for "correctness" of language is actual usage by native speakers.
- 7.- Any person of normal intelligence can learn a second language if he has good instruction, with good materials, and works hard enough at the task.
- 8.- Within each language there are many different levels of usage, depending on the particular group of people that are speaking.

- 9.- One can learn to speak and understand a language only by being exposed to the spoken language and by using the spoken language.
- 10.- One learn the sound system of a second language primarily through imitation of native speakers of that language.
- 11.- The material that the student should be exposed to in the language he is learning can be chosen after an objective descriptive analysis of both that language and the student's native language reveals the really significant features of the language he is learning.
- 12.- The really significant features of the second language should be emphasized more than the vocabulary in the early stage of second language learning.
- 13.- The elements of the sound systems and the structure of the language should be emphasized more than the vocabulary in the early stage of second language learning.
- 14.- Language can be learned inductively far more easily than deductively.
- 15.- The traditionally accepted "rules" concerning English usage and grammar are grossly inaccurate statements in terms of what educated native speakers of English actually say.
- 16.- The traditional deductive method whereby the student was first taught a set of rules and then expected to apply

them is largely ineffective in learning to speak and understand a second language.

17.- Grammar, a name for the devices of form and arrangement that comprise English structure, should never be taught as an end in itself, but only as a means to the end of learning the language.

18.- The use of grammatical terminology in teaching English as a second language should be kept to a minimum, and those terms that are used should conform as far as possible to an objective description of the language.

19.- Lengthy explanations of usage are relatively unefective in second language teaching, and generally should be avoided.

20.- The English that the student is exposed to should always "sound natural" to native speakers.

21.- The structures to which the student is exposed in the early stage of learning should be limited to what is essential for ordinary communication.

22.- All structural material should be presented and practice in class before the student attempts to study it alone.

23.- The student should not be asked to produce original utterances in English requiring independent thinking until he has become thoroughly familiar with the structural patterns involved through presentation and practice in

class.

24.- The vocabulary to which the student is exposed in the early stage of learning should be strictly limited to the most essential lexical items.

25.- Two of the most effective classroom teaching techniques developed to date for presenting English to non native speakers are: a) choral repetition and b) substitution drill.

26.- Use of the student's native language in class should be avoided or kept to a minimum in second language teaching.

27.- Learning a second language is a long and difficult task for an adult student, and requires his whole-hearted cooperation.

(Bowen, Madsen and Hilferty, 1985: 86-92 / Brooks Nelson, 1984: 120-136).

4.3 THE TEACHING OF READING AND WRITING

4.3.1 THE TEACHING OF READING

The objectives of teaching reading are self-evident, people read for information and for pleasure. On the very elementary level, however, reading serves primarily to introduce basic grammar patterns and vocabulary items in context and to reinforce this basic knowledge. Reading is learned rather than taught, one learns reading by reading in

the mother tongue as well as in the foreign language.

One of the most important aspects of teaching reading is the selection of the teaching text. The reading selections should not contain marked dialect or slang features or old-fashioned language. The text should have a high interest value to the students and the simplest way of establishing this is by asking students their opinions of the reading and then eliminating low interest selections from future curricula. Another important consideration in selecting texts is the level of reading difficulty, which must be matched to the overall proficiency of the students. Another aspect which merits consideration is when to begin reading. Adults who know how to read in the mother tongue should begin from the first day. Although it is possible to learn to speak without reading, it seems a more effective strategy to learn to read simultaneously with learning to speak.

4.3.1.1 INTENSIVE READING

In intensive reading, the student's attention is focused through instruction on the linguistic features which enable him to decode the message. Intensive reading is where the teacher's efforts are primarily concentrated. It deals with syntactical and lexical feature of language, and its major objective is to develop the ability to decode messages by drawing on syntactical and lexical clues.

One important matter before the teacher goes to the details of the actual lesson, students need to work with both, a dictionary and a reference grammar. Beginning students

should use bilingual dictionaries and not try to use monolingual dictionaries until the intermediate levels. A reference grammar of English written in the mother tongue is more efficient at the elementary level than an all-English grammar.

Comprehension questions are useful to test intensive reading. They may be either after-questions or before-questions. After-questions are just that, questions which are asked or read after the actual reading and whose purpose is to check that the student did the reading assignment and that they understood it. Before-questions serve to focus the student's attention on the important points of the passage during the reading and are a teaching rather than a testing device. Both, after- and before-questions can be any of the five types:

- 1.- Answerable simply yes/no or true/false. Multiple choice of answers is given with the question.
- 2.- Answerable with information quoted directly from the reading selection.
- 3.- Answerable with information acquired from the reading selection, but not directly from a single sentence.
- 4.- Answerable from implication from the reading; the information is not stated explicitly in the selection.
- 5.- The answer requires evaluation or judgment relating the reading selection to additional information or experience of the reader.

The teacher should be careful to prepare and include questions from the five types, in this form he will be sure that students understood the reading selection.

Meaning and pronunciation of new words

The study of vocabulary is the most neglected of all in language teaching, this results in poor vocabulary which interferes with student's correct reading. Vocabulary is taught for productive and receptive use. In grammar class all words are taught for productive use, for the ability to recall and use these words for communicative purposes. In reading, the emphasis is on the content words but for receptive use, for the ability to recognize the meaning of a word in context. Reading does not lend itself to the enrichment of productive vocabulary. The criteria for selecting vocabulary differ depending on whether the vocabulary is taught for productive or receptive use. For productive use the two most cited criteria are frequency of occurrence and degree of difficulty.

Frequency of occurrence can be established by reference to word lists. Although there are many problems with word lists, they can serve as a guideline for the selection of vocabulary. There is no absolute difficulty, and although one may identify causes of difficulty as due to phonology, morphology, etc., that still does not allow any accurate ranking of words by difficulty. Something important to mention is that many words which are considered as difficult are of high frequency and must be taught in the very beginning. Degree of difficulty, therefore should not be considered as a criterion for the selection of vocabulary, but rather, it should be taken into account for methods of teaching vocabulary.

The criteria for selecting productive vocabulary should also be kept in mind when choosing a reading text. The main

consideration simply should be to select the key words necessary to grasp the main plot or main theme, whatever the frequency of the words in the foreign language. Once the selection of vocabulary is made, the words will have to be taught. It would be more accurate to say that the words will have to be presented to the students so that they can learn them. This presentation includes the explanation by the teacher.

Translation of individual words works as a technique for teaching vocabulary only at beginning levels. This technique works when the student knows the lexical equivalent in his mother tongue. At more advanced levels, the students learn words for new concepts for which they have no equivalent in their mother tongue, and these words have to be taught in the foreign language context.

Students should also be taught to become familiar with the different types of writing and with the methods for developing those types of writing:

- I. Major types of writing
 - i. Explanation and analysis
 - a. a process
 - b. an opinion or point of view
 - c. events and phenomena
 - d. instructions and directions
 - ii. Argument
 - a. persuasion
 - b. reputation
 - c. examining both sides of a point

- iii. Description and summary
 - a. a thing
 - b. a person
 - c. a place
 - d. an event
 - e. concepts
 - iv. Narrations
 - a. A series of events; a report
 - b. biography or autobiography
 - c. historical events
 - d. fiction or nonfiction
- II. Methods of development for major types of writing
- i. Illustration and/or exemplification
 - ii. Comparison and contrast
 - iii. Partition-dividing something into parts and explaining or describing each.
 - iv. Classification - putting things into categories.
 - v. Definition - formal, descriptive or operational.
 - vi. Cause and effect.
 - vii. Reasoning- if....., therefore.

In order to be able to understand such a reading and to talk about it, students must learn to identify main ideas, and supporting details. For this, it is necessary to go through various exercises. A good reading program should contain a variety of activities and exercises which will help students to learn more vocabulary, grammar patterns, and to reinforce and develop their skills in the foreign language.

As students use the dictionary a great deal in reading, it is important to show them how to find the information they seek. In a dictionary it is possible to find information about pronunciation, spelling, syllable division, meaning, parts of speech, usage, and derivation of a word. In reading, it is clearly the meaning of a word that is most important to them. And therein lies the problem: most words have more than one meaning and the problem for students is to choose the meaning intended by the writer. The majority of words in English may be used as more than one part of speech: verb, noun, adjective, etc. It is the position of the word in the sentence which determines the part of speech. Since most English words have many meanings, dictionaries list the meanings according to the part of speech.

A common complaint about the reading of foreign students is the slow rate of their reading. Students who read too slowly miss both, grammar and vocabulary clues because their short-term memory is too short. Speed reading exercises increase the student's confidence in their ability to read if the materials are easy enough. The format for these exercises consists of a reading passage and a set of comprehension questions. The students' reading is timed, and after the allotted time is up, they answer the comprehension questions, which are then checked in class. Basically, all speed reading exercises simply cause students, to attempt to read faster by putting external pressure on them.

4.3.1.2 EXTENSIVE READING

Extensive reading refers to the

outside reading students do in their own with no guidance from the teacher. It is said that people learn to read by reading, and the objective of extensive reading is that: to learn reading by reading.

The two major problems of extensive reading are selecting reading material and getting the students to do the reading. Students should begin to read extensively as soon as they can possibly manage. At the beginning levels where the major emphasis is on getting students used to reading in the target language, they will need to read books adapted for second language teaching.

At the intermediate levels, the students need to begin to work with unsimplified English prose. Short stories, novels, and plays are usually the best bet. What works very well is to let students to read a book they have already read in their mother tongue. Adventure and mystery stories tend to have lively and natural dialogues. But if students do not like them, there is no sense in using them. Students must be interested in what they read extensively. Extensive reading is the one skill which stay with them along after they have finished their formal studies and is a skill which in itself holds a major reward for the study of English.

4.3.2 THE TEACHING OF WRITING

This part of the chapter four tries to examine the role of writing in language teaching and the techniques and procedures of teaching composition. There are three major points in the writing of compositions: (1) correct

language forms, (2) mechanics of punctuation, and (3) content organization.

4.3.2.1 CORRECT LANGUAGE FORMS

There are basically two methods for teaching correct language forms in writing. One is controlled composition and the other is free composition.

a. Controlled composition: It has several advantages on all levels and makes it possible to teach one thing at a time. Controlled composition makes sequencing and grading of patterns possible, and it gives the student maximum practice in writing correct forms of the language, consequently correcting is easy.

Typically it consists of a written model of some type with directions for conversions or specific language manipulations in rewriting the model. Writing also serves as a reinforcement for reading, so this kind of activities should be incorporated in beginning and advanced levels. Students cannot write a correct composition if they do not understand what they are doing, thus the correct response depends on the students' knowledge of English. For this reason, the teacher has to select carefully the exercises on controlled composition according to his students' academic level.

There are a variety of exercises from which teachers can select the most appropriate. These are some examples:

- In a substitution table composition, like the following,

where all fillers for each slot are interchangeable, there is complete control and all students have to copy correctly:

The (1) dog (2) ran (3) across the yard.
A (4) child was waiting (5) for him behind
the (6) door with a (7) bone to his (8)
friend.

1. brown, big, nice
2. with a bell, of the Ruiz
3. Rapidly, slowly
4. little, smart
5. impatiently, calmly
6. house's, iron
7. delicious, big
8. old, best

The student is asked to rewrite the paragraph inserting on the spaces marked with numbers one of the alternatives given below.

--- Another exercise of this type is the following:

The student is given a paragraph like this:

My sister is a wonderful girl. She likes to go dancing and shopping. My mom says she is really nice. She likes to help my mom to clean the house. At school she is a very good student. Her friends say she likes to help everyone. And everyone love her.

Then the student is asked to rewrite the paragraph beginning with "my brother is a terrible boy", and changing the sense of the paragraph. The student's paragraph can be like this:

My brother is a terrible boy. He likes to sleep very much. My dad says he never helps him in his work. At school he is not a good student. He has many friends but all are equal to him.

A good exercise to improve writing is Sentence Combining. The basic aim of this exercise is to show how to avoid weak sentence and to construct strong ones. Examples:

1. Peter has a car
Peter is Paul's older brother
The car is shiny
The car is new.

A: Peter, Paul's older brother has a shiny new car.

2. Peter's car is very comfortable SOME REASON
The seats are roomy
The seats are wide
The seats are soft
The engine is very quiet.

A: Peter's car is very comfortable because the seats are roomy, wide and soft and the engine is very quiet.

3. I bought SOMETHING
It was a present
It was special
It was for my mother SOME REASON
I knew SOMETHING
My mother was sad.

A: I bought a special present for my mother because I knew she was sad.

4. There are things I like to do
SOMETIME
The things are many
I do them in my spare time,
SOMETIME
I am not studying at that time.

A: There are many things I like to do in my spare time when I am not studying.

5. SOMEHOW, the studies show SOMETHING
the children become quiet
The children do not play very much
These children watch TV too much

A: Therefore, the studies show that children who watch TV too much do not play very much and become quiet.

6. You know SOMETHING

Smells are created SOMETIME

Molecules of a substance are carried
SOMEWHERE

The substance is smelly

The molecules are carried through the
air.

A: You know that smells are created
when molecules of a smelly
substance are carried through the
air.

The teacher explains the students that every cluster of sentences should be combined to form a single sentence. The words in capital letters like SOMETHING, SOMEONE, SOMETIME, are called placeholders, and they will always be replaced. Here are some of the words and structures that replace the SOME- words (not all are included because of the large variety):

SOMEHOW	SOME REASON	SOMETHING	SOMETIME	SOMEWHERE	SOMEONE
So	because	which	when	in	he (or
while	since	that	before	near	other
however	although	to (do	after	next to	pronoun
like	eventhough	something)	meanwhile	(other	or noun
but	so that		in	prepo-	group)
suddenly	in order to		for (a	sitional	
also	if		long)	phrase)	
first			until		
second			as		
finally			soon		
therefore			now		

The teacher can formulate these cluster of sentences in such a way that when they have been developed by the students, all sentences together can be arranged into a paragraph.

- Paragraph reduction is also a good exercise to enhance writing. The student is given a paragraph, from which he has to reduct and arrange the most he can.

Example:

Cuicocha is a lagoon. The lagoon is large. It is beautiful. The lagoon is located on the north part. This part is in Ecuador. The lagoon is bordering the road. It covers an area. The area is vast. Cuicocha is an ideal spot. It is ideal for watching birds. There are local varieties. There are migratory visitors. These visitors come from lands. The lands are far away. These visitors are the most interesting. Then can be seen from October to May. This birds come to Ecuador. This is know. They come for a reason. They scape conditions. The conditions are unfavourable. The conditions are in their land. It is their land of origin. They feed well on various things. They eat berries. They eat insects. They eat worms. Then they are well set. They are set for they journey. The journey is homeward. The journey is at the end. It is the end of the season. People enjoy the visit. The people are many. The visit is of the birds. The birds are migrants. The visit is every year.

A: Cuicocha is a large and beautiful on the North part of Ecuador the lagon bords the road and covers a bast area. It is an ideal spot for watching local varieties of birds and the migratory visitors which come from lands far away. These visitors are the most interesting and they can be seen from October to May. It is known then they come to Ecuador scaping from unfavorable conditions in their land of origen. They feed with berries insects and worms and then they are well set for their journey homeward at the end of the season. Many people enjoy the anual visit of the migrant birds.

-- A common procedure is to present the student an outline and asked to write a composition from it. Or to use topic sentences to control the student's composition:

When I go to the movies.....
 People of big cities.....

b. Free composition: In addition to the controlled compositions, students need to write ocassional free compositions. Students have to free their feelings and put across their own ideas. A useful guideline is probably to have the students write as many free compositions as the teacher can

correct.

On the beginning levels, students are usually assigned topics which require only description or straight narrative as: My mother, Christmas Day, My city, The Presidents of my country, etc. Free compositions have many more mistakes than controlled compositions and it is not pleasant for students and teachers to have the composition end up covered with red marks. There are some alternatives. The teacher can mark as incorrect those patterns the students have covered in the grammar class and those the students are supposed to know. Some instructors feel that giving grades on the compositions also serves to encourage carefulness in writing, but many times it is deplorable to realize that students improve their compositions when they are graded. Grading compositions should depend on the individual strategies of teacher's personality.

4.3.2.2 MECHANICS OF PUNCTUATION

Punctuation may seem exceedingly trivial in a program of composition but nevertheless it is necessary. Principles of punctuation differ from language to language. Students need to know about punctuation for two reasons, to be able to write comprehensible and for their readings.

4.3.2.3 ORGANIZATION OF CONTENT

After students have learned the general principles of paragraph development and outlining, they need to work on specific principles of organization which go

with different types of reading. The major types of writing and the methods of development for major types of writing have already been described in the part of intensive reading (pages 110 - 111).

Students need practice with all of the different types of writing, with special emphasis on the organizational principles particular to each type. Discussion of individual compositions is an important aspect of an efficient composition program. The focus of the discussion should center on sorting out performance errors from competence errors, so that students can do exercises on the latter type of pattern.

Intermediate and advanced students still need to work on correct language forms. Teachers should give a grammatical explanation which is as brief as possible but still sufficient; students need precise grammatical explanations before writing. Teaching writing is a time consuming job because in spite of all that has been said to the contrary, there is no way out of correcting compositions if the students are to learn to write well. It is a satisfying job for teachers to find that student's progress can be so very marked.

(Chastain Kenneth, 1976: 136-152 / Smith Frank, 1971: 64-83 / Bratt Paulston and Newton Bruder, 1976: 157-249 / Allen Edward and Vallete Rebeca, 1977: 88-115.)

4.4 SEARCHING FOR A METHOD IN EFL. 10 PRINCIPLES

Many English teachers find themselves faced with a series of deeply troubling questions about what method should

they use. It appears that the wisest course of action for them to follow under those circumstances is to concern themselves less with theory and more with finding out what techniques actually succeed best with students. Instead of accepting one particular linguistic or psychological doctrine as dogma, teachers should have to understand all potentially relevant theories and make the best possible use of such insight as each of them may have to offer.

For the sake of clarity, it is presented here, ten principles which characterize an attitude toward language learning and some of its possible implications. The ten are:

- 1.- Teaching is more of an art than a science.
- 2.- No methodologist has the whole answer.
- 3.- Try to avoid the pendulum syndrome.
- 4.- Place a high value on practical experimentation without doctrinaire allegiance.
- 5.- Look to various relevant disciplines for insights.
- 6.- View objectives as an overriding consideration.
- 7.- Regard all tested techniques as resources.
- 8.- Attach as much importance to what your students say as to how they say it.
- 9.- Let your greatest concern be the needs and motivation of your students.
- 10.- Remember that what is new is not necessarily the best.

4.4.1 TEACHING IS MORE OF AN ART THAN A SCIENCE

Language teaching has always been, and remains more of an art than a science. That is to say, it is largely

intuitive and dependent on the personal abilities and convictions of the teacher. It appears that most of a teacher's success is the result of such qualities as enthusiasm, intelligence, and love for the students. At a time like the present when the scientific justification for the methods teachers use seems to be particularly uncertain, teachers should be able to find comfort in the thought that all is thereby lost. Teachers can still work at cultivating and improving their art. It is important for them to maintain their confidence in themselves as good professionals.

4.4.2 NO METHODOLOGIST HAS THE WHOLE ANSWER

Language teachers have tended on the whole to allow themselves to be easily influenced by methodologists and also by linguists. Some teachers have permitted themselves to be converted to new methods more than once within the space of a few years. On the other hand, there are many people who claimed to have found new ways of bringing about instructional miracles: to teach anyone Spanish in 8 weeks; to enable students to read English at the rate of thousand words per minute, and so on.

The present would appear to be an excellent time to cultivate skepticism with which we ought to consider all new methodological proposals. Just now it should be more obvious than ever that methods do succeed one another in the favor of teachers. No one of them remains in vogue for long. The audiolingual approach retained its popularity longer than most. If an effective cognitive approach should be developed and gain wider acceptance, we can be absolutely certain that it too will

sooner or later be superseded by some other new approach. There is no one method, eternal and immutable to be discovered.

4.4.3 TRY TO AVOID THE PENDULUM SYNDROME

It has been pointed out that one strongly recommended method or approach has succeed another at relatively short intervals and that the proponents of each have been inclined to deny the validity of all that preceded. One result has been a tendency on the part of language teachers to swing from one extreme to another in their attitude toward various methodological features. It is this tendency to swing from one extreme of opinion to the other that is referred to here as the "pendulum syndrome." It would presumably have been wiser, instead of condemning one or another method, to try to determine the precise circumstances under which it might be helpful and precisely when it might be dangerous to the teaching-learning process.

4.4.4 PLACE A HIGH VALUE ON PRACTICAL EXPERIMENTATION WITHOUT DOCTRINAIRE ALLEGIANCE

The suggestion that teaching is more of an art than a science should not be interpreted as meaning that research and experimentation are to be neglected. The great value of experimental evidence as an aid to the making methodological decisions becomes more apparent than ever in a period when there are widespread doubts regarding the choice of a method.

In most educational programs, students are required to develop a thesis or research work before obtaining their degree. According to their studies they have to choose a theme of general interest. In language careers, topics may be dealing with the process of attitudes whereby children or adults require specified elements of a language; the methodological or other variables that affect second language acquisition; the effect of teacher and student attitudes on learning a new language; the effect of present certain features of a language in a specific sequence; the forms of a language used for special purposes and by special groups; the effectiveness of various types of language testing, etc. Many theses report on the results achieved in experimentation or in bilingual-education programs.

It is important for students to develop their research without doctrinaire allegiance. It means that they should suspend any opinions they may have as to the superiority of one method over another and report on theory observations with as much objectivity as they can achieve. Objectivity, is of course a basic requirement for all research, and it is a requirement that has not always been met in experiments involving language teaching.

4.4.5 LOOK TO VARIOUS RELEVANT DISCIPLINES FOR INSIGHTS

The methodologists responsible for the developments of the audio-lingual approach emphasized the relationship between language teaching and linguistics. It seems reasonable to believe that some knowledge of linguistics

can be very helpful to language teacher. After all, linguistics is the science that can provide us with theories regarding the nature of language and facts regarding the structures of particular languages.

Today it is easier for language teachers to realize that linguistics is not the only discipline to which teachers can look for insights. It is important to understand the nature of students as it is to understand the nature of language. Teachers therefore have much to learn from psychology, the science which studies how language is acquired and the personal variables that may affect its acquisition. In the same way, a basic knowledge of sociology will be helpful for language teachers, the linguistic problems of children and adults of minority groups who enroll in bilingual schools are inextricably interrelated with social problems.

4.4.6 VIEW OBJECTIVES AS AN OVERRIDING CONSIDERATION

English is taught around the world for a truly impressive variety of resources. Millions of children study in the elementary grades because at higher levels it will become the medium of instruction in all their classes. Millions more study it in secondary schools as a key to an important segment of the culture of the world or to get jobs. Immigrants to English-speaking countries have to acquire a quick mastery of the spoken language as a necessity for survival in their new environment. It would be a great mistake to think that the same method is appropriate for achieving all these different objectives.

Depending on those different objectives, the purpose of the class seems to be in conflict with methodological principles. Despite the conflict teachers will, if they regard objectives as an overriding consideration, spend most time in class in having students doing what made them take the English classes. What students actually do in class is what they learn to do. It is very unlikely that they can be effectively taught to do something outside of class by doing something quite different in class.

4.4.7 REGARD ALL TESTED TECHNIQUES AS RESOURCES

Good students working under good teachers have been quite successful in learning English and other languages regardless of the method of instruction that was used. It does appear to be true that different methods tend to favor the development of some skills at the expense of others. Thus, the direct method can be especially successful in producing graduates who use the spoken language fluently, though perhaps not always with absolute correctness. The best translators are presumably products of the grammar-translation method. Each method favors the use of certain techniques and discourages the use of others. Are teachers really justified, however, in rejecting totally any technique because of the method with which it has been associated? Would it not be wiser to regard all the proven techniques associated with all methods as part of a vast store of methodological resources upon which we can draw in accordance with our specific purposes at a given time.

4.4.8 ATTACH AS MUCH IMPORTANCE TO WHAT YOUR STUDENTS SAY AS TO HOW THEY SAY IT

There is increasing evidence and a growing belief among educators that one of the best way of learning English is to use it extensively in studying some other subject or for some practical purpose. When it does not happen, students have some justification for their frequent complaints that a large part of their work is a sheer meaningless manipulation of language.

It is important to provide some meaningful content in even elementary language class. Ways can be found of encouraging pupils to talk and write about the things that interest them most. Language teachers can have their own objectives but they are also under an obligation to contribute to the general aims of education. If the objective of a grade in a given school system is to teach children ideals of good citizenship, then, the content of the language classes should in some way reflect that objective.

4.4.9 LET YOUR GREATEST CONCERNS BE THE NEEDS AND MOTIVATION OF YOUR STUDENTS

Teachers must not forget that students are more important than methods. Instructional methods were devised to serve the needs of students; students were not devised as subjects to try methods on. Much of the time that has been spent in considering theoretical questions of methodology might have been better spent in trying to discover precisely what language skills students will find most useful after they

finish classes. Time should be given to questions such as the advisability of providing separate English classes for students of the humanities on the one hand and science on the other hand, so that the needs of both groups might be better met. Teachers should also have more research designed to identify the particular vocabulary items and structural features of English, that are most used by business men, physicians, and other large professional groups.

By those means teachers can achieve more relevance to students needs in their classes, and they probably have gone a long way toward solving the essential problem of motivation. Without motivation, the student of a second or foreign language never learns enough of it to be of much value.

4.4.10 REMEMBER THAT WHAT IS NEW IS NOT NECESSARILY BETTER

There is a tendency among educators to try out any new strategy after another in an almost desperate search for new solutions. It seems that the educational system wants teacher to believe that anything new must automatically be an improvement. Schools have been encouraged to think that the abolition of almost any established feature of education may result in better teaching. When the now overdue method does come along it is to be hoped that teachers will insist in asking abundant practical proofs of its effectiveness. It may be helpful if teachers remind that most of the best books and researches have been done many years ago and they are not necessarily new.

(Croft, 1980: 13-25).

CHAPTER V
CONCLUSIONS AND
RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 CONCLUSIONS

"An Analysis on the EFL Methods," a research work for the licentiate's degree, has been carefully structured and prepared according to a selected bibliography. The teaching of English as a foreign language in a place where it is not spoken is a hard task, but it seems not to be very difficult when the teacher knows about the methodology to be used for this purpose. For this reason, I have provided a wide study about the methods and techniques that will make possible for teachers and students to help one another with the teaching-learning process.

The process of teaching English as a second or foreign language, has been constantly changing. It has occurred mainly because of the critical reevaluation the audiolingual method has experimented due to the need of a more cognitive approach. In many educational centers, there has been a clear and conscious movement which attempts to go beyond the traditional techniques of practice and oral responses toward an approach that stresses functional control over the rules of grammar through formulations and/or demonstrations. Teachers still using the audiolingual method, have become aware of the need to make the teaching process more communicative and real, and have a strong tendency to do so developing techniques to obtain good results.

Many persons involved in the cognitive procedures have not entirely abandoned audiolingual techniques, but they have focused most of their attention on one or more of those approaches that have been put inside of the innovative methods in teaching a foreign language. These methods differ widely in many aspects, but at the same time, in all of them is present the belief that students can best learn a language not by merely repeating and memorizing, but by working and understanding and then internalizing the rules of the target language using them to communicate in a original and creative manner.

Maybe because of the methodological design of the teaching process in our university, teachers and students have not had the facility to accede and the oportunity to know enough about the different methods from which they could select and put into practice the one they think is the best according to the process they are involved in. The name and principal characteristics of most of the methods is familiar enough, but methods themselves are not easy to grasp because what a particular method constitute is not always clear. Often a teacher who uses a specific method in his classroom, conducts his class in a different way from another teacher who uses the same method.

One of the most important aspects when trying to choose an adequate method to be employed in an EFL classroom is the age of the students. From the investigation previously done, I can also conclude that there are some methods which work best with short aged students that others; for example, Total Physical Response is one of the methods that work perfectly with

children and has been successfully used in more developed countries. But the lack of knowledge about the usage of the methods and about the great results their application has given, have not let teachers to put them into use and to realize about their great benefits.

It is possible to find that English teachers do not know enough the ways in which they can apply and take advantage of the new and innovative methods proposed in this work. The great amount of limitations found by teachers and students in the teaching-learning process, impede them to be completely benefited by the great advantages of these methods. The lack of information and enough sources of information has contributed to this factor, and it has ended in a low academic level for students.

I consider it to be very important for students who are trying to get their licentiate's degree, to have a good knowledge about the traditional and innovative methods, new trends in teaching and also to relate them with the four skills. This will let them to participate actively in the teaching-learning process and also to discover what is most useful for them in the career they have chosen.

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

I have done this research with one main idea, to provide students and teachers on English as a Foreign language with this material which I am sure will benefit them. I recommend you to read it and to take into consideration the bibliographical data I have compiled in this work. But besides

reading and using it, allow me to remind you that the only knowledge of the English methodology would not be enough to put it into practice. It would also be necessary the adequate training and experimentation on the part of teachers and a wider study of the subject on the part of students. It includes practice with different methods, techniques and strategies trying to include as many methods as possible. The development of training courses on methodology and the correct use of a complete manual about classroom techniques and procedures, will let students and teachers to handle the correct methodology to teach and learn English as a foreign language.

As a manner of recommendation, I would like to advise teachers of English as a foreign language, to try to include in their classes according to the subject, certain aspects that correspond to some innovative methods as Comprehension training and Suggestopedia. They have offered good results in the educational centers in which they have been used because of the motivation they imply. In this way, the teacher and the student will participate more effectively in the teaching-learning process. It would be very important for students and teachers in our university to unify the methods they use when teaching English. During the period the student spends in the University, he has to experiment a diversity of methods, techniques and procedures teachers put into practice. This implies certain desorientation on the part of students, because if each teacher uses a different method or strategy, students become confused and it does not allow the teaching-learning process to be developed as expected.

A teacher should take into consideration some factors when selecting a method to teach English. Among these I can mention the age of students, academic level, number of students, number of hours per subject, and so on. Sometimes these factors can be considered as limitations but teachers and students must try to avoid limitations and do their best in order to achieve the best results. Teachers and students together have to look for new ways with which they can obtain better results. The implementation of a subject in which students can learn about techniques, strategies, and exercises would help a lot to get this purpose. The practice of students with classes of different subjects is very important, in this way students can experiment and realize what does teaching really mean. Students should be given exercises to get the correct use of dictionaries because dictionary work should be tied to the individual's need in teaching reading and writing. This practice, a good methodology and the help of qualified and adequately prepared teachers will conduct the teaching learning process in a productive and satisfactory way.