TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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To my children, Mada, Nares and Dipta,
with gratitude for their love and encouragement

PREFACE

Having taught the methods course for decades and given teacher-training seminars, I am really interested in sharing my knowledge and experience with English teachers and prospective English teachers in Indonesia.

I must thank my colleagues and students at my university. This book would not have been written in the first place if it were not for their influence. I am very grateful to them.

I am also indebted to Earl Stevick, Diane Larsen- Freeman, and Calleg Cattegno. Being a student of these outstanding experts at the School for International Training, Vermont- USA has inspired me to write this book.

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Ag. Bambang Setiyadi

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LANGUAGE TEACHING

1.1 HISTORY OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

The history of language teaching presented in this book has been mostly adapted from Mackey (1975) and Richards and Rodgers (1986 and 2001). The development is presented chronologically so that the history of language teaching can be easily traced back from the past. Some ways of teaching foreign languages adapted from the book are not necessarily methods; they may be simply collections of some lessons of teaching experiences. Therefore, the presentation of the history of language teaching in this chapter does not imply the development of teaching methods.

Before The Nineteenth Century

The beginning of foreign language teaching might not be separated from the Roman Empire when the Romans studied Greek as their second language. They studied Greek by inviting Greek tutors or having Greek-speaking servants in the household. Finally, peoples in Europe began to learn another foreign language and think about language teaching methods. The first concern with language- teaching method in Europe had to do with teaching of Latin. The teaching of Latin began with expansion of the Roman Empire. As the empire expanded, people began to learn Latin until that language became the international language of the Western World, which was the language of church and state at that time. Soon, the language was

widely used and became the only medium of instruction in the schools. This made people learn the language as a subject and the methods were mostly limited to Latin grammar for clerics to speak, read and write in their second language, the language in which nearly all academic learning was done. This could be the first way of teaching a foreign language.

The Latin which was taught at schools was Latin which was written several centuries older than the Latin spoken in academic Europe at that time. Old Latin was considered very complicated and the mastery of the language was no longer practical. The purpose of learning Latin at that time was only the preparation of reading the Latin classics. At that time there were a number of attempts to improve the teaching of Latin by doing away with the learning of grammar. One prominent scholar who attempted to improve the teaching Latin grammar was Di Marinis (1532), as well as Luther, who was opposed to too much formal grammar and to the teaching of rules. The improvement of teaching a foreign language was also suggested by a Czech educator, Jan Comenius (1631), who used imitation, repetition and plenty of practice in both reading and speaking. He was also the one who first attempted to teach grammar inductively and to teach language through pictures.

The emphasis of language teaching changed by the time. Up to the last quarter of the eighteenth century the usual practice in schools was to translate from the second language into the first. Translation way already took the position of teaching grammar. This way of teaching was associated with the work of Meidenger, who 1783 published the writing which advocated translation into the second language through the application of rules of grammar. With the coming of the Grammar Translation Method, the teaching of Latin grammar had become an end in itself. The teaching of Latin grammar had become formalized into sort of intellectual exercises.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century the teaching of foreign languages was done by providing language learners with texts based on simple sentences containing most of the grammatical features of the target language. At that time a foreign language was taught by using the first language to acquire the foreign language. The scholar who advocated this way was Karl Plotz (1819-81). His method was divided into two parts: 1) rules and paradigms, and 2) sentences for translation into and out of the

second language. This might be the introduction of the Grammar Translation Method.

After The Nineteenth Century

The language teaching which emphasized grammar and translation was soon criticized and a new method was introduced. In 1867 Claude Marcel advocated the abolition of translation and grammar rules and the teaching of language first through comprehension of texts. He suggested the teaching of language through abundant listening, then through the reading of simple and familiar material, followed later by speaking and writing. As a reaction against the grammar translation method, in 1866 Heness had started a private school for teaching languages by a natural method, whose assumption is that language learners learn a foreign language in the same a child learn the first language. In 1880 Francois Gouin also added a new element to language teaching: physical activity. The idea proposed by Gouin was relatively new at that time but it was first ignored. At the same time the reaction to the grammar translation method also came from Vietor. He proposed a new approach to language teaching by using the spoken language as a starting point and providing descriptive phonetics. In his approach new materials were taught through gestures and pictures and through the use of words already known. The grammar was also taught but done in inductive way through the study of texts. His approach was also known the Phonetic Method or Reform Method. The methods proposed by Gouin and Vietor might have given rise to the Direct Method.

At the beginning of the twentieth the Direct Method had a definite pattern and the term "Direct Method" was established. The method maintained the principle that no use of the learners' language, the typical text started with the spoken language, and reading and writing came later. However, as the principles of the Direct Method spread there was more and more compromise with them in order to meet the growing demands for measurable standards of accuracy. The development of the principles included vocabulary exercise and systematic drills of grammar. Even, at a more advanced level translation was included. At all levels certain standards of correctness were required. Finally, the Direct Method almost lost its typical features.

The Direct Method was finally developed in different directions in different countries. In Germany, the modification of the Direct Method took a form of Eclectic Method, which was the combination of the Direct Method and the Grammar Translation Method. In England the Direct Method was widely used but people gradually drifted back to some forms of grammar translation approach. In Belgium the method had a compromise with the natural method. In the USA the Direct Method was not popular and Americans tried out the new "reform" method, a method which was similar to the Direct Method.

The Direct Method, whose objective was the ability in using the language orally, was finally reevaluated in the USA. It was believed that students only wasted their time in schools in trying to achieve something impossible: speaking in the target language. It would be useful if they learned something attainable: reading in the target language. This assumption gave a way to the Reading Method. However, the Reading Method did not last very long. The method was unsuccessful in preparing people to communicate in the target language when the USA government needed its people to master foreign languages for international communication in short time. This idea was caused by the need to make the USA Army able to speak foreign languages which were spoken in other parts of the world. This condition triggered the government to think about a new method of teaching foreign languages. In 1942 a new method was established and named the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP), or often called the Army Method. This method was the embryo of the Audio-Lingual Method.

The New Era

Teaching methods are the applications of theoretical findings; they may have developed from theories and then put into practice. The second half of the twentieth century has given new language teaching methods. One of the new methods that has been well known and used internationally is Audio-Lingual Method. It seems that the method is the only method that has been developed very well. The USA government funded the project of developing the method. Many people involved in the project. Not only language teachers but also linguists and psychologists were involved in the project. Finally, in 1960's the method was widely adopted for teaching foreign languages in

North American colleges and universities. It provided the methodological foundations for materials for the teaching of foreign languages at college and university level in the USA and Canada, and its principles formed the basis of such widely used series as the *Lado English Series and English 900* (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 48). These materials are still in use today.

Not long after the emergence of the Audio-lingual Method, some other new methods have been developed. The new methods have been developed based on theories of the language and theories of language teaching or learning. The new methods -to mention some- are the Silent Way of Gattegno, the Community Language Learning of Curran , the Total Physical Response of Asher, Suggestopedia of Lozanov and Communicative Language Teaching. It is interesting that most of the methods were developed in the USA. One of method mentioned- Suggestopedia- was developed in East European countries and one- Communicative Language Teaching- in England. At glance the new methods are different one from another, or different from the traditional methods. If we compare their underlying principles of the methods, the methods have many things in common with other methods. Or, the new methods may have been developed from the traditional methods. For example, the Silent Way and the Total Physical Response, two of the new methods, seem to share a principle that the presence of physical objects promotes learning. Also, the activities in the Total Physical response cannot be easily distinguished from those of the Gouin method, which used physical activities to present language materials. The Community Language Learning, whose language syllabus comes from the students, cannot be separated from the Unit method, which trusted its syllabus on a vote by language learners.

Teaching methods have been introduced in language teaching for a long time and they can be traced back several centuries ago. The history of language teaching methods began with grammar teaching of Latin and Greek, and then the method was improved with the introduction of translation in teaching the languages, which was popularly known as the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). The GTM was also called the Classical Methods since it was first used in the teaching of classical languages, Latin and Greek. Since Latin was learned based on written language of classical literature, The GTM ignores authentic spoken communication and social contexts of the language. This method was widely used for centuries before

the method was replaced by the Direct Method, which emphasized on the mastery of the target language for communication. Finally, the second half of the twentieth century has given new language teaching methods, namely: Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), the Silent Way, the Community Language Learning (CLL), the Total Physical Response (TPR), Suggestopedia, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and some others. Some methods may have been developed based on experience in teaching a foreign language in the past without considering theories on language teaching. Some people may disagree that such methods can be classified as methods even though some other people call them *methods*. The *methods* may be just a group of activities in teaching experience or they are just single activities in language teaching. Or, they are probably not methods but they may be assumptions in language teaching. This kind of argument may happen among language teachers since different teachers may have different perceptions towards the nature of method. In order to have similar perceptions towards the nature of method, the concepts of approach, method and technique will be discussed in the following section.

1.2   APPROACH, METHOD AND TECHNIQUE

Approach, method and technique are the three terms which are often overlapped in language teaching. People often mention one of them but they refer to another. Even, people tend to use the term method for all of the three. Some people think that they refer to the same concept: a procedure of teaching a language. Are the three terms the same or different? Anthony (cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 19) attempted to clarify this difference. According to Anthony, the three have hierarchical arrangement. Approach is the level of theories, method is the plan of language teaching which is consistent with the theories, and techniques carry out a method. In other words, the arrangement of the three is that approach is axiomatic, method is procedural and technique is implementational.

An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language and the nature of language learning and teaching. Approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language, language learning and language teaching. Different people may agree with different beliefs and assumptions dealing with the nature of language, learning and teaching.

Assumptions or beliefs may be taken for granted. People do not have to come to an agreement about the assumptions. Therefore, in language teaching there are different assumptions about language and language teaching. Richards and Rodgers (2001: 20-21) states that at least there are three different views of the nature of language, namely: the structural view, the functional view (or notional view) and the interactional view. The structural view sees language as a system of structurally related elements. The functional view regards language as a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning. This view emphasizes not only elements of grammar as the structural view does but also topics or concepts that language learners need to communicate about. The third view is the interactional view, the view that language is a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and social interactions between individuals. The three different views of the nature of language will lead people to have different assumptions about what language is and finally will produce different methods in language teaching. For example, teaching methods that have been developed based on the structural view suggest language teachers to select their teaching materials based on grammatical considerations. They will select the elements of grammar and then put them in gradation for the whole plan of their teaching. The evaluation of the teaching and learning process will also be based on grammatical point of view. In consequence, the items of the test in the evaluation will be grammatically oriented. This is also the case with other methods that have been developed based on the other two views of the nature of language.

As mentioned earlier approach also includes assumptions about language learning and language teaching. Assumptions about the nature of language in themselves are not complete and need to be supported by theories about learning or teaching. There are many theories of learning and teaching. Richards and Rodgers (2001: 22) suggest that a learning theory underlying an approach or method responds to two questions: 1) what are the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in language learning, 2) what are the conditions that need to be met in order for these learning processes to be activated. In general an approach has the answers to the two questions but certain methods may only emphasize one of the two dimensions. From assumptions about language and language learning, a method will be developed. There can be many methods within one approach.

Different methods derive from different theories or assumptions about the nature of language. The assumptions about the nature of language can be different because different people may agree with certain assumptions while some other people may agree with other assumptions. They do not have to argue why some other people agree with the assumptions that they may disagree. The assumptions below may be the common assumptions about the nature of language.

1. Language is a group of sounds with specific meanings and organized by grammatical rules (The Silent Way).
2. Language is the everyday spoken utterance of the average person at normal speed (Audio Lingual Method).
3. Language is a system for the expression of meaning (Communicative Language Teaching).
4. Language is a set of grammatical rules and language consists of language chunks (Total Physical Response).

As stated earlier, principles in teaching a foreign language are developed from an axiom about language. The following principles have been developed from an axiom that language is *a group of sounds with specific meanings and organized by grammatical rules.*

1. The syllabus is composed of linguistic structures.
2. Language is first learned as sounds and then associated with meanings.
3. The repetition of the teaching materials is based on linguistic structures.

The three principles mentioned imply that the language teaching should be presented through a syllabus that is arranged based on grammatical point of view. The presentation of materials in teaching a language is not always arranged in this way. In arranging teaching materials, there are some other ways, which are called types of syllabus. There are some types of syllabus, which have been developed from different assumptions about the nature of language, and each type of syllabus will characterize a method. The difference among them will be discussed later in this chapter.

Theories of learning and teaching also suggest the principles of a method. Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that the theories of learning and teaching may respond two questions, namely a) what are the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in language learning and b) what are the

conditions that need to be met in order for these learning processes to be activated. The following assumptions relate to theories of learning and teaching.

1. Learning is facilitated if language learners discover rather than repeat and remember without understanding what is to be learned (Silent Way).
2. Learning involves the unconscious functions, as well as the conscious functions (Suggestopedia).
3. The norms of the society often block the process of learning (Suggestopedia).
4. Language learning will take place if language learners maintain their feeling of security (Community Language Learning).
5. Language learning is a process of habit formation (Audio Lingual Method).

Assumptions about learning and teaching, which have been developed from theories in psychology, seem to develop faster than those about the nature of language. The assumptions about learning mentioned above are not the only assumptions about learning. There are still some other assumptions that may be different from one another; even one may be contradictory to another. Together with the assumptions about the nature of language, the assumptions about learning will differentiate one method from another. Some methods may have similar assumptions, while some other methods have different assumptions.

How an assumption about language learning will be developed into the principles of a method will be presented as follows. For example, people who believe with an assumption that *learning is facilitated if language learners discover rather than repeat and remember without understanding what is to be learned* may develop the following principles.

1. Language is taught with physical objects.
2. Language is presented by problem solving involving the material to be learned.
3. Meaning is made clear by providing contexts, not through translation.
4. The students are provided with a lot of practice without emphasizing repetition.

The assumption about language learning that has been developed into the four principles may be developed into other principles depending on the teacher's creativity and experience. The principles mentioned above are examples of how an approach is developed into principles that finally characterize a method in teaching a foreign language. Since there are many assumptions in language teaching, there are also many methods that people may agree or disagree.

As stated before, approach is the level of theories and method is the plan of language teaching that is consistent with the theories. Method should come after approach because the plan of language teaching should be developed from theories on the nature of language and language learning. Then, what does the term "method" mean? "Method" may mean different things to different people (Mackey, 1975: 155). For some, it means a set of teaching procedures; for others, the avoidance of teaching procedures. For some, it is the primary of a language skill; for others, it is the type and amount of vocabulary and structure. Different meanings of "method" can be inferred from the names of the methods. The term "method" in the Direct Method may refer to a single aspect of language teaching: presentation of material. "Method" in the Reading Method refers to the emphasis of a single language skill: reading, while in the Grammar Translation Method "method" refers to the emphasis of the teaching materials.

According to Mackey (1975: 157), all teaching, whether good or bad, must include some sort of *selection*, some sort of *gradation*, some sort of *presentation*, and some sort of *repetition*. It includes selection because we cannot teach the whole aspects of language; we have to select the part that we wish to teach. It includes gradation because we cannot teach all of what we have selected at once; we have to put something one after another. It also includes presentation because we cannot teach the language without communicating it to other people; we have to present what we have selected to others. Finally it includes repetition because we cannot make other people learn the language without repeating the materials they are learning; we have to teach language skills with practice; all skills depend on practice. Therefore, all methods should include the four steps of teaching a language. Any method should include the four steps: selection, gradation, presentation and repetition. Some "methods" may include only one or two

of the four steps. Such "methods" may not be regarded as methods. They may refer only to teaching techniques. They may refer to techniques of selecting language materials, such as the Grammar Method or the Reading Method. Those "methods" do not include selection, gradation, presentation and repetition of language materials. Some of the "methods" may not be considered as methods, in the sense that they do not include all of the four steps mentioned above. Following the discussion above, many traditional methods may be considered techniques; they may be techniques of selecting materials, techniques of presenting materials, or techniques of evaluating the materials that have been learned.

A method, which is developed based on some assumptions of an approach, includes the whole plan for the presentation of language materials. Since the plan is developed based on the same assumptions, no part of the plan contradicts and all parts make a unity. The unity of a method makes the method distinctive. Even though some assumptions of two different methods may derive from the same theories, some other assumptions may be developed from different theories. How little the difference is will make the unity of a method different from others. To mention some, the methods that have the whole plan for the presentation of language materials are Audio Lingual Method, Direct Method, Silent Way, Total Physical Response, Community Language Learning, and Suggestopedia. Another way of looking at method in language teaching has also been suggested by Richards and Rodgers (2001). They state that at the level of design the objectives of language teaching, language syllabus, content are determined. At the level of design the roles of language teachers, instructional materials are also specified. A method is theoretically related to an approach, organized by the design, and practically realized in procedure. Using Richards and Rodgers' terms, method includes approach, design and procedure. Even though their description of method is different from Anthony's, basically the two are similar, in the sense that a method should include assumptions about language and language learning, and it will be realized in a set of techniques of presenting materials to language learners, which is often called procedure. The difference between methods can be easily observed from their techniques. What is a technique then? The following discussion will describe what is meant by technique.

As mentioned earlier, a technique is implementational, meaning that a technique is something that actually takes place in language teaching or learning in the classroom. All activities that take place in a language class are techniques. The following are some examples of techniques in error correction.

1. The teacher does not praise or criticize so that language learners learn to rely on themselves (Silent Way).
2. The teacher often praises when a student has made a good thing in learning (Audio Lingual Method).
3. When a student has produced a wrong expression, the teacher just repeats the right one (Total Physical Response).
4. The teacher does not care when a student makes an error as long as it does not hinder communication (Natural Method).

Techniques are not exclusive to certain methods. To some extent, different methods may have some similar techniques even though they must have other different techniques. Language teachers may develop their own techniques as long as the techniques are still consistent with the assumptions or theories of the methods from which the techniques derive. Techniques not only include the presentation of language material but also the repetition of the material. Therefore, the position of a technique is at the implementation phase and it is often called *procedure* while approach and method are at the level of *design* (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 20). Since techniques are also developed from an assumption (s) about the nature of language, they will also deal with how the teaching materials are selected, which is often called *syllabus*. Language syllabus will guide language teachers to decide what to teach (selection), the order in which it is taught (gradation), how meaning or forms are conveyed (presentation), and what to be done to master a language (repetition). Since language syllabus is essential in understanding teaching methods, which will be presented in the next modules, types of language syllabus are discussed in this module.

There are at least six types of language syllabus (Reily, 1988). The difference is shown basically based on the criteria for grading and sequencing the units of second language classroom activity. There are options in the units to be adopted. Units can be based on an analysis of the language to be learned, in terms of grammatical structures or of lexical items. Units may also

be based on an analysis of the components of skilled behavior in the second language. Following are the six types that are commonly implemented in language learning.

1. A structural syllabus. The content of the language teaching is a collection of the forms and structures of the language being taught. Examples include nouns, verbs, adjectives, statements, questions, subordinate clauses, and so on.
2. A notional/functional syllabus. The content of the language teaching is a collection of the functions or the notions that are performed when the language is used. A notional syllabus may cover functions of the language such as greeting, apologizing, requesting and informing, and it may include the notions of language such as age, color, comparison and time.
3. A situational syllabus. The content of the language teaching is a collection of imaginary situations where the language is used. A situational syllabus may include at a restaurant, at school, meeting a new neighbor and seeing a doctor.
4. A skill-based syllabus. The content of the language teaching is a collection of specific skills in using the target language. Examples of skills in using the target language may include reading for the main idea, writing good paragraphs, and listening for the main idea.
5. A task-based syllabus. The content of the language teaching includes a series of purposeful tasks that language learners need to perform; tasks are defined as activities that are needed when using the target language. Examples of a task-based syllabus may include applying for a job, ordering food via the telephone and getting housing information over the telephone.
6. A content-based syllabus. A content-based syllabus in language teaching is actually not a language syllabus. The primary purpose of instruction is to teach some subjects or information using the target language. The subject is primary and language learning occurs automatically while language learners are studying the subject. An example of a content-based syllabus is a science class that is taught in the target language.

The choice of a syllabus is a major decision. Even though there are six types language syllabus, in practice, there are combinations of two or

more of the types discussed above. The choice really depends on the method that has been developed based an assumption about the nature of language. Besides determining the type of language syllabus, assumptions both about language and language learning in approach also determine the roles of language teachers and language learners.

The roles of language teacher are also regarded as techniques, which have been developed based on assumptions introduced in approach . As discussed earlier, the assumptions about the nature of language and the assumptions about language learning will determine all plans of the language teaching, which is called a method. How an approach views the nature of language will determine how a language teacher should perform his or her roles. And, how an approach believes about the conditions that promote language learning will also determine the roles of language teachers. Principally, language teachers have two functions: the instructional function and the managerial function (Wright, 1987: 52). The two functions complement each other; the former would be more or less impossible without the latter. In practice, it is difficult to separate the two and language teachers can perform both functions simultaneously. Some methods may suggest the language teachers to perform the instructional function more than the managerial one, while some other methods may encourage the language teachers to function as the manager of the classroom more. In some methods the role of a language teacher is very dominant while in some other methods the teacher role is less dominant in instructional strategies. As stated in Richards and Rodgers, (2001: 28), some methods are totally dependent on the teacher as a source of knowledge and direction; others see the teacher's role as catalyst, consultant, guide, and model for learning. Understanding the roles of language teachers will be important for understanding the methods, which will be discussed in most of the next chapters. Following are the most common roles of language teachers, which are implemented in different methods.

1. Language teacher functions as an organizer in the classroom. The teacher maintains discipline to the extent that an effective learning atmosphere is established. It can be done by involving the learners more actively in the classroom activities that demand inter-student communication and co-operative efforts.

2. Language teacher functions as a counselor. The teacher role is to respond the learners' problems nonjudgmentally and help the learners to reach what they want to learn.
3. Language teacher functions as a motivator; the language teacher gives praise and encouragement for positive efforts by the learners. It can be done by giving positive feedback on returned assignments.
4. Language teacher functions as an observer. The teacher shows the errors that the learners have produced and let the learners work on the correction.
5. Language teacher functions as a model for producing correct expressions and judges whether the learners' contributions to the learning process and their efforts are relevant and correct.
6. Language teacher functions as a resource of knowledge and direction. The teacher establishes a position of dominance over the learners in selecting the materials to learn and also how to acquire them.

The teacher role will determine the role of language learners automatically. When a language teacher is very dominant, language learners will be less dominant in learning teaching interaction. Some methods have been criticized for making language learners stimulus-response mechanisms whose learning is a result of repetition. Language learners will be more active in learning when a language teacher can be less silent in the classroom. The role relationship of language learner and teacher are many and varied from one method to another. Some methods suggest that they should be in an equal position but in some other methods the role of the language teacher is regarded as the primary source of skills and knowledge in language learning. Johnson and Paulston (cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 28) suggest five possible learner roles that can make language learners more autonomous. Following are the roles of language learners, which are suggested by advocates of different methods.

1. Learners plan their own learning program and thus ultimately assume responsibility for what they do in the classroom.
2. Learners monitor and evaluate their own progress.
3. Learners are members of a group and learn by interacting with others.
4. Learners tutor other learners.

5. Learners learn from the teacher, from other students, and from other teaching sources.

A number of ways of conceptualizing approaches, methods and techniques may have been proposed. Different people may have different ways of conceptualizing them. Understanding how people conceptualize the terms will provide language teachers with a clearer picture of language teaching methods. This understanding may avoid the teachers from misunderstanding the concepts among themselves. Following certain methods, language teachers may be expected to develop their own techniques by considering the underlying principles of the methods. Approaches and methods are relatively permanent but techniques may be adapted to the environment of the language learners and language teachers. The procedure of a method, which comprises a set of techniques, may not be fixed even though the assumptions of an approach and the basic principles of a method are relatively fixed.

1.3   ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE AND ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

Language teaching is influenced by ideas on the nature of language (language theories) and the learning conditions that make learners to acquire the language (learning theories). Differences in language theories may affect the selection of the teaching materials and differences in learning theories may affect the teaching methods. A method that is based on the assumption that we learn another language as a child learns his native language (L1) will differ from one based on the assumption that learning a foreign language is not the same as learning a mother tongue. It may be argued that the actual teaching of English in Indonesia may differ from the English teaching in Malaysia or teaching English in the United States of America, in which people should learn English in the conditions where the language is used for communication in their daily lives. Some people prefer to call the former *learning English as a foreign language and the latter learning English as a second language*.

Not all people agree with the distinction between *second language* and *foreign language*. Dulay, Burt, Krashen (1982) states that second language acquisition includes learning a new language in a foreign language context

(e.g. English in Mexico or German in the United States) as well as learning a new language in a host language environment (e.g. German in German). They use the term *second language* (L2) to refer to both foreign and host languages and the teaching methods apply to the acquisition of both (1982: 11). It implies that the way to teach English as a second language is not necessarily different from the way to teach English as a foreign language, and whether English is learned in Indonesia or in Malaysia, English is called the *target language* (TL).

Even though they seem not to agree the distinction between second language and foreign language, Krashen (1985: 8) differentiates the two different ways of gaining a target language. He states that there are two ways of developing ability in a target language: "acquisition" and "learning". Acquisition is defined as a subconscious process that is identical to the process used in first language acquisition in all important ways, while learning is defined as conscious knowing about a target language. While *acquisition* is taking place, language learners are not always aware of the results; they are not very concerned with grammatical rules and error correction. They are gaining a target language by living in the society where the language is used in their daily lives. When language learners talk about the rules of a target language, they correct errors, and people in the society do not speak the target language, they are *learning* the target language.

English is learned in Indonesia by talking about the grammatical rules of English and errors are always corrected. For language learners in Indonesia, where English is not spoken in the society, accuracy is really the focus in learning English. It is not the case when people learn English in countries where English is spoken in the society, such as in the United States or Malaysia. People in those countries emphasize on the ability and fluency in communications of daily lives; they acquire English because they are exposed to the language in the society. They are not always aware of the process of gaining the language. Referring to the theory of gaining a target language mentioned above, the process of gaining English in Indonesia is regarded more as *learning* while in Malaysia more as *acquisition*. Even though some people may disagree with the distinction between the term *second language* and *foreign language*, it is not denied that the status of English in Indonesia is different from that in Malaysia. In Malaysia English is gained

in the society where the people speak the language; in Malaysia English is a *second* language. In Indonesia English is learned only at schools and people do not speak the language in the society. English is really a *foreign* language for language learners in Indonesia. The discussion on the differences between learning a target language in L1 environment and in L2 environment is also proposed by Els et al (1984: 36), as shown below.

L2 learning in L1 environment	L2 learning in L2 environment
guided learning	unguided learning
tutored learning	untutored learning
formal learning	spontaneous/ naturalistic learning
foreign language learning	second language learning
learning	acquisition

Whether people learn English as a second language or a foreign language, they are learning a target language. The learning of the target language can take on a variety of patterns. Dozens of factors are involved and it is doubtful whether we can make it possible to propose a complete analysis of all the factors. Nevertheless, there are sorts of opinions and beliefs on what influence language learning. Mackey (1975: 108-124) suggests that there are three main influences that determine the learning, namely linguistic, social and psycho logical influences. The three influences may make the teaching of English as a second language or as a foreign language different. In the following section, the three influences will be discussed and the ideas presented here are adapted from Mackey (1975).

Linguistic

Process and progress in learning a target language may depend on (1) how the target language differs from the mother tongue and (2) how much the mother tongue interferes with the target language.

Differences

Each language is unique and each has its own system. A language is always different from others even though the language may be similar to some languages. The differences between the target language and the mother

tongue may be in the realm of grammar, phonology, vocabulary, stylistics and graphics. Differences in each realm may cause different problems in learning another language. The more different the target language is from the mother tongue, the more problems language learners may face in learning the target language.

Because of differences in grammar language learners may find it difficult to understand the systems of the target language. Language learners whose mother tongue has no tenses tend to have more difficulties in learning a target language which has tenses. For most Indonesians, English tends to be very difficult because the Indonesian language has no tenses that are similar to the tenses of English.

Differences in phonology may cause difficulties in producing sounds in the target language and in combining the sounds. For example, some Indonesian learners find it difficult to pronounce the word "she"; they tend to produce the pronunciation for the word "sea" or "see".

In the realm of vocabulary, the difficulty of a target language depends on the number of words which are similar to the words in their mother tongue. If the mother tongue of the language learners has a large number of words which are similar or the same as the words found in the target language, the language learners may find it easier to learn the target language.

A language learner whose culture is similar to the culture of the target language may find it less difficult to understand the contexts in which the target language is used. Learning another language cannot be separated from learning its culture. Difficulties in understanding another culture may also cause difficulties in learning the language in which the culture lives.

In the field of graphics some language learners are more handicapped than other learners because their language has a different way of how the language is written. There are many ways of how languages are written; some languages are more alphabetical, for example Indonesian, and some other languages are not alphabetical, for example Chinese. In learning English, Indonesian learners may find it easier to understand English words than Chinese learners.

Interference

When people learn another language, their mother tongue sometimes interferes with the target language. This phenomenon is often called interference. Interference is often caused by the similarities between their mother tongue and the target language. How their mother tongue interferes with a new language depends on whether they are learning to speak the new language or simply they are learning to understand the language by listening and reading. The possibility of transfer from L1 can be negative or positive interference.

If they are learning to speak the target language, the similarities between the two languages may cause much difficulty. They will use their knowledge of their mother tongue and based on the knowledge they may produce utterances which do not exist in the target language (Dickerson, 1975: 405). The negative interference may result in errors but learners' errors are not necessarily caused by the interference of their mother tongue. Different people may have proposed different classifications of errors (Corder, 1974 and Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982); the following types of errors and their examples are taken from Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982:154-162)

a. Omission: the absence of an item(s) that must appear in a well-formed utterance
    Example : Mary president new company*

b. Double markings: the failure to delete certain items which are required in some linguistic construction
    Example : He doesn't knows my name*

c. Regularization: applying the rules used to produce the regular ones to those that are irregular.
    Example : He eated ten apples yesterday*

d. Simple addition: the presence of an item which should not appear in a well-formed utterance.
    Example : The fishes doesn't live in the water*

e. Misformation: the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure.
    Example : hisself* (himself)

f. Archi-form: the selection of one member of a class of forms to represent others in the class.
    Example : this dogs*

g   Misordering: the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance.
    Example : He is all the time late*

On the other hand, if they are learning to understand the new language by listening or reading, the similarities between the two languages will make them easier to understand the new language. The similarities can be an advantage for language learners.

Social

Since language is essentially social phenomenon, the social influences on language learning are numerous and interrelated in complex ways. There are some contacts that are classified under social factors that influence the process of language learning; they are home, community, occupation, school, religious meeting, radio/television, and reading matters. These contacts make differences between English learned as a foreign language and learned as a second language, and community seems to be the contact that most differentiates the target language as a second language and the target language as a foreign language.

The people with whom we continually use a target language have some effect on the manner and skill with which we use the language. Language learners can meet with the people and community. The community is very important for the learning and maintenance of a language. A learner of a target language who has no contact with a community in which the language is spoken will have more possible failure to learn or maintain his/her target language. Learning a target language only inside the classroom is quite different from the natural ways of learning. The process of learning a target language in the classroom is dominated by the teacher. The teacher becomes the only member of the community of the target language. Language learners almost find it impossible to be involved in social activities where the target language is used. Language teaching classrooms spend more time to deal with the knowledge of the target language: grammatical rules and grammar correction. It is different from the conditions in which the target language

is learned as a second language; language learners really make use of the target language in natural situations.The naturalness of using the language is one of the important factors that plays an important role in the success of learning the target language, and the naturalness is likely to be found in the community in which the target language is used in daily communications.

There is a general assumption that the learning which takes place in natural and educational settings is very different in nature and natural settings lead to higher levels of L2 proficiency than educational settings (Ellis, 1996; 214-215). In natural settings informal learning occurs while formal learning occurs through conscious attention to rules and principles and greater emphasis is placed on the mastery of the language as a subject matter. Consequently, second language acquisition results in native-like use of the target language, while foreign language learning does not.

Psychological

Second (foreign) language learners can differ in many ways. Skehan (1989: 4) states some of the psychological differences of learners include age, intelligence, aptitude, motivation, attitude, personality, and cognitive styles. We will limit ourselves to a discussion of motivation and attitude since the two differences of language learners belong to affective characteristics of language learners (Els et al, 1984: 115). The two affective characteristics are often considered non-innate differences, which can be learned by language learners or conditioned by language teachers so that language teachers can provide language learners with conditions that are needed for effective language learning.

Motivation

The role of motivation in learning a foreign language is not in question; many studies of the relationship between motivation and language achievement, for example, Lukmani (1972) and Olshtain et al.(1990) have shown evidence of the relationship between them. Nevertheless, different results have been provided about the role of motivation in language learning and different studies have also proposed different types of motivation. Studies on the role of attitudes and motivation in foreign language learning have been dominantly inspired by Gardner and Lambert (1972). Gardner and

Lambert classify motivation in learning a foreign language under two types. The first is *integrative motivation*, motivation to integrate to another culture, and the second is *instrumental motivation*, motivation to acquire a language as a means for attaining instrumental goals: furthering career, getting a job, and so forth. Both may exist before the learners decide to learn another language. The studies on motivation, however, have arrived at different presentation of findings in relation to language learning. Some studies (Wen and Johnson, 1997 and Olshtain, Shohamy, Kemp and Chatow (1990) have shown that motivation, with other L2 learner variables, has a direct effect on English proficiency. They have uncovered that the correlation between motivation and achievement in English is strong and shows that motivation affects achievement on an English test.

Attitude

Many studies on attitude have referred to the findings of Thurstone's study conducted in 1946. In his study, he defines attitude as the intensity of positive or negative affect for or against a psychological object. Attitude is a relatively constant system of evaluative processes towards an object(s) based on what individuals have learned in previous settings. The affective evaluation towards an object may range along a continuum from positive values to negative values. Baker (1992, p. 29) states that language attitude is an umbrella term, under which resides a variety of specific terms, such as attitude to language groups, to language lesson, and to the uses of specific language. Related to teaching English as a second/foreign language, there may be three types of attitude: 1) attitudes to English, 2) attitudes to English as a subject to be learned, and 3) attitudes to native speakers of English (Setiyadi, 1999). Each of them can be separated and measured differently. Attitude in learning a target language may affect motivation in learning the language; motivation can mediate any relation between language attitudes and language achievement.

It seems reasonable to argue that learning English as a second language is different from learning English as a foreign language, even though both refer to the target language. Learning English as a second language is often regarded as an unconscious process of acquiring the language (acquisition) while learning English as a foreign language refers to a conscious process of

acquiring the language (learning). Two different types of process of acquiring the target language may produce different problems and finally provide different opportunities for learning success. The problems and the progress in learning the language may depend on the factors that language learners have. The three factors: linguistic, social and psychological factors may be the ones that play important roles in determining the success in learning English, either as a second language or foreign language.

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2

GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD AND DIRECT METHOD

2.1 BACKGROUND OF GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

The first concern with language teaching method had to do with the teaching of Latin and Greek grammars. The methods used at that time were mostly designed to enable people to speak, read and write Latin. All of the methods were related to the method which was popularly known as the Grammar Method. With the invention of printing the reproduction of Greek and Latin classics became easy, and, therefore, the Grammar Method was no longer effective to teach the languages. There were a number of attempts to improve the teaching of the languages. One attempt was suggested by Meidenger (1783), who advocated translation into the target language through the application of rules of grammar. Karl Plotz (1819-1881) also improved the teaching method; his method was divided into two parts: (1) rules and paradigms, and (2) sentences for translation into and out of the target language. His method also included rote learning of grammar rules, learning to put grammatical labels on words, and learning to apply the rules by translating sentences. This way of teaching was finally called the Grammar Translation Method (GTM).

Since Latin was learned based on written language of classical literature, The GTM ignores authentic spoken communication and social contexts of the language. It was also hoped that, through the study of the grammar of the target language, students would become familiar with the grammar of their native language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 11). The fundamental purpose

people learned a foreign language was to be able to read literature that was written in the foreign language so that the students were provided with exercises to read and write in the foreign language. The GTM was widely used in the USA in 1890's. It was also called the Classical Method since it was first used in the teaching of classical languages, Latin and Greek.

2.2   ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

The GTM embraces a wide range of approaches but, broadly speaking, teaching the target language is seen as a mental discipline even though it is often claimed that the goal of the language teaching is to be able to read literature in its original form. With regard to the nature of language and language learning, GTM has different points of view from modern methods. The following are assumptions about language and language learning that the GTM embraces:

1. Through the GTM language is believed to consist of written words and of words which exist in isolation; they are individual words which can be translated one by one into their foreign equivalents and then assessed according to grammatical rules into sentences in the foreign language. Vocabulary in the target language is learned through direct translation from the mother tongue. Readings in the target language are translated directly and then discussed in the native language.

2. In language teaching what should be taught is not the language itself but the faculty of logical thought and provided valuable mental discipline. This is often criticized because IQ of average school children is not high enough to cope with this method. Through this method teaching the target language relies very much on cognitive ability.

3. The medium of instruction is the mother tongue, which is used to explain conceptual problems and to discuss the use of particular grammatical structure. Using the mother tongue for the purpose of instruction is believed to give language learners a set of clear objectives and a clear sense of achievement. Language learners also need sense of security and the use of the mother tongue provides the security since the language learners can easily understand most of the instruction.

4. Learning a foreign language needs feeling secure and this condition may take place whenever language learners know how to say in the target language. This assumption may suggest that grammar teaching is needed in order that learners know how words are arranged to express their ideas. In a situation where English is learned as a foreign language students often do not feel secure when they are not sure whether what they express is right or not.

2.3 PRINCIPLES OF GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

A fundamental purpose of teaching the target language through the GTM is to be able to read literature written in the target language. This purpose can be reached by learning about the grammar rules and vocabulary of the target language. It is also believed that studying a foreign language provides students with good mental exercise which helps develop students' minds.

Principally, the GTM focuses on translating grammatical forms, memorizing vocabulary, learning rules, and studying conjugations. Even though the method may be considered more as a technique rather a method, to follow Anthony's terms, in the sense that the method is not an overall plan of language teaching, the method also has principles regarding to language teaching. The principles of the GTM are these:

1. Grammar rules are presented and studied explicitly. Grammar is taught deductively and then practiced through translation exercises.
2. The primary skills to be developed are reading and writing.
3. Hardly any attention is paid to speaking and listening skills.
4. Teacher correction is the only way to make students produce the right forms of the foreign language.
5. The goal of foreign language learning is the ability to understand the texts written in the foreign language.
6. Mastering the grammar of the foreign language is essential in order for students to understand the written target language.
7. Vocabulary is learnt from bilingual word lists.
8. The mother tongue is used as the medium of instruction.
9. A paramount use of translation exercises is given.

The procedure of teaching English is simply a combination of activities of teaching grammar and translation. The teaching begins with English rules, isolated vocabulary items, paradigms and translation. The teacher explains the rules in students' first language and then simple words are put into slots of grammatical rules. The grammar rules are memorized as units. The teacher provides the class with other words and the translation. The students, then, practice using the rules by using the words provided. The students are expected to be conscious of the grammatical rules of the target language. The texts to translate are usually easy classics; this type of texts is used to have students practice understanding the literature in the target language. The students should memorize lists of words.

Language materials are arranged based on grammar of English. Usually, the sequence of the teaching materials is based on the easiness of the rules. Its grammatical syllabus is graded from the easy grammatical rules to more difficult ones. Very little teaching is done in the target language. Even though reading texts are written in the target language and translated directly into the mother tongue, the discussion is conducted in the mother tongue. Vocabulary in the target language is learned through direct translation from the native language.

Language learners are not expected to be able to use the target language for communication. No class time is allocated to allow language learners to produce their own sentences and little time is spent on oral practice. The emphasis on achieving correct grammar with little regard for the free application and production of speech is the greatest weakness of this method. The way of teaching also affects the way of evaluating students' learning. Evaluating or testing of the learners is done almost exclusively through translation. Or, language learners are prepared to have a grammar test only.

2.4   PROCEDURES OF GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

Even though many new methods have been introduced to this day, the GTM remains a standard methodology for teaching English for some teachers. Prator and Murcia (cited in Brown, 1987: 75) list the major characteristics of the GTM, as follows:

1. Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.
2. Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.
3. Long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.
4. Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.
5. Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early.
6. Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.
7. Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.
8. Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.
9. The focus is on accuracy, and not fluency.

The characteristics mentioned above are not a set of procedures of the GTM. Language teachers may develop their own procedures as long as they are in accordance with the characteristics of the GTM. The following procedure of teaching the target language through the GTM is adapted from Larsen-Freeman (2000: 15-17).

1. The class reads a text written in the target language.
2. Students translate the passage from the target language to their mother tongue.
3. The teacher asks students in their native language if they have any questions, students ask questions and the teacher answers the questions in their native language.
4. Students write out the answers to reading comprehension questions.
5. Students translate new words from the target language to their mother tongue.
6. Students are given a grammar rule and based on the example they apply the rule by using the new words.
7. Students memorize vocabulary.
8. The teacher asks students to state the grammar rule.
9. Students memorize the rule.
10. Errors are corrected by providing the right answers.

Example of lesson planning of the GTM:

Selected Lesson Plan: Simple Present Tense

The teacher introduces the formula of Simple Present Tense and explains (in Indonesian) the usage as well as the importance of Simple Present Tense. The teacher points out differences to Indonesian language.

Formula: Subject (noun)+ Predicate (Verb[1st]) +Object (noun)

The teacher provides the examples and their translation as well. Or, depending on the level of comprehension, he/she either calls randomly to have students translate the sentences or give them time to work quietly writing out the translations. He/she has to make sure that the students' answers are correct.

Examples:

1. I love her (*saya mencintai dia*).
2. You watch football every day (*kamu menonton sepak bola setiap hari*).
3. We study English (*kita belajar bahasa Inggris*).

The teacher explains (again in Indonesian) to students the change of the verb of the predicate. *If the subject is **she, he** or **it**, the verb is added with **s, es** or **ies**, depending on the verb.* The teacher gives examples of verbs that can be added with **s, es** and **ies**.

Examples:

1. He loves rice (*dia senang nasi*). The verb is added with **s**.
2. He watches football everyday (*dia menonton sepak bola setiap hari*). The verb is added with **es**.
3. She studies English every night (*ia belajar Bahasa Inggris setiap malam*). The verb is added with **ies**.

The teacher gives an exercise that is related to the change of the verbs. Students should fill in the blanks with the appropriate forms. If necessary, he/she lets students work individually or in pairs to complete the exercise first. He/she walks around and observes the students. He/she answers questions and provides corrections where needed. Again, discussion is conducted in the mother tongue.

Example:

1. The baby …(cry) every night.
2. My mother …(cook) rice very well.
3. The students …(study) mathematics.
4. My father …(laugh) very happily.
5. We …(live) in Indonesia.

Then, he/she introduces a list of vocabulary and the equivalent translation in order that the students can practice making sentences in simple present tense. This may be done by introducing a matrix as follows.

Vocabulary

Kata ganti (untuk subyek)		Kata ganti (untuk obyek)	
English	**Indonesian**	**English**	**Indonesian**
I	Saya	Me	Saya
You	Kamu	You	kamu
He	Dia (laki-laki)	Him	dia (laki-laki)
She	Dia (perempuan)	Her	dia (perempuan)
We	Kita/kami	Us	kita/kami
They	Mereka	Them	mereka
It	Benda (tunggal)	It	benda (tunggal)

Kata kerja transitif		Kata kerja intransitif	
English	**Indonesian**	**English**	**Indonesian**
Love	Mencintai	Sleep	Tidur
Watch	Menonton	Smile	Tersenyum
Study	Belajar	Laugh	Tertawa
Hate	Membenci	Cry	Menangis
Drink	Minum	Walk	Berjalan
Eat	Makan	Sit down	Duduk
Like	Suka	Stand up	Berdiri

Terjemahkan kalimat-kalimat di bawah ini ke dalam Bahasa Inggris!

1. Mereka membenci kita.
2. Kita makan setiap hari.

3. Dia tertawa dan kamu menangis
4. Saya suka Bahasa Inggris.
5. Kita tidur setiap malam.
6. Mereka duduk tetapi kita berdiri.
7. Kita makan nasi setiap hari.
8. Kamu tersenyum dan saya tertawa.
9. Mereka suka nasi tetapi saya suka roti.
10. Kita berjalan setiap hari.

The teacher may have students translate sentences from English to Indonesian. This exercise is then continued by introducing a simple reading passage for translation. No class time is allocated to allow students to produce their own sentences, and even less time is spent on oral practice. The reading is sometimes used to communicate the culture of the target language.

Even though the GTM is regarded an old method, the method is still widely used in Indonesia, particularly, at schools in rural places. Some English teachers still like to teach English through the GTM. It seems that they prefer to use the method to other well- developed methods because it is easier to present language materials in classroom and to evaluate the process of language teaching. Classroom management is also not a problem since language teachers can teach English to a class of 40 students sitting in rows.

Language learning is evaluated by giving items of grammatical units to the class and scores are based on right answers of the test. Many teachers believe that their teaching should be test oriented; they expect that their students will do their best in a test, which is sometimes grammar oriented. This is understandable since many standardized tests of languages still do not tap into communicative abilities so students have little motivation to go beyond grammar analogies, translation and rote learning (Brown, 1987: 75).

The reason why the method is still widely practiced is that through the method teachers with a little English proficiency can teach the language. Fluency in English is not required to language teachers since through the GTM the teachers teach English in students' first language. English is taught as knowledge like other subjects of the school. Since the method emphasizes on grammar rather and translation, students are not expected to use the

language as means of communication. Translation is taught to accompany the grammar of English.

It can also be argued that without knowledge of grammatical basis of the target language learners are in possession of nothing more than a selection of communicative phrases which are perfectly adequate for basic communication but which will be found wanting when they are required to perform any kind of sophisticated linguistic task (Macmillan, 2002). The combination of the principles of the GTM and the principles of the Communicative Approach, which will be discussed in Chapter 8, will be the perfect combination. On one hand language learners are encouraged to learn to communicate in the target language and, on the other, they also acquire a sound and accurate basis in the grammar of the target language. This combination may be closely related to the concept of the weak version of communicative approach (Howart in Richards and Rodgers, 2000: 155), which stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and attempt such activities arranged in a structural syllabus. The structural syllabus does not necessarily mean that the language learning is grammar oriented but the syllabus only tells us how the learning materials are arranged.

By emphasizing the accuracy and then continuing on the fluency of using English, the combination of the GTM and the weak version of the communicative approach is likely to be a solution to the problem of learning English as a foreign language in Indonesia. Indonesian learners of English still need the mastery of the English grammar in order for them to feel secure in using English for communication. The fluency building can be emphasized after the students have been provided with enough practice of mastering the English grammar for the purpose of accuracy. The typical procedure of the GTM addressed earlier can be continued with the activity that emphasizes the use of English communicatively. The activity for emphasizing the fluency after the students have learned the pattern of simple present tense may be done by working in-groups or in pairs. The teacher may ask the students to take turns talking about their daily activities. The following instruction may be used to build the fluency of the target language.

Get into groups of two. Tell your partner what you do everyday and make up questions to ask your partner. Ask questions using the cues below.

1. To get up at …
2. To eat … for breakfast
3. To have breakfast at…
4. To go to school by …
5. To arrive home from school at …
6. etc.

Even though the GTM is often considered as an "old-fashioned method", it is claimed that the GTM has had a remarkable success (Macmillan: 2002). Millions people have successfully learnt foreign languages to a high degree of proficiency and, in numerous cases, without contact with native speakers of the target language. This success might have been the role of the combination of the GTM and the weak version of the communicative approach. The GTM can give learners a basic foundation upon which language learners can then build their communicative skills through the communicative approach. The GTM may function as a method which encourages the accuracy of the target language while the communicative approach emphasizes the fluency of the target language, which has been learned through the GTM.

As its name suggests, the major characteristic of the GTM is a focus on learning the rules of grammar and their application in translation passages from one language into the other. The GTM is simply a combination of the Grammar Method and the Translation Method. The main principles of the method are as follows: The grammar taught is formal grammar. Vocabulary in the target language is learned through direct translation from the native language. The vocabulary depends on the texts selected. The teaching begins with rules, isolated vocabulary items, paradigms and translation. Easy classics are then translated. Vocabulary is divided into lists of words. The words are to be memorized. Pronunciation is not taught. Grammar rules are also memorized as units and illustrative sentences are often provided.

Fluency in English is not very required to language teachers since through the GTM the teachers teach English in students' first language. English is taught as knowledge like other subjects of the school. Consequently, language learning is evaluated by giving items of grammatical units to the class and scores are based on right answers of the test. Language learners are often prepared to have a grammar test only. Testing of the learners may

be done through translation, either form the target language to their mother tongue or vice versa.

The GTM has produced generations of students who can master the grammar of the target language, yet can not engage in simple conversations. Even though the method is believed to be ineffective to teach the target language communicatively, the method is still in use in some parts of Indonesia. It is believed that the method can develop students' writing skill. For students who respond well to rules, structures, and error correction, the GTM can provide a challenging learning process but for those students who do not respond well to such a learning process, the language class taught through this method may be boring. However, combining the principles of the GTM with the Communicative Approach may well be the perfect combination for many language learners. They will learn to communicate in the target language and also acquire a sound and accurate basis in the grammar of the target language.

2.5   BACKGROUND OF DIRECT METHOD

The Direct Method is a method of language teaching associated with Francois Gouin and Charles Berlitz. The method came about as much needed replacement for the Grammar Translation Method. The history of the method took a long way before it had its relatively typical features. At first the method was given different names in different countries and the sort of teaching engendered by the Direct Method was quite different among the countries. A brief story of the birth of the method adapted from Mackey (1975: 143-148) is presented here.

A long before Direct Method was widely used, there were a lot of reactions against the teaching of grammar through explanation and translation. One of The first extreme reactions was the idea that the target language was taught through inductive grammar by using texts written in the target language. With the coming of the inductive teaching of grammar, the Grammar Translation Method became an end.

In the latter half of the nineteenth century, there was a movement that advocated the abolition of translation and grammar, and the teaching of the target language through abundant listening. This way of teaching was then

improved by adding physical activity in presenting language materials. One of the pioneers of this movement was Gouin of France. He applied principles of modern psychology to the learning of languages; he implemented the principles of the association of ideas, visualization, learning through senses, centers of interest, play and activity in familiar everyday situations. This way of teaching gave rise to the Direct Method movement.

Although Direct Method was introduced in France, the method was first ignored in the country. The method found some support in Germany, Scandinavia, and finally people in France accepted the method at the turn of the century. Later, the method was also developed in England and the United States. Since the method was developed in different countries, the language teaching engendered by this method was at first disorganized and different people tried to understand the ideas introduced by Gouin in different ways.

The Direct Method was finally developed in different directions in different countries. In Germany, the modification of the Direct Method took a form of Eclectic Method, which was the combination of the Direct Method and the Grammar Translation Method. In England the Direct Method was widely used but people gradually drifted back to some forms of grammar translation approach. In Belgium the method had a compromise with the natural method. In the USA the Direct Method was not popular and Americans tried out the new "reform" method, proposed by Vietor. He proposed a new approach to language teaching by using the spoken language as a starting point and providing descriptive phonetics. In his approach new materials were taught through gestures and pictures and through the use of words already known. The grammar was also taught but done in inductive way through the study of texts. His approach was also known the Phonetic Method or Reform Method. The methods proposed by Gouin and Vietor might give rise to the direct method.

Principles Of Direct Method

Even though the Direct Method has derived from psychology, the method has some principles related to learning foreign languages. The following principles are some of the characteristics of the Direct Method regarding to language learning.

1. Grammar is taught by situation and through inductive process.
2. The syllabus is based on situations and related to everyday vocabulary and structure.
3. Grammar and vocabulary is taught orally.
4. Concrete meanings are made clear by presenting physical objects and abstract ones through association of ideas, not through translation.
5. Repetition of new materials is encouraged to make language learners acquire the language naturally.
6. Listening and imitating sounds are drilled so that language learners become automatic in producing the sounds.
7. Language learners learn the target language in the class most of the time.
8. Sounds of the language are essential and presented at the beginning of the course.
9. Reading follows listening and speaking, and the reading texts are based on the materials of the two skills.
10. Many new items are presented in the same lesson in order to make the language natural.

The principles of the Direct Method kept developing from year to year. There was always some effort to systemize the teaching of language and the method was also combined with other traditional methods. Descriptive phonetics and reading texts were also added to the method to meet the demands at that time. The combination with the traditional methods was eventually called "eclectic method".

2.6   BASIC ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE

Even though a theory of language in the Direct Method is not explicitly articulated, in this chapter the assumptions about language underlying the method have been crystallized from different sources (Larsen-Freeman, 2000 and Mackey, 1975). In the Direct Method language is seen as what native speakers speak so that language learners not only learn the target language but also the culture of the native speakers. The method also suggests that language is seen as a set of grammatical rules and its vocabulary in real situations. Grammatical rules and its vocabulary are presented in texts: oral or written texts. Language teachers should use the grammar and vocabulary in contexts and then relate them to the situations in the classroom. The

materials are arranged based on topics. Learning a target language means that the students are able to communicate in the target language, both oral and written forms.

As long as the target language spoken by the language learners is understood by others, the language spoken is accepted. Vocabulary is emphasized over grammar. If language learners do not understood some words, the language teacher will demonstrate in the target language to make the students understand the meanings through pictures, mimics or other physical objects. Pronunciation is essential since mispronouncing a word may hinder communication. Grammar is learned after the learners are able to use the language; this leads to grammar teaching in an inductive way. The teacher should provide many examples so that the students can draw conclusions from the examples. There is no explicit grammar rule given by the teacher but vocabulary exercises and systematic grammar drills may be given

The Direct Method also sees that the four skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing reinforce another but oral communication is seen basic. Language is primarily spoken, not written, and reading and writing may be given from the start but they are given after the students practice using the language orally. If the materials to teach are reading texts, they should follow oral practice. Translation into the first language is avoided, even though at a more advanced level translation can be added as a part of vocabulary exercises and grammar drills. The textbook in the Direct Method is not a must and language teachers may work on grammar and vocabulary orally but no explicit grammar rule is discussed.

Even though the advocates of the Direct Method agree that structure and vocabulary is taught, the two components of the language must be taught in contexts. The evaluation in the class should be related to communication. The students are not asked about the knowledge of the language but they are asked to use the language. The evaluation can be done to measure both written and oral skills. The students may be interviewed orally to know how far they can use the language orally. The students may also be asked to write a sentence or paragraph so that their skill of using the language in written forms can be evaluated.

2.7   BASIC ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Like other methods, the Direct Method also has assumptions about language learning. Some of the assumptions seem to be similar to natural method. The following are basic assumptions about language learning of the Direct Method.

1. Meanings are made clear by presenting physical objects, such as pictures, gestures and pantomimes. Translation may be an easy way to make meanings clear but it will not make the students learn the target language naturally. Natural learning proves to be more effective in learning another language.

2. Self-correction is more emphasized than teacher correction. This will make the students think in the target language, not do parroting. This can be done by asking them to make a choice between what they said and an alternative answer provided by the teacher. Self-correction can also done by repeating what they said in a questioning voice to signal to the students that there is something wrong.

3. Vocabulary is learned more effectively if they use it in full sentences rather than memorize it. The teacher can repeat new words by asking them to the students several times in different contexts and eliciting the situations in order for the students to use the words.

4. Teaching another language means taking a role as a partner of the students in communications. The interaction between the teacher and the students are two-way interaction. The teacher can ask the students and vice versa. Besides functioning as a partner, the teacher is also a facilitator; he can show the students what errors they have made and how they correct the errors.

5. Students should learn to think in the target language as soon as possible. The teacher avoids teaching individual words and full sentences will encourage the students to think in the target language. Vocabulary is acquired more easily and naturally if the students use it in full sentences, rather than memorizing word lists.

6. Students should be actively involved in using the target language in realistic everyday situations.

2.8   PROCEDURES OF DIRECT METHOD

As stated earlier, language teaching presented through the Direct Method may take different forms. No standardized procedure characterizes the method. Different people may develop their own procedures as long as the procedures are based on the principles of the method. Nowadays, there is not much literature related to the method even though still many people use techniques that can be classified under the principles of the method in teaching another language in the classroom. The principle procedure is that language is first introduced through the ear, and then reinforced through the eye and hand by reading and writing. The following procedure is adapted from Larsen-Freeman (2000: 26-28).

1. Each student has a reading passage in front of him/her.
2. The students are called on one by one and they read the text loudly.
3. After the students finish reading the passage, they are asked in the target language if they have questions.
4. The teacher answers the students' questions in the target language.
5. The teacher works with the students on the pronunciation.
6. The teacher gives questions to the students and the questions and statements are about the students in the classroom.
7. The students make up their own questions and statements and direct them to other students in the classroom.
8. The teacher instructs the students to turn to an exercise in the lesson which asks them to fill in the blanks.
9. The students read a sentence out loud and supply the missing word as they are reading.
10. The teacher asks the students to take out their notebooks and he/she gives them a dictation; the passage is about the topic that has been discussed.

Another way of teaching a language through the Direct Method is also suggested by Titone (cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 12). This way is actually not a procedure but more as a set of techniques suggested by Berlitz, one of the American reformers who attempted to build a language teaching methodology based on the Direct Method. These techniques are still popular among language teachers even though these techniques are not arranged procedurally.

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

As stated earlier that there is no fixed procedure of the Direct Method. This causes confusion among language teachers; language teachers may argue that they have used the Direct Method in the class even though they may not have used it in a real sense. Referring to the concepts of approach, method and technique introduced by Anthony, which has been discussed in chapter one (cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 19), probably, the Direct Method is not a real method since there is no overall plan of language teaching. The method only refers to assumptions about language and language learning, and some techniques that have been developed from the assumptions. It is understandable since the method had been born long before the concept of method itself was introduced in 1963.

The birth of the Direct Method really contributed a great deal of improvement in teaching another language in the world. Because of the method language teaching gradually has swung from the teaching of grammar to teaching to communicate in the target language. The Direct Method is believed to be the first method that encourages language teachers to teach a second/foreign language by modeling first language learning. In this method grammar is taught inductively with no explanations of grammar rules, which is really an improvement in language teaching.

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AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD

3.1 BACKGROUND

The Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) is a method which was introduced in the United States of America (USA) in 1940s. Even though the method is considered very old, many language teachers still like it and believe that it is a powerful method. The emergence of the method was a response to the need for a radical change of foreign language teaching due to the unfriendly relationship between USA and Russia, which lunched its first satellite in 1957. The United States prevented from its people from becoming isolated people from scientific advances made in other countries. The method was much influenced by a method called Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP). The ASTP was triggered by the condition from which USA entered World War II and tried to send its army to take up positions in other countries. USA government found itself in a need of personnel trained in a large number and wide variety of languages, and the audio-lingual method could be the answer. The method was also a response to the Reading Method and the Grammar Translation Method. At that time many Americans felt unsatisfied with the reading aim and they thought that speaking was more important than reading.

Technically, the method was supported by the appearance on the market of a large variety of mechanical aids, such as tape recorders and language laboratories. Theoretically, the method was based on the findings of the structural linguists, who developed a psychology and philosophy

of language learning different from traditional methods. The method was finally developed from the combination of the principles of structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures, and behaviorist psychology (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 54-55). The method was accepted by people in other countries and introduced in Indonesia in 1960's. Not much literature on the audio-lingual method is now available and most of the ideas in this part have been adapted from *How to Teach Foreign Languages Effectively* (Huebener, 1969).

In the Audio-Lingual Method language learners are equipped with the knowledge and skill required for effective communication in a foreign language. The language learners are also required to understand the foreign people whose language they are learning and the culture of the foreign people. The language learners have to understand everyday life of the people, history of the people and their social life.

The advocates of the ALM believe that learning is essentially the process of change in mental and physical behavior induced in a living organism by experience. This principle was much influenced by a theory of psychology known as behaviorism. Formal experience can be gained at formal schools and the aim of learning is habit. Learning is simply habit formation. To learn a new language means to acquire another set of speech habits. The speech habit can be formulated through the observance of rules. Therefore, successful language learners are those who finally become spontaneous in communication and the rules have been forgotten.

The method, which was originally introduced to prepare people to master foreign language orally in a short time, emphasizes oral forms of language. However, the method still considers the other language skills. The method considers that the oral forms: speaking and listening should come first, and reading and writing come later. The advocates of the method believe that language learners learn a foreign language as a child learns his/her mother tongue. First, he hears sounds and tries to understand the sounds; he/she then attempts to reproduce the sounds. Next, he/she learns to read the written forms. The phases can be described that learning a foreign language there are the passive or receptive phase and the active or reproductive phase.

3.2   PRINCIPLES OF AUDIO LINGUAL METHOD

The principles of the method derive from the aims of learning a foreign language. The aims of the method include some aspects of language learning. The linguistic aims of the ALM are

1. language learners are able to comprehend the foreign language when it is spoken at normal speed and concerned with ordinary matters,
2. language learners are able to speak in acceptable pronunciation and grammatical correctness,
3. language learners have no difficulties in comprehending printed materials,
4. language learners are able to write with acceptable standards of correctness on topics within their experience.

The aims mentioned above have basic principles in learning teaching interaction. Since the primary aim is the ability in communication, language learners and their language teacher should use the target language at all times. The language teacher should greet his/her students in the target language from the first day of their language class. Their mother tongue is not used unless it is necessary and translation into their mother is prohibited. Intensive drills should be provided so that language learners can have enough practice of using the grammar of the spoken language. Drilling is a central technique in this method. The final goal of language learning process is that language learners are able to communicate in the target language with native-speaker-like pronunciation. Through this method language learners learn structures, sounds or words in contexts. The two other skills: reading and writing are deferred until speech is mastered; these skills follow the other skills: reproductive skills. The sequence of learning is listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Besides the linguistic aims above the method also has cultural aims. The cultural aims of the method are

1. language learners understand daily life of the people, including customs, works, sports, play, etc,
2. language learners know the main facts concerning the geography, history, social and political life of the people,

3. language learners appreciate the art and science of the people,
4. language learners understand the value of the language as the main factor in their culture.

These cultural aims will accompany the linguistic aims and these will motivate language learners to learn the target language. By knowing all aspect of the people, language learners will have better understanding of the language used by the people and increase their motivation. Motivation is important in learning the target language since effective learning will take place when language learners are eager to acquire the target language.

In short, Johnson (1968) states that the principles of the ALM are:

1. language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbol used for oral communication,
2. writing and printing are graphic representations of the spoken language,
3. language can be broken down into three major component parts: the sound system, the structure, and the vocabulary,
4. the only authority for correctness is actual use of native speakers,
5. one can learn to speak and understand a language only being exposed to the spoken language and by using the spoken language,
6. languages can be learned inductively far more easily than deductively,
7. grammar should never be taught as an end in itself, but only as a means to the end of learning the language,
8. use of the students' native language in class should be avoided or kept to a minimum in second language teaching,
9. the structures to which the students are exposed to should always sound natural to native speakers,
10. all structural material should be presented and practiced in class before the students attempt to study it at home.

The principles above are only some of the principles that people may believe to belong to the ALM. The principles of the ALM also deal with the theories of languages and language learning, which will be presented below.

3.3 ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE

With regard to the nature of language the ALM has some assumptions. The method sees the language as follows:

1. Language is the everyday spoken utterance of the average person at normal speed. It seems that language is what people speak not what people write. This assumption may be a response to how people used to study a foreign language. In traditional methods many people used to study a foreign language from what was written and the materials were grammar oriented. Grammar and vocabulary are not thought of as a logical arrangement of forms, meanings, paradigms, and rules extracted from the written language but a succession of grammatical patterns that occur constantly in the spoken language. The language materials in Audio Lingual Method are developed based on situational syllabus.
2. Listening and speaking come first, and reading and writing come later. This assumption seems to be inspired by the process of a child who learns his/her mother tongue. A child always begins with hearing what his/her parents speak and he/she tries to speak afterwards. He/she will learn reading or writing later. This assumption really dominates the procedure of teaching the target language in the ALM. The procedure always begins with listening and speaking and the teaching of reading and writing will be presented after language learners master the spoken language.
3. Every speaker uses a language in a slightly different manner. Language learners are not forced to speak in the same manner; they are allowed to speak the foreign language in different ways as long as they can communicate in the language.

3.4   ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

The method also has assumptions about language learning. The following are some of the assumptions about learning.

1. Learning is the process of change in mental and physical behavior induced in living organism. This assumption implies that language learning is a process of acquiring another set of speech habit.
2. Language learners will be more eager when they like what they do. This assumption emphasizes on the role of motivation in learning a foreign language. By having good motivation, language learners will have a process of arousing action, sustaining the activity in progress, and regulating the patterns of activity in order to acquire another language.

3. Language learners must understand clearly what is involved and required. This is related to motivation. Understanding what they have to do will evoke motivation. Many language learners are easily frustrated and then stop learning the target language because they do not know what to do.

4. Language learners will learn the target language more readily when they concentrate their attention more fully. Without full attention, they will not be willing to spend their time for learning and good performance cannot be achieved. Language learners have to learn the language with a clear purpose.

5. Language learning is a process of habit formation. The more often something is repeated, the stronger the habit and the greater the learning. The ALM believes that learning a foreign language is the same as the acquisition of the native language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 43).

3.5   TEACHING SKILLS

The ALM has a relatively complete procedure of presenting language materials. The method has a set of procedures of teaching each language skill. The following is the first procedure of teaching the target language. This procedure is a set of the typical steps in teaching the target language through the ALM. Since the listening and speaking ability is the first skill to consider, the first procedure of teaching is more related to listening and speaking ability (Huebener, 1969: 17). The procedure can be as follows:

1. The language teacher gives a brief summary of the content of the dialogue. The dialogue is not translated but equivalent translation of key phrases should be given in order for the language learners to comprehend the dialogue.

2. The language learners listen attentively while the teacher reads or recites the dialogue at normal speed several times. Gestures and facial expressions or dramatized actions should accompany the presentation.

3. Repetition of each line by the language learners in chorus is the next step. Each sentence may be repeated a half dozens of times, depending on its length and on the alertness of the language learners. If the teacher detects an error, the offending learner is corrected and is asked to repeat the sentence. If many learners make the same errors, chorus repetition and drill will be necessary.

4. Repetition is continued with groups decreasing in size, that is, first the two halves of the class, then thirds, and then single rows or smaller groups. Groups can assume the speakers' roles.
5. Pairs of individual learners now go to the front of the classroom to act out the dialogue. By this time they should have memorized the text.

In teaching the target language dialogue plays an important role. Almost any language class begins with a dialogue. The following considerations are necessary to construct a good dialogue.

1. The dialogue should be short.
2. The dialogue should have not more than three roles.
3. The dialogue should contain repetition of new grammar.
4. The context should be interesting for the language learners.
5. Previous vocabulary and grammar should be included in the dialogue.

Since the aim of the method is speaking ability, teaching through the ALM language teachers spend most of the time for speaking. However, experimentation with the method has showed that the method has certain disadvantages so that some factors related to speaking have to be considered (Huebener, 1969: 9.):

1. The primary aim of foreign language instruction in the schools has always been educational and cultural. The ability to speak fluently is not acquired primarily in the classroom, but through much additional practice on the outside.
2. Real conversation is difficult to achieve in the classroom because the time to develop it is difficult.
3. Conversation must not be confused with oral practice. Conversation involves a free, spontaneous discussion by two or more persons of any topic of common interest. Part of its effectiveness is due to facial expression and gestures.
4. Speaking ability is the most difficult phase of a foreign language to teach and to acquire.
5. This ability is least likely to be retained, for it depends on constant practice.
6. It is difficult to teach because it requires unusual resourcefulness, skill, and energy on the part of the teacher. No textbook can make up for the originality of an everyday-life situation.

7. Conversational competence depends essentially on an extensive vocabulary, memorization of numerous speech patterns, and the automatic control of stress.

These disadvantages may not be serious problems if language teachers realize that learning also takes place outside the classrooms. Language teachers have to provide opportunities for language learners to practice using the foreign language after the class. Language teachers must be creative in providing learning resources and they have to keep monitoring the process of language learning. Without teacher's attention, language learners will not optimally learn the target language. Language teachers are expected to be fluent in the target language, which seems to be a problem in rural places

Besides the procedure of presenting a dialogue, which involves listening and speaking, the ALM suggests a procedure of listening. The following are the steps in listening (Huebener, 1969 :37).

1. *Motivation*. An effort is made to arouse learners' interest in the topic or presentation.
2. *Introduction*. The situation or content is briefly described.
3. *Anticipation of difficulties*. If there are any new words or structures, these will be singled out or made clear.
4. *First listening*. The record is played.
5. *Check on difficulties*. Some words and structures may still be incomprehensible to few learners. These are taken up at this point and clarified.
6. *Second listening*. Again the tape is played without interruption.
7. *Questions*. Significant expressions, keywords and phrases or structures to be learned are used in questions.
8. *Third listening*.
9. *Questions*. The language teacher asks original, informal questions to test comprehension.

3.6   TYPES OF PATTERN DRILLS

In order for language learners to practice listening and speaking, there are a number of different types of pattern drills that can be used. Language teachers may use one or more than one pattern drill, depending on what

patterns learners have to learn. In the following session "T" represents *teacher* and "S" represents *student*.

1. *Repetition Drill.* This drill is the simplest drill used in learning language patterns. It is used at the very beginning of language class. Language learners merely repeat what the teacher says or the tape recorder produces. This may be used for the presentation of new vocabulary and will be useful for pronunciation class.

   Example:
   T   :   I study in the morning.
   S1   :   I study in the morning.
   T   :   I study in the afternoon.
   S2   :   I study in the afternoon.
   T   :   I work in the morning.
   S3   :   I work in the morning.
   Etc.

2. *Substitution Drill.* Language learners are required to replace one word with another. They may replace a word of the model sentence with a pronoun, number, or gender and make some the necessary change.
   Example:
   T   :   John is cold.
   T   :   hungry
   S1   :   John is hungry
   T   :   in the class
   S2   :   John is in the class.
   T   :   John and Marry
   S3   :   John and Marry are in the class.
   Etc.

3. *Transformation Drill.* Language learners are required to change sentences from negative to positive, from positive to interrogative, or from simple present tense to simple past tense, depending on the instruction from the teacher.
   Example:
   T   :   The book is new.
   S1   :   Is the book new?
   T   :   We are in the class.

S2   :   Are we in the class?

Etc.

4.   *Replacement Drill.* Language learners replace a noun with a pronoun. It is the same drill as the substitution drill but it involves with a replacement. Example:

T   :   I like the book.

S1   :   I like it.

T   :   I met the people in Jakarta.

S2   :   I met them in Jakarta.

T   :   John will come here.

S3   :   He will come here.

Etc.

5.   *Response Drill.* Language learners respond to somebody's sentence. In this drill the answers are patterned after the questions. This drill may involve "wh" questions or "yes/ no" questions. Example:

T1: Alice is at school.

T2: Where is Alice?

T3: At school

Etc.

6.   *Cued response Drill.* In this drill language learners are provided with a cue before or after the question. Example:

T   :   What did the man buy? (A book)

S   :   The man bought a book.

T   :   Who will help us? (His brother)

S   :   His brother will help us.

Etc.

7.   *Rejoinder Drill.* It is similar to the cued response drill. In this drill language learners are given instruction of how to respond. Example:

T   :   come to my house (Be polite)

S   :   Would you like to come to my house.

T   :   your idea is not good (disagree)

S   : I disagree with your idea.

Etc.

8. *Restatement*. Language learners rephrase an utterance and address it to somebody else, according to the content of the utterance.

   Example:

   T   : Tell him where you live.

   S   : I live at Raden Intan Street no.5.

   T   : Ask her what she has for breakfast.

   S   : What do you have for breakfast?

   Etc.

9. *Completion Drill*. Language learners are told to supply a missing word in a sentence or statement.

   Example:

   T   : I bring my book and you bring…

   S   : I bring my book and you bring your book.

   T   : I have to solve …own problems.

   S   : I have to solve my own problems.

   Etc.

10. *Expansion Drill*. Language learners build up a statement by adding a word or phrase.

    Example:

    T   : Mathematics

    S   : We study mathematics.

    T   : Everyday

    S   : We study mathematics everyday.

    Etc.

11. *Contraction Drill*. Language learners replace a phrase or clause with a single word or shorter expressions.

    Example:

    T   : I didn't mean to kill the bird.

    S   : I didn't mean it.

    T   : Don't go to that place.

    S   : Don't go there.

    Etc.

12. *Integration Drill*. Language learners combine two separate statements. Example:

T : Which one do you think is true? The earth goes around the sun or the sun goes around the earth.
S : I think the earth goes around the sun.
T : I know that lady. She is a wearing a blue shirt.
S : I know the lady wearing a blue shirt.
Etc.

13. *Translation Drill*. Language learners translate a sentence from their mother tongue to the target language. Example:

T : Saya sangat senang buah-buahan.
S : I like fruit very much.
T : Ada beberapa murid di kelas itu.
S : There are some students in the class.
Etc.

Teaching Reading

Reading will be given as soon as language learners have had sufficient practice in listening and speaking. After the language learners have good ability of listening and speaking, reading can be introduced. Reading lesson may be given in a single class or it may be added as supplementary work. Whether it is given as a single lesson or a supplementary work, the material of reading must be graded depending on the levels of the language learners. There are different types of reading (Huebener, 1969).

1. **Choral reading**

Even though choral reading is relatively uncommon in modern language classes. This type of reading is still important in improving learners' pronunciation. Working in-groups will make language learners feel confident to pronounce words in foreign accent and practice is really recommended in this method. This technique is really helpful for language learners who are reluctant and shy to imitate the teacher' expressions individually.

2. **Silent reading**

    After language learners learn the words and expressions and know how to pronounce them, the actual reading can begin. This can be done through silent reading. Silent reading can begin with reading aloud by the teacher. The teacher's reading is a model in accuracy and expressiveness. It is thought that the great amount of interest in reading is secured by a happy combination of reading aloud by learners, reading aloud by the teacher and silent reading by the learners. To check whether the learners understand what they have read, the teacher can test them by giving questions based on the text, by translation or by summarizing the text.

3. **Intensive reading**

    Intensive reading lesson may proceed as follows:

    a. While the books are closed, the students listen to the teacher. Occasionally he will ask a question to make sure that everything is clear.

    b. The new words, phrases, and idioms are written on the board. They are pronounced and used in original sentences.

    c. The students open their books and the teacher reads the first part of the selection aloud. Gestures and dramatic devices are used to heighten the effect and to aid in comprehension. Reference is made to words on the board.

    d. The selection is now read by the class, alternating silent and oral reading. It is suggested that narrative or expository passages be read silently, whereas conversation or dialogue is done orally. Learners may be assigned parts.

    e. The selection may now be summarized in various types. Selected learners may be asked to give a summary in their mother tongue or in the foreign language. The teacher may ask a series of sequential questions. As each answer is given, it is written on the board. Finally, all of the answers are read aloud.

4. **Extensive reading**

    Basically extensive reading is silent reading but done outside of class. In order for language learners to have less problems in extensive reading, the teacher should explain first difficult passages or new words. A number of questions related to the text are assigned and the answers are to be

written. Language learners should prepare various types of summaries: written or oral report. After the reading has been completed, language learners and the teacher discuss the text in the class. The Language may score the summaries in order for language learner to be well motivated.

5. **Supplementary reading**

    Supplementary reading is also done out of class. Language learners are free to choose reading materials. Reading materials may consist of newspapers, bulletins or magazines in the target language. Supplementary reading should be a part of the term's work. Every language learner should be required to read at least one book in the target language. Again, the teacher should give scores to the work of supplementary reading.

Teaching Writing

Writing in the target language can be introduced shortly after language learners have begun reading. There are different types of writing, depending on the levels of language performance. They may be classified as writing or composition. There are four types of writing: imitative writing, dictation, guided writing and controlled writing.

1. **Imitative writing**

    Writing may begin with the simple writing skill, imitative writing. In this writing beginning language learners begin writing by copying materials that they have already mastered by hearing, speaking and reading. The materials may be the text that they have memorized. Since in this writing language learners only "imitate", they write groups of words, sentences or phrases rather than single words.

2. **Dictation**

    After language learners have had sufficient practice in imitative writing, they may begin with dictation. The materials can be the dialogues that they have memorized. The teacher can read sentences or parts of the dialogues and the language learners fill the missing words or phrases. By having dictation, language learners practice having aural comprehension and spelling correctly. The procedure of dictation may be as follows: the language teacher reads the text three times. During the first reading, the language teacher reads the text at normal speed and

language learners listen carefully and make no attempt to write. In the second reading, which is done more slowly, language learners write. In the third reading the teacher reads the text at normal speed again and the language learners make some necessary corrections.

3. **Guided writing**

   Guided writing is the third step for increasing writing ability after language learners have practiced imitative writing and dictation. In guided writing the language teachers guided language learners to write short responses. The procedure of guided writing may take various forms. 1) The teacher reads a passage twice and then he/she makes incomplete statements based on the passage. Language learners complete the statements. 2) The teacher reads a passage twice and asks a number of questions. Language learners write the answers to each question. 3) The teacher reads a passage twice and asks language learners to rephrase the passage in their own words. Language learners write each passage read by the teacher in their own words. 4) The teacher reads a passage twice and asks language learners to change the tense, i.e. from simple present tense to simple past tense. Language learners change all sentences in the passage. Or, the teacher asks language learners to change all singular persons in the passage to the plural. 5) The teacher reads some questions and language learners to write their answers in a paragraph. Language learners write a composition based on the questions.

4. **Controlled writing**

   If sufficient practice in guided writing has been given, language learners can begin with controlled writing. Like the previous steps of writing, controlled writing is also developed from a dialogue. It is similar to rewriting but in this writing language learners change a passage from dialogue to narrative or vice versa. Controlled writing may take a form of letter. This step may be given to more advanced learners after they have been given considerable practice in controlled writing. The practice in controlled writing can guide language learners to have composition in the target language.

   Composition derives from "compose"; it means that language learners make original, independent and free manipulation of language. It mostly takes written forms. In writing a composition language learners are

required to have imagination or ideas, knowledge of the target language, including words and expressions. There are three types of composition: controlled composition, directed composition and free composition.

5. **Controlled composition**

    This step is similar to controlled writing. Unlike in controlled writing, with which language learners change the way they express the content of a passage, in controlled composition language learners write a composition based on a model. They can write their daily life or experience similar to the model. This composition may assume the form of a letter or an article. This exercise enables them to write an article in the target language.

6. **Directed composition**

    In directed composition language learners receive detailed directions from the their teacher concerning the form and content of the composition. Directions from the teacher are not necessarily given in the target language if this will make the directions clearer. Language learners are not given the directions concerning the form of the composition. The teacher may give detailed directions on the content of the composition if necessary.

7. **Free composition**

    This is the highest level of writing activities. After language learners are able to express their ideas without difficulty in brief narratives, descriptions, reports, dialogues or letters, they have reached the level of free composition. Directions in this level are sometimes not required. The teacher has to make sure that language learners are able to express themselves freely and independently before the language learners are given free composition. This step will be given to language learners after they have practiced in guided composition and controlled composition.

    Besides the four language skills, the ALM also considers the teaching the subject matter of language, that is vocabulary and grammar. However, grammar and vocabulary are not thought of as a logical arrangement of forms, meanings, paradigms, and rules extracted from the written language but a succession of grammatical patterns that occur constantly in the spoken language. This assumption suggests that vocabulary and grammar are not taught separately from the four skills. The subject

mater of the language is learned unconsciously. The language teachers may present the subject matter on the basis of their importance and frequency. This way of looking vocabulary and grammar is different from previous methods, which see the subject matter as parts of speech, parsing sentences, memorizing rules, or translating sentences.

Vocabulary and grammar are taught primarily through imitation of native speakers of the target language or the language teacher as the model of the target language. The language learners should not be asked to produce original utterances in the target language until they have become thoroughly familiar with the structural patterns involved through presentation and drills in the class.

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4

SILENT WAY

4.1   BACKGROUND

The Silent way is the name of method of language teaching devised by Caleb Cattegno. He used to be involved in a mathematics program and his experience has influenced the method. The method represents his previous experience in the use of rods and his series of word charts in the field of language teaching. The method may not be separated from the use of the rods and word charts with different colors. Rods are colored wooden or plastic sticks that are thin and straight. They are of varying lengths. Each length has its own distinctive colors. They are used to present the target language physically in order for language learners to use their senses in learning the language. They can function both as rods and as representative for something else. The function of rods may be substituted by other objects which are easily found in the surro undings.

The name of the method often makes people curious; they wonder how people can learn a foreign language in a "silence". The name of the method seems to be a response to other traditional methods with which language teachers are very active in dominating classroom activities. In this method the role of language teachers is relatively less silent so that language learners are encouraged to be more active in producing as much language as possible. A language teacher should encourage language learners to take a role in learning activities. The time of learning teaching interaction should be given to language learners, not to the teacher.

The teacher functions as a guide, an organizer, a resource, and evaluator. In the role of guide, language teacher guides learners to learn the language units under considerations; hence, the teacher offers the learning materials to the learners and helps them to acquire the target language. In the role of organizer, language teacher organizes classroom activities; the teacher predicts what will happen in the class so that he/she can arrange activities which promote the learning processes the learners need. In the role of resource, the teacher functions as a source of information about the subject; he/she is the one in the classroom whom the learners consult whenever they cannot solve their problems among themselves. In the role of evaluator, language teacher judges whether the learners' contributions to the learning process are valid, relevant and correct. In error correction, the evaluator judges whether the learners will be able to figure out and produce the forms expected or not and how he/she will provide them with necessary help. The result of the judgement will serve as feedback for the teacher as a guide, resource, and organizer.

The principles of the method are not considered in language learning only but the principles may be applied in learning in general. Some people think that the aim of this method is not merely to master a foreign language but also to humanize human beings. It is the education of spiritual powers and of the sensitivity of the individual (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 103 and 2001). Learning a foreign language through Silent way is claimed to build the personality of language learners while they are learning a foreign language. In this method language learners are required to be considerate of other learners; they try to learn the target language from one another. Language learners have to learn the target language from other learners, as well as their teacher, since utterances from other learners can be models of the target language. Language learners are accustomed to thinking first before producing any utterance. They have to understand the concept of what they are going to say before they say it. "Understanding first, speaking later" is the motto in this method. Drilling is avoided as far as possible since in drilling language learners tend to speak first and understand what they speak later. Language learners are given a lot of practice without being drilled. By practices language learners learn a grammatical unit or new vocabulary in context while by drills they often repeat something without understanding it.

As stated earlier, the Silent Way shares a great deal of principles with theories from general education. For example, one of the basic principle of this method is that " teaching should be subordinate to learning" (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 51-52 and 2000). There are some other principles that apply in general education (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 99 and 2001). One principle that is related to education in general is that learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned. This principle suggests that drilling in learning is avoided and practice is encouraged in this method. Another principle that also comes from general education is that learning is facilitated by accompanying physical objects and by problem solving the material to be learned. These principles also belong to some other methods in language teaching. It is no wonder why to some extent the Silent way has similarities with other language teaching methods. Other principles of the Silent Way which are also principles of education in general (Stevick, 1980: 45-48) are a) learning is work, the work is done by the language learner, and much of the work takes place during sleep, b) the work must be conscious so that language learners must not only learn through the process but they must also learn to be aware of the process and to control it.

Learning a target language thus goes beyond acquiring new behaviors: it is one more step towards being a freer person. Language teacher is no longer the one who is responsible for all teaching activities, rather he/she is the one who motivates language learners to perform their own activities. "The aim of good teaching is to make language learners independent, autonomous and responsible (Cattegno, 1976: 45). Language learners are supposed to do their own learning at their own rate. Specifically, the objectives of learning a foreign language according to Caleb Cattegno are the learners will have:

1. An accent as close as possible to that of the natives who are really cultured members of the country whose language is being studied.
2. From the start, an ease in conversation related to the vocabulary presented and studied.
3. An ease in composition about all topics whose vocabularies have been met.
4. An ease at dictation with speeds related to the amount of visual dictation practiced and difficulties of the text.

5. An ease at narrating events, describing pictures, at shopping at various shops, ordering in hotels and restaurants, and at asking for directions, etc.
6. An ability to render appropriate texts of either language into the either (Cattegno, 1976: 83).

Although the language materials in the Silent Way are developed based on structural syllabus, the final objective of the method is to make language learners able to use the target language as means of communication in oral and written forms.

4.2   PRINCIPLES OF SILENT WAY

Even though the Silent Way has principles deriving from general education, the method has principles related to learning foreign languages. The following are some of the principles of the Silent way regarding to foreign language learning.

1. The work requires language learners to relate the linguistic signs to truth that they perceive with their senses (Stevick, 1980: 47). This is why this method always considers physical objects in language learning. Rods and word charts are meant to present truth in front of language learners so that they can see them and touch them. Even though rods and word charts are typical in this method, other physical objects may be used to substitute their functions.
2. Language is not learned by repeating after a model. Language learners need to develop their own "inner criteria" for correctness (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 58). This suggests that language teacher not always model new sounds of a target language but rather uses gestures or other signals to show language learners how to modify or correct their sounds. Inner criteria of language learners will monitor and self correct their own production.
    Cattegno explains his use of the concept of "inner criteria" by giving an analogy to the working of machinery.

    " In machinery it is common to reserve a part of energy used by any piece of machinery to indicate it is functioning well; and this acts upon the flow of the energy through it so as to keep it working according to

the program. A similar control mechanism has been sought in human beings. When we utter a word that is unwanted or out of sequence, or when we distort a sound, we immediately provide the alternative wanted. This proves that while we are engaged in the jobs of talking, writing, discussing, etc., part of our consciousness is occupied in supervising the activity. This part feed back to the self in charge of information which is, then, used at once to either let the flow go on or to introduce correction when needed (Cattegno, 1978: 29).

3. Meaning is made clear by focusing learners' perceptions, not through translation (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 59). When a language learner makes a mistake or misconception of something, the teacher does not correct it through translation but he/she tries to show something to make the meaning clear. For example, when the teacher says " a blue rod" to a learner and the learner takes a red rod, she will take a red rod and show it to the learner without giving any comments.

4. Reading is worked on from the beginning but follows from what language learners already know (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 59 and 2000). After language learners can produce sounds in the target language and connect the sounds with the truth, they begin to read symbols in the target language. This process can begin after the first class and language teacher does not have to delay it.

The principles mentioned above, with other principles, make the Silent Way different from other methods. The other principles of the method will represent the procedure of the method and will be discussed below.

4.3   BASIC ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE

With regard to the nature of language, the Silent Way has a different point of view from other contemporary methods.

1. Language is seen as groups of sound arbitrarily associated with specific meanings and organized into sentences or strings of meaningful units by grammar rules (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 101). So, the focus in syllabus design is on the forms of the target language to be mastered and the rules for combining them. The syllabus is composed of linguistic structures. In Cattegno's view, there is a core of "functional vocabulary which permits every one of the structure of the language, however complex, to be

formed" (Cattegno, 1976: 54). These would include presence or absence of gender, singularity or plurality, etc. Other vocabulary can be learned once the basic vocabulary has been mastered. Thus, the emphasis is not on acquiring an extensive vocabulary but on acquiring basic patterns and vocabulary.

2. The skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing reinforce one another. Consequently, language teacher has to consider these four skills in dealing with the language materials. He/she may not leave one skill behind the others. Language teacher is supposed to deal with all four skills when working on each linguistic objective. This assumption, together with the first assumption, has a great impact on how the target language is learned. The structural view of the Silent Way sees the target language as "mastery of elements of the system (of the target language), which are generally defined in terms of phonological units, grammatical operations, and lexical items" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 17and 2001). Based on the phonological units language learners learn how to produce the sounds of the target language, first in isolation (phonemes), then in combinations (words), and then in strings of words to work on the melody of the target language. Later, using vocabulary language learners will be guided to use grammatical units and grammatical operations.

3. Language is a substitute for experience. So, in this method experience gives meaning to the target language (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 101 and 2001). Therefore, in learning a target language, learners should experience using the target language by facing physical objects that can be of assistance in creating experience. This also implies that language learners are taught the target language by having their senses: touch, listen, smell, and even taste if necessary. Language teacher's job is to help language learners make connection, not to evaluate their attempts.

4.4   BASIC ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Besides the assumptions about language, it is believed that learning take place more effectively under certain condition. Therefore, the Silent Way also has some assumptions about language learning. The following are the assumptions about language learning.

1. The grammar of the target language is learned through largely inductive processes (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:101 and 2001). Language learners have to find out how the patterns of the target language work. Language teacher just provides the clues that lead them to come to a conclusion and he/she does not explain the usage of grammar rules. The clueing is done by guiding them to produce utterances using the patterns that are being used. In order to facilitate the inductive processes for language learners, language teacher deals with one rule at a time.

2. Language is learned logically, expanding upon what language learners already know. It is clear that the idea is that language learners know what they are doing. Language learners are not only saying something without being aware of what they are saying. In order for them to be aware, the new materials have to have a relationship with the previous one so that they can easily make associations since the association process is a necessary part of learning. Thus, language teacher should build upon the learning process by adding one new segment of language to the previous one; he/she starts from what the language learners already know in order to encourage association processes. This is why the advocates of the Silent Way prefer to use a bubble diagram as a language syllabus (see the example of Bubble Diagram). To facilitate inductive processes, language teacher is suggested to deal with rule at a time and he/she may use elements in their mother tongue in order for language learners to discriminate and compare the elements in the target language, particularly in making sounds.

3. Learning is facilitated if language learners discover or create rather than remember and repeat what is to be learned (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 99 and 2001). It implies that language learners should feel free to produce their own version of the target language. Errors are used as feedback for the teacher so that he/she can start from the errors to improve their target language. Language teacher lets his/her students try out the knowledge of the target language in the form of utterance. Memorization and repetition are avoided since it is believed that a human being uses the language by his/her own working, through trial and error and deliberate experimentation. This process has been used since he/she was a baby. Thus, it is against a natural law to force language learners to memorize and repeat what is to be learned.

4. Learning is a continuing and living process. It occurs on a continuum and leads towards mastery. Advocates of this method believe that learning does not occur abruptly and thus cannot be evaluated immediately. This also means that errors are tolerated since learning a target language takes time and language learners need to try out their understanding of the language. Thus, the learning process and errors go hand in hand. Language teacher emphasizes the process, not the product and let the language learners progress at their own rate. The Silent Way believes that some learning process takes place naturally as we sleep (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 61 and 2000).

In order to implement the assumptions above, a certain set of operating principles must be derived from the assumptions in order for language teacher to know what to do and what not to do. The principles of language teaching and language learning represent certain assumptions of a method. One assumption may result in several principles that represent it; it may also be possible that an assumption has just one principle as its representation. Language teacher must be able to develop his/her own techniques or activities that are suitable with the situation and condition of the language learners based on assumptions of the method. Some principles of the Silent Way mentioned above are practical and some are philosophical, and some others seem almost metaphysical and need metaphysical understanding.

4.5   PROCEDURES OF SILENT WAY

The Silent Way procedures begin by introducing the sounds of the target language before attaching them to meanings to prepare learners to learn the target language. This is important for language learners to be familiar with the sounds since the sounds of a foreign language sound strange and funny for beginners. The technique can be done by the language teacher and the sounds of recordings of native speakers. The contents of recordings of the listening materials may comprise of lecturing, greeting, informal conversation or discussion. "The capacity of surrendering to the sounds will bring the learners' unconsciousness of all of the spirit of a language that has been stored in the language" (Cattegno, 1978:22). This way can introduce the melody of the language to language learners in order for language learners able to be expressive in that language (Sakti Datta, 1979).

The teaching of the sounds of the target language is typically presented as follows:

At the beginning of the stage, the teacher will model theappropriate sound after pointing to a symbol on the chart. Later, the teacher will silently point to individual symbols and combinations of symbols, and monitor student utterances. The teacher may say a word and have a student to guess what sequence of symbols comprised the word. The pointer is used to indicate stress, phrasing, and intonation. Stress can be shown by touching certain symbols more forcibly than others when pointing out a word. Intonation and phrasing can be demonstrated by tapping on the chart to the rhythm of the utterance (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 109-110 and 2001).

After language learners able to produce the sounds of the target language, language teacher continues teaching the language by using rods and word charts. Or, language teacher may use other physical objects, whose purpose is to make meaning perceptible through concrete objects or by representation of experience. Since the method uses "bubble" syllabus, the learning objectives are flexible. Language teacher can begin with the ones he/she thinks easier. By using rods, language teacher deals more with speaking and listening for beginning learners and by word charts and pictures he/she can deal with reading and writing.

The proposed procedures in using rods

To some extent, the procedure below is based on the writer's experience of being a student of a foreign language that took place at the School for International Training, Brattleboro, Vermont, USA, in 1987 (also see Setiyadi, 1988). Cattegno taught French class as a practice of the implementation of the Silent way in language teaching.

In the following, "T" is used to indicate teacher, "S", student, and "SS", students.

The language to teach: a rod

T   :   take as many as rods as there are learners or more.
T   :   show rods in different colors and sizes one after another, pause, and after each say " a rod".

T : ask all language learners to take one rod for everyone and say " a rod".

SS : take a rod and say " a rod".

T : ask each student to take one rod and signal him/her to say "a rod".

The language to teach: colors

T : Silently show a blue rod, pause, and then say "a blue rod".

T : show a red rod, pause, and say " a red rod".

T : show a blue rod to learners and signal them to say " a blue rod".

SS : say " a blue rod".

T : show the red rod and give a signal to learners to say " a red rod".

SS : say " a red rod".

T : show a black rod and say " black", expecting the learners to say " a black rod".

SS : say " a black rod".

T : show another blue rod.

SS : say " a blue rod".

T : show another red rod.

SS : say " a red rod".

T : show another black rod.

SS : say " a black rod".

T : show a yellow rod, pause, and say "yellow".

SS : say " a yellow rod".

Teacher and language learners do the same procedures for the rest of the colors. In this procedure, language learners can be introduced with the use of the article "an". It can be done by introducing an orange rod after they have enough practice with colors. It will be presented together with the articles "a" and "the".

When the teacher silently shows a black rod, and then say "black" instead of " a black rod", he/she lets the language learners hazard a guess and use their previous knowledge to test their conclusions. Language learners have a creative understanding of the function of the language. They use their independence and they are able to produce sentences that they have

never heard before. Teacher's being silent before he/she says something is meant to give the language learners enough time to make associations. The procedure above continues by having language learners to work in -groups of three or four.

The language to teach: numbers and plural form "s"

> T : put two blue rods on the table, pause, and say "two blue rods" (pronounce the sound /s/ very distinctively).
>
> T : put three blue rods, pause, and say "three blue rods", then point to the two blue rods and give a signal to the language learners to speak.
>
> SS : say 'two blue rods" (if the language learners say "a blue rod" instead of "two blue rods", see the procedure of error correction)
>
> T : point to the three blue rods and again give a signal to the learners to say "three blue rods".
>
> SS : say "three blue rods" (if the learners make an error, see the procedure of error correction).
>
> T : show three blue rods, then two blue rods to the learners and one blue rod.
>
> SS : say "three blue rods, two blue rods, and …(they guess "one blue rod" since it has not been taught).
>
> T : show one blue rod and say " one" instead of "one blue rod".
>
> SS : say "one blue rod".
>
> T : show two red rods and ask the learners to speak.
>
> SS : guess and use their knowledge to say " two red rods".

When the teacher pronounces the sound /s/ very distinctively, he is applying the principle that language is learned through largely inductive process (the teacher does not explain the use of grammar rules) and the principle that language learners may experiment with the language in order to test their conclusions. This principle can also be seen from the process when the teacher shows two red rods and say nothing so that the learner test their conclusion based on the knowledge of two and three blue rods. Teacher and language learners do the same the procedure with the other numbers with rods of different colors.

The number "one" is not first taught and is delayed after the language learners have learned number "two and three". It is done on purpose in order to avoid misunderstanding with " a blue rod", which they have learned.

The language to teach: pronouns "this" and "that"

T : take a red rod, locate it at a distance from the learners, point to the red rod and say "that is a red rod"; then take a pink rod, put it close to the learners, point to the pink rod and say " this is a pink rod".

T : signal the learners to speak.

SS : say " that is a red rod and this is a pink rod".

T : replace the red rod with a blue rod and the pink rod with a white rod, signal the learners to speak.

SS : say " that is a blue rod and this is a white rod".

Following the introduction of practice of "this and that", the teacher replaces the red rod with the blue rod, and the pink rod with the white rod. This is based on the principle that teaching starts from what the learners already know in order to have an association process. The procedure can be continued with other objects, such as table, chair, blackboard, etc. The sequence of language materials can be presented by using the bubble diagram (see an example of bubble diagram in this chapter). Bubble diagram can vary from one another. It can be arranged based on the creativity and experience in teaching or learning a foreign language. A bubble diagram also guides the teacher to build upon the learning process by adding one new segment of language to the previous one; he/she starts from what the language learners already know in order to encourage association processes. Using a bubble diagram, the structure of the syllabus are not arranged in a linear fashion, but rather are constantly being recycled; the recycling is based on linguistic structure.

4.6   ERROR CORRECTION

In language teaching there are different ways of correcting learners' errors in terms of who corrects the errors (Walz, 1982): first, the learners who made the error; second, other learners in the class; and last the teacher. Walz claims that language learners could locate their errors and then correct them;

this way of correcting errors could reduce teacher talk by one-half. This is also believed to reduce the intimidation factor introduced by excessive criticism. The second way is peer correction. Other learners can involve actively in the process of correcting. This must be done very carefully because it can invite unfavorable comparison between language learners (Stevick, 1980). This way also increases the amount of time that learners talk in foreign language class. The third way is teacher correction. Even though this way has been avoided in language teaching, many language teachers still use it. It is understood if many teachers use this way of correcting errors since sometimes the teacher must tell the class what the errors are and what the proper forms are. This is also done because this way can save time and reduce confusion of multiple errors. However, this way has been criticized as not demonstrating that language learners are not really learning the target language. Fanselow (cited in Walz, 1982: 18) warns that simply giving the correct answers does not establish a pattern for long-term memory.

Unlike the proponents of the Audio-lingual Method, who rely on the correction by the teacher by drilling, those of the Silent Way prefer to use self-correction first, and then peer correction. Teacher should correct errors as a last resort. Cattegno (1976) believes that learners are capable of correcting their own errors; therefore, silence for language teacher is necessary because language learners have work to do to learn a foreign language. The language teacher signals the learners that they have something to work on without saying that they have errors. He/she does not judge the utterance that language learners produce and suggests their utterance to compare the proper utterance produced by other learners. This way represents the principle that language learners need to develop their own "inner criteria" for correctness (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 58). Language teacher not always model new sounds of a target language but rather uses gestures or other signals to show language learners how to modify or correct their sounds. Inner criteria of language learners will monitor and self correct their own production.

The following is the example of correcting errors in the Silent Way. The example comes from the procedure introduced earlier, except the presence of errors.

T   :   put two blue rods on the table, pause, and say "two blue rods" (pronounce the sound /s/ very distictively).

T   :   put three blue rods, pause, and say "three blue rods", then point to the two blue rods and give a signal to the language learners to speak.

S1 :   say "a blue rod" instead of "two blue rods" (error!).

T   :   signal all learners (not only S1) that there is an error without mentioning it and give an opportunity to S1 to correct if he/she knows.

S1 :   (no corrrection)

T   :   signal any student to respond to the utterance produced by S1.

S2 :   say "two blue rod"(error!) instead of "two blue rods".

T   :   ask a student who has produced the proper utterance.

S3 :   say " two blue rods".

T   :   ask S1 to repeat in non-judgmental manner.

S1 :   say "two blue rods"

T   :   ask S2 to repeat with the same manner.
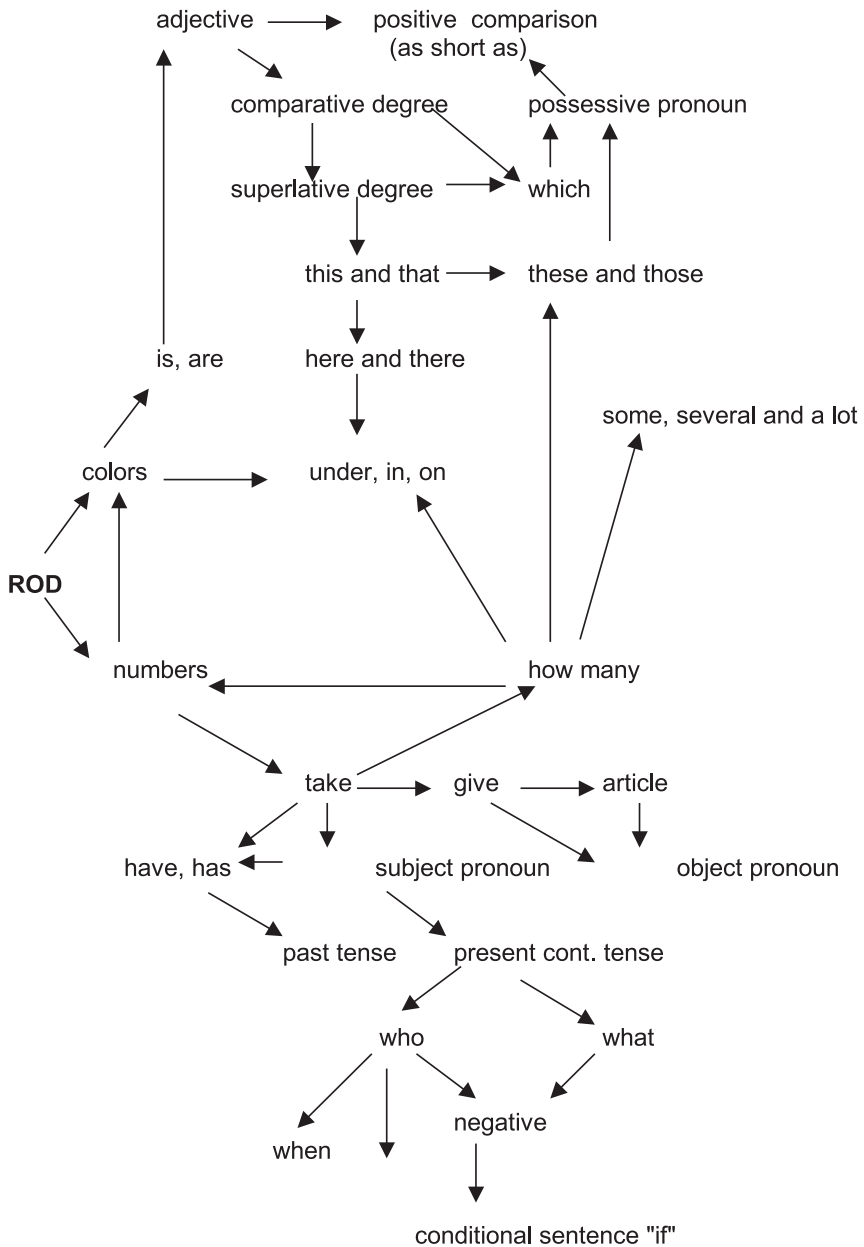
S2 :   say " two blue rods"

If no learner can correct the error, the teacher should model the utterance to all language learners, again in non-judgmental manner. The whole of process of correcting errors is that learners are first given the opportunity to figure out the error, peer correction and then teacher correction. The teacher is relatively silent and he/she does not criticize or praise so that the learners learn to rely on themselves. Through this process of correcting errors, the teacher encourages multi-channel communication among the learners, among whom there is no leader. In the Silent Way the teacher sees error correction as an opportunity for language learners to learn. Richards and Rodgers (1986: 103 and 2001) state that it is this capacity of self-correction through self-awareness that the Silent Way claims differ most notably from other methods.

Proponents of the Silent Way claim that the principles of the method are far-reaching. The principles do not apply in language teaching only. Even, the principles not only affect education but also the way people perceive the living of life itself (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 68 and 2000). Language teachers or prospective language teachers have to ask themselves which principles can

be implemented in English teaching in their condition and situation. They may develop some techniques deriving from the principles of the Silent Way and try out the techniques in teaching English in Indonesia.

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An Example of Bubble Diagram

adjective → positive comparison (as short as)

comparative degree

possessive pronoun

superlative degree → which

this and that → these and those

here and there

is, are

some, several and a lot

colors → under, in, on

ROD

numbers ← how many

take → give → article

have, has ← subject pronoun   object pronoun

past tense   present cont. tense

who   what

when   negative

conditional sentence "if"

5

COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING

5.1 BACKGROUND

Community Language Learning (CLL) is the name of a method introduced and developed by Charles A. Curran and his associates. Curran was a specialist in counseling and a professor of psychology at Loyola University in Chicago. It is no doubt that this method has been inspired by the application of psychological counseling techniques to learning, which is called Counseling-Learning. Community Language Learning represents the use of Counseling-Learning theory to teach foreign languages.

If the term "counseling" is traced back, it refers to the idea that there is a relationship between a counselor and a client(s). The counselor gives advice, assistance and support to his/her clients, who have a problem(s). In Community Language learning this kind of relationship is considered basic to learning a foreign language. The teacher functions as the counselor and the learners as his/her clients. Since CLL sees a language learner as the whole person, including his/her psychological aspects such as emotions and feeling, CLL techniques are also described as humanistic techniques.

The concept of "community" has been used in this method because when such relationship mentioned above is applied specifically to groups with the task of learning a second language, a very special kind of community-involvement results. Language learners and their language teacher build an

intense atmosphere of warmth. This kind of security and support from one another in the group is really typical in this method and almost the exact opposite of the atmosphere in the schooling setting. The language learners never feel isolated and alone because everybody belongs to the group and everybody sits in a "community" and senses positive regard of everyone else (Curran, 1976:1). CLL represents an attempt to put the insights from psychology to work in the teaching and learning of foreign languages. The method emphasizes on "community" learning, as opposed to individual learning as some other traditional teaching does.

If the concept of counseling and its application in Community language learning are compared, the language teaching tradition of CLL represent the underlying concepts of the client-counselor relationship in psychological counseling (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 114 and 2001).

No.	Psychological Counseling	Community Language Learning
1.	Client and counselor agree to counseling	Learner and knower (teacher) agree to language learning
2.	Client articulates his/her problems in language of affect	Learner presents to the knower (in L1) a message he/she wishes to deliver to another
3.	Counselor listens carefully	Knower listens and other learners overhear
4.	Counselor restates client message in language of cognition	Knower restates learner's message in L2
5.	Client evaluates the accuracy of counselor's message restatement	Learner repeats the L2 message form to its addressee
6.	Client reflects on the interaction of counseling session	Learner replays (from tape or memory) and reflects upon the message exchanged during the language class

The procedure of CLL above, which has been developed from the concepts of counseling psychology, is not easy to understand and implement in language classes. Language teachers have to develop the principles of CLL by considering conditions and situations where language learners are learning a foreign language. The procedure may be developed in different ways, depending on the culture, the proficiency level, and the classroom setting. Language learners from different cultures seem to have different

ways of acquiring a foreign language. A language teacher's behavior also adapt to the culture of the language learners. Some behavior of a language teacher in learning-teaching process is welcome in a certain culture but may not be proper in another culture. Ways of teaching are also different among students of different levels due to different ways of learning. The suggested procedure may be easily implemented in language classes in Western countries, which consists of fewer students than those in Asian countries, particularly in Indonesia. Even though different procedures of language teaching may exist, CLL has basic principles as proposed by Curran (1976: 28-30). The basic principles represent the steps of learning a foreign language.

5.2 THE PRINCIPLES OF CLL

The basic principles of CLL can be described in processes by which language learners acquire a foreign language. The processes can be considered as stages in language learning.

Stages in language Counselor-Client relationship from counselor dependency to independence

Stage 1

The client is completely dependent on the language counselor:

1. First, he expresses only to the counselor and *in his mother tounge* what he/she wishes to say to the group. Each group member overhears this English exchange,but is not involved in it.

2. The counselor then reflects these ideas back to the client *in the foreign language* in a warm, accepting tone, in simple language in phrases of five or six words.

3. The client turns to the group and presents his ideas *in the foreign language*. He has the counselor's aid if he mispronounces or hesitates on a word or phrase.

This is the client's maximum *security stage*.

Stage 2

1. Same as above

2. The client turns and begins to speak the foreign language directly to the group.

    3.   The counselor aids only as the client hesitates or turns for help. These small independent steps are signs of positive confidence and hope.

Stage 3

    1.   The client speaks directly to the group *in the foreign language*. This presumes that the group has now acquired the ability to understand his simple phrases.

    2.   Same as (3) above.

This presumes the client's greater confidence, independence and proportionate insight into the relationship of phrases, grammar and ideas. Translation is given only when a group member desires it.

Stage 4

    1.   The client is now speaking freely and complexly in *the foreign language*. Presumes group's understanding.

    2.   The counselor directly intervenes in grammatical error, mispronunciation or where aid in complex expression is needed. The client is sufficiently secure to take correction.

Stage 5

    1.   Same as IV

    2.   The counselor intervenes not only to offer correction but to add idioms and more elegant constructions

    3.   At this stage, the client can become counselor to group in Stage I, II, and III.

      The five stages represent how language learners leave their dependency and come to their independence. The stages are the processes in which the knower and the learners interrelate. The relationship may involve either the teacher-knower as the understanding, sensitive counselor and the learners or with the other learners as cognitive counselor. The teacher as the knower may provide the conditions for the learners to acquire a foreign language and at the same time to be involved in learning to communicate with other people. These processes seem to be the response to a problem that language learners may get a high grade in learning a foreign language but are inadequate in communication (Curran, 1977).

In stage I total dependency on language counselor (teacher). Ideas that are said in their mother tongue are translated into a foreign language by the counselor. The counselor speaks in the foreign language slowly and sensitively to the client. Even, the counselor speaks a word by a word in order for the client to repeat the expressions in a comfortable way. This stage is considered as an embryonic involvement between knower and learner as "mother" and "child'. It is argued that in this stage the initial anxiety of language learners is overcome by the security of the warm relationship between language teacher and language learners. Language learners begin to have a separate identity by having their voices in the target language tape-recorded.

In stage II the client begins courage to make some attempts to speak in the foreign language as words or phrases from the counselor are picked up and retained. The counselor still helps the client when the client hesitates to speak and need help. This stage is also called self-assertion stage. In this stage language learners start to use simple phrases on their own with great personal satisfaction. The language learners pick up expressions that they have heard and use them as the beginning of their independence.

In stage III the client grows independence with mistakes that are corrected by the counselor. The counselor corrects the mistakes as long as the client needs to be corrected. The counselor does not have to correct the whole mistakes. Correcting the whole mistakes is not always wise for the client's learning process. In this stage language learners are expected to communicate on his own unless they need help. They undergo a transformation into independence in the foreign language.

In stage IV the client begins to be independent to make their new expressions based on the available words and grammar. The client needs the counselor only for more difficult expressions and grammar. In this stage language learners feel independent in communication and find themselves insulted when they are corrected by the language teacher. When language learners have arrived at this stage, it is difficult and even embarrassing for the knower to offer any further knowledge by way of interruption, correction, addition, or better construction.

The last stage, stage V, is the stage of independence. The client makes free communication in the foreign language. The presence of the counselor only reinforces correctness and pronunciation. Even though language learners are independent, they still receive subtle improvements from language expert. Language learners of this stage can then become counselors to other less advanced language learners.

The whole stages how language learners acquire a foreign language may be simplified into two main steps: *investment* and *reflection* (Stevick, 1976: 126). In the investment phase, the learner commits himself/herself, as much as he is able and willing, as he/she engages in a conversation with other members of the learning community. Stage I, stage II, and stage III seem to belong to the first step: investment, and stage IV and stage V to the second step: investment. In the reflection phase, the learner stands back and looks at what he, as apart of the community, has done in the investment phase. As he/she remains a member of the community.

In learning a foreign language learners need psychological requirements. In CLL the requirements for successful learning are collected under acronym SARD (Curran, 1976:6), which can be explained as follows. S stands for *security*. Feeling security is essential in learning-teaching process. Unless knower and learners feel secure, they will find it difficult to enter into a successful learning-teaching process. A stands for *attention and aggression*. Without attention language learners will not learn a language optimally. Inattention is considered natural in CLL. Loss of attention is an indication that language learners lack involvement in learning a foreign language. The knower has to consider this condition positively; he/she has to provide variety in learning tasks in order to increase attention and promote learning. R stands for *retention and reflection*. Retention is the final process of absorbing what is studied into oneself and being able to retrieve and use it later with ease. The process of absorbing is then followed by the second R, reflection. Language learners need to take a period of silence to reflect what has been learned. D denotes *discrimination*. Language learners need to identify the sounds they are hearing, the meanings of the words they have learned and the grammatical usage. Without conscious processes of discrimination language learners may think they know what they have learned when in fact they still do not.

Assumptions About Language And Language Learning

Different methods have different assumptions about language and language learning or teaching. Some methods state the assumptions explicitly and some others do not. In some methods the assumptions are implicitly stated. The assumptions of CLL are not purely assumptions about language and language learning as the method was not originally developed for language teaching. The assumptions of CLL are as more psychologically oriented statements about learning in general. The basic principles of counseling-learning have implications on language learning and language teaching. The following are the assumptions of CLL method from different sources.

5.3   ASSUMPTION ABOUT LANGUAGE

Assumption 1

In CLL the class begins with conversation in the language of the learners. Language learners really express what is in their mind and responses from other learners are also logical and communicative expressions. Language learners do not learn what is in teacher's head or what has been developed in syllabus. This strategy seems to maintain learners' security since the learners feel more secure when they know what they are going to study. The procedure above has been developed from the assumption that *language is purposeful behavior between people, intertwined with other kinds of purposive behavior between the same people* (Stevick, 1976)

Assumption 2

La Forge (cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:115-116 and 2001) states that CLL method sees *language as social process, meaning that language is person in contact and in response.* The assumption of CLL about language can be seen from the process of language teaching. In CLL Language is not only used to communicate but also to deepen intimacy between learners and between learners and knower. CLL also sees language as a set of sound systems that have special meanings and grammatical patterns. Since language is considered as social process, the syllabus of CLL method is not prepared.

The " syllabus" may be a spontaneous syllabus that happen to be the topic of the discussion proposed by language learners. Language-teachers cannot prepare a teaching material as expected by other traditional methods.

5.4   ASSUMPTION ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Assumption 1

In CLL language learners are seated in circle and they only face other language learners, and the knower, who is relatively a stranger to them, remains outside the group. The knower is the only one around that the language learners are defending themselves from. By sitting together among other learners in a circle and the knower outside the language learners are not worried about defending themselves. In doing this procedure there is a underlying principle about learning. This principle can be stated that *the human person learns new behavior rapidly if the learner is not busy defending himself from someone else* (Stevick, 1976).

Assumption 2

With regard to language learning, CLL advocates *language learning is both cognitive and affective* (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 117 and 2001). This assumption suggests that interaction between learners and knower is central. In CLL the role of a language teacher is not only to teach a foreign language but also the knower of the target language that has to maintain learners' security. This assumption can be traced back to *whole-person learning* (Curran, 1977).

Assumption 3

Referring to the whole-person learning, CLL advocates believe that *language learning will take place if language learners maintain their feeling of security*. This assumption can be seen from how knower behaves in the classroom as discussed in the *procedure* section. The knower always maintains learners' security during the learning process. This calls for creativity of language teachers since different cultures sometimes expect different behaviors from teachers in order to keep learners' security.

5.5   PROCEDURE OF CLL

Curran does not provide explicitly the procedure of teaching a foreign language through CLL. Some practitioners in teaching foreign languages suggest different procedures (Stevick, 1980, Stroingg, 1980, and Dutra, 1980, Larsen-Freeman, 1986 and 2000). This part tells about the writer's experience of being a student that took place at the School for International Training, Brattleboro, Vermont, USA, in 1987. Stevick taught Swahili, which is a foreign language to the writer. The teaching was meant to show how language learners learned a foreign language through CLL. The procedure introduced here was also adapted from Stevick' work (1980: 149).

Preliminary contact

Stevick was the knower of Swihili language. He introduced and talked with the whole class in the evening after his arrival from Hawaii. Some students of Master of Art in Teaching at School for International Training were chosen to be language learners in his Swihili class. In the following morning the knower began the class by reminding the students the first step in the procedure. This was considered important as the class would begin by recording the learners' voices and this was not common in a language class. Like the students, the knower wore informal clothing without a tie, which is unusual for a guest speaker in United States. The unusual (but warm) informal opening of the class was later identified asestablishing *security* among the language learners.

Investment: making the recording

The 12 learners were seated on simple metal folding chairs arranged in a tight circle. The other students of the program were standing outside the circle, watching the class. On the floor in the center of the circle was a cassette tape recorder with a start-stop switch on microphone. The knower was outside the circle. The knower said that the class would continue for about 10 minutes. The knower said that the learners who had something to say signaled that fact by raising his/her hand and taking the microphone in his/her hand. The learners talked one another and said something in English. Then, the knower went and stood behind his/her, placing his hands lightly on his/her arms just below the shoulder, and his face about four inches

from his/her left ear. When a learner said something in English, the knower gave equivalent expressions in Swahili language. The knower spoke loudly enough for the other language learners. The learner repeated the knower's expressions. Some learners could not repeat the whole expressions and the knower spoke the expressions into chunks. After a learner was sure that he/she could speak the expressions, the learner turned on the tape recorder when he/she spoke. Some learners recorded the expressions by chunks as they could not remember the whole expressions. The knower spoke a part of the expressions and they spoke the part and recorded it. By doing this way, the recording was entirely the voices of the learners and entirely in the target language.

Reflection: Listening to the tape and writing the conversation down

The knower and learners then listened to the tape, once without interruption, and once stopping after each sentence for the learners to recall the general meaning of the sentence. Then, the knower and learners played the tape again and the knower wrote down on blackboard. The knower put English literal translation under the Swahili expressions. The knower did not want the learners to make a copy of the written expressions.

Discrimination: passive listening and writing sentences

The knower then read the sentences and asked the learners not to read the written expressions on the blackboard. The knower read each sentence three times. First, he read every word and literally translated the word into English. The second reading was animated and read as in actual conversation. The third reading was read in positive and optimistic tone of voice. The learners were divided into groups of three and they were asked to make their own sentences in Swahili based on the sentences they have learned.

Reflection

After a break, the knower told the learners that he was going to talk to them in Swahili for a few minutes. It was a monologue and there would be no questions and answers between the knower and learners. Following the monologue, there was a long silence and the learners began telling what the

knower said and the knower confirmed or disconfirmed what the learners guessed.

The process of language teaching above may be summarized in a simple procedure as presented in a first day of CLL class by Dieter Stroinigg (in Stevick 1980: 185-6)

1. The class begins with an informal meeting and everyone introduces himself or herself.
2. The knower makes a statement of the goal and guidelines for the course.
3. They form a circle so that everyone has visual contact with one another and everyone is within easy reach of the microphone of a tape recorder.
4. A volunteer student initiates conversation with other students by giving a message in their mother tongue.
5. The knower goes and stand behind the student, whispers an equivalent translation of the message in the target language.
6. The student repeats the message that has been translated into the target language and record his expressions in a tape recorder.
7. Each student in the group has a chance to express his/her message and record them.
8. The knower always stands behind the students who are saying their statements and translate their messages in the target language.
9. The tape recorder is rewound and replayed at intervals.
10. Each student repeats his message in the target language
11. The knower chooses sentences to write on the blackboard that highlight some elements of language, such as grammar, vocabulary (translation) or pronunciation.
12. The students may ask questions about any of the elements discussed.
13. The knower encourages the students to copy sentences from the blackboard including the translation in their mother tongue. The copy becomes their textbook for home study.

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6

SUGGESTOPEDIA

6.1   BACKGROUND

Suggestopedia is the name of a method developed by a Bulgarian scientist, Georgi Lozanov. Lozanov, who was a physician and psychotherapist, developed his method in Bulgaria and the method was then introduced in the Soviet Union, Hungary and East German. Suggestopedia has been used in a number of Bulgarian schools for the teaching a variety of subjects even though the principle area of concerns is teaching foreign languages. The proponents of the method claim that their method works equally well whether or not language learners spend time on outside study, and gifted and ungifted language learners study the target language successfully. Lozanov (cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 142 and 2001) claims that memorization in learning by the suggestopedic method will be accelerated 25 times over that in learning by conventional methods. His method can be used to teach both adults and children. His experiment with adults and children shows that in five weeks they achieved a basic conversational ease in either French, English, German, Spanish or Russian, had a working vocabulary of 2000 words with 90% accuracy in recognition recall (Dorothy, 1981: 24). His original method cannot be separated from the use of yoga, role-play, hypnotizing, and music. The method considers the function of analytical, linear left hemisphere of the brain and that of the intuitive, spatially responsive right hemisphere in a relaxed way which results in accelerated and highly motivated learning.

Lozanov Method was first given attention in the West in 1979. Lozanov himself came to the USA and trained a small number of teachers in teaching foreign languages through his method. Since that time Lozanov method has been adapted to the American scene but the method is still in accordance with the environment where it was originally developed: pleasant, cheerful and decorated. Many American researchers have centered on the elements of the method rather than the Lozanov method as a whole. Some modification has been made in order that the method could be used for American students and the researchers have been obliged to abandon some elements of the Lozanov Method (Oller and Amato, 1983: 108). The elements of the method that are worth considering are an attractive classroom, teachers with a dynamic personality and a state of relaxed alertness in their students. Foreign language teachers need to be trained in acting and psychology in order for them to be able to present foreign language classes through gesture and intonation. The adapted method is finally called Acquisition through Creative Teaching (ACT). Recently, in the USA the Lozanov Method has also been modified for general education (De Porter and Hernacki, 1992; De Porter, Reardon and Singer-Nourie, 1999). The modification of the method suggests some ideas worth considering in students' learning and teachers' teaching.

ACT is not merely a method in foreign language teaching. It is an approach to education. Whose primary objective is to tap the extraordinary reserve capacity human beings posses but rarely if ever use. ACT considers the function of analytical, linear left hemisphere of the brain and that of the intuitive, spatially responsive right hemisphere in a relaxed way which results in accelerated and highly motivated learning (Dorothy, 1981: 23). The potentials of the brain can be activated by using music. The music can facilitate the establishment and maintenance of personal relations and bring about increased self-esteem through increased self-satisfaction in musical performance. The music can also relax learners as well as structure, pace and punctuate the presentation of linguistic material (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 143 and 2001). Originally, the method could not be separated from classical music, yoga and parapsychology.

6.2 PRINCIPLES OF SUGGESTOPEDIA

The principles of the method are derived from observations based on control experiments (Stevick, 1976: 42). The first principle is that people are able to learn at rates many times greater that what we commonly assume to be the limits of human performance. The second principle is that learning is global; it involves the entire person. The third principle is that people learn either consciously or unconsciously or both, either rationally or irrationally or both. Lozanov method is thought to be more concerned with irrational and unconscious processes. The concept of unconsciousness (paraconsciousness) comprises numerous unconscious forms such as associating and coding. Lozavov (1982: 148) gives an example of the process with the process of reading. When we read something, we are not aware of the many unconscious components which constitute the activity, for example, the ideas which build up notions, the letters and the words which we happen to be reading. The last principle is the one that many people do not always agree with.

In Lozanov method it is believed that people posses considerable mental reserves which they rarely if ever tap under normal circumstances; it is also believed that human being uses 5-10% of his/her brain capacity at the most (Dorothy,1981: 25). Among the examples of human capacities that may be tapped to be optimally used are the ability to learn rapidly and recall with ease large number of materials, solve problems with great rapidity and spontaneity, respond to complex stimuli with creativity. In order to reach the optimal use of brain capacity, the method suggests language learners to activate the reserve capacities of language learners. This can be done by "suggestion". By suggestion, language teachers can create learning situation in which the optimal use of brain capacities can be achieved. Lozanov believes that people are able to learn at rates many times greater than what we commonly assume to be the limits of human performance.

Suggestion can work well when the learners remove the prior automatic patterns and open the access to great potential of mental reserve. Without de-suggesting (removing) the patterns, it is hard for suggestion to function. The learners must be assured that they have *anti-suggestive barriers* and they have to remove them in order to open the access of the suggestion. The three anti-suggestive barriers are critical logical, intuitive-affective, and ethical (Lozanov, 1982: 148). The first anti-suggestive barrier is critical anti-

suggestive barrier. This barrier rejects suggestion through reasoning. If the learners think that it is impossible to learn a foreign language as Lozanov believes, the possibility to be successful learners is very slim. This barrier is the conscious critical thinking. The second anti-suggestive barrier is intuitive-affective barrier. This seems to be emotional barrier. This barrier is believed to come from anything that may produce a feeling of lack confidence or insecurity. If the learners feel that they will loose their confidence or self-esteem, they are likely not to reach the success in learning. The third anti-suggestive barrier is ethical barrier. The learners will reject everything that is not in harmony with the ethical sense they have. The ethical sense may have been established from family or society.

In Lozanov method it is also believed that learning involves the entire person. The response of a man to every stimulus is very complex. It also involves many unconscious processes which have become automatic responses. For example, when we begin to fall, we respond in many ways, physically, emotionally, and mentally. These responses are unconscious (Dorothy, 1981: 25). Such responses are largely patterned in many ways and individuals have peculiar ways. Their responses would tend to be automatic and typical for individuals. The differences in responding to learning stimuli are also unique and different people would respond similar stimuli in different ways.

There are two basic kinds of suggestion in Lozanov method: direct and indirect. Direct suggestion is meant to deal with conscious processes and indirect suggestion to deal with unconscious processes. The examples of conscious processes are all activities that occur in direct learning-teaching interaction. The examples of indirect suggestion are communication factors outside our conscious awareness such as voice, tone, facial expression, body posture and movement, speech tempo, rhythms, accent, etc. Another factor in language learning that can function as indirect suggestion is classroom arrangement, such as décor, lighting, noise level, etc. The two types of suggestion are often called two planes of learning process; they are the conscious and rational plane and the plane of the nonconscious and nonrational (Stevick, 1976: 43). All kinds of suggestion can reinforce or hinder the processes of language learning. The inputs on these two planes should

support each other, rather canceling each other. In other words, everything in the communication and learning environment is a stimulus that will be processed at some level of mental activity. It is said that the more language teachers can do to orchestrate purposefully the conscious as well as the unconscious factors in the learning environment, the greater the chance to open the access to the great potential of the mental reserves.

Means of suggestions

To create effective learning environment there are several means of suggestion which are the most powerful and essential for language teachers. This suggestion may overcome the anti-suggestive barriers the learners have(Dorothy, 1981: 28).

1. A careful orchestrated physical environment: an uncrowded room, aesthetically pleasing, well lighted, furnished with comfortable chairs to facilitate a relaxed state.
2. The teacher is thoroughly trained in the art of suggestive communication -with a) a well developed sense of authority, b) the ability to evoke a receptive, playful, child-like state in the students, c) a mastery of double-plane behavior, especially the ability to use appropriately and purposefully suggestive language, voice, intonation, facial and body expression.
3. Music: certain selected music is used for special "concert" presentations of material to be learned. Music is also used to evoke a mentally relaxed state.
4. Carefully integrated suggestive written materials.
5. Visual stimuli: posters, pictures, charts, and illustrations. The arts offer us the greatest examples of unified suggestive expression, and we should make effort to integrate them into the learning environment .

It is clear that language teachers should be well trained in the Suggestopedia in order to present language materials through this method. Or, they just consider some of the basic principles of the method and implement them in foreign language teaching. The teacher is the most essential factor in the method. The personality of the teacher should have certain characteristics (Dorothy, 1981: 29). The following are some of the characteristics expected from language teacher.

1. The teacher should love and master the subject.
2. The teacher should have energetic, joyful, playful spirit.
3. The teacher should have a well-integrated personality.
4. The teacher should have well-developed sense of authority.
5. The teacher should have balanced self-esteem and esteem for others.
6. The teacher should have well- developed feeling for music, especially classical.
7. The teacher should have flexible communication: ability to respond and incorporate.

To teach a foreign language through the Suggestopedia, language teacher is also expected to have sense of drama and the theatrical and knowledge of visual arts. This sense is needed to create the learning environment conducive to learning success since through this knowledge the teacher may provide the language learners with suggestion.

6.3   BASIC ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE

Even though Lozanov does not articulate a theory of language, the method emphasizes on memorization of vocabulary and its native translation (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 144 and 2001). The materials to teach seem to be texts with its translation, followed by explanations of grammar of the foreign language (Dorothy, 1981:1-22). The texts may comprise of dialogues, songs or pictures with words in a target language. In other words, the method suggests that language is seen as a set of grammatical rules and its vocabulary. Grammatical rules and its vocabulary are presented in texts. Language teachers should present and explain the grammar and vocabulary but these components of the language are not the main activity of the teachers (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 78 and 2000). Translation into mother tongue is not avoided as long as it makes the meaning clear. The texts are graded by lexis and grammar. Language learners are expected to learn a vocabulary list consisting of new words in the target language. Since the method is proud of being able to make language learners have a working vocabulary consisting of 2,000 words after 5 weeks of learning (Dorothy, 1981: 24), memorization of words seems to be an important goal of the method.

The textbook in the suggestopedic approach plays an important role. The content and lay out should contribute the success in teaching and

learning. The text usually consists of a lighthearted story with a pleasant and emotional spot. The first lesson consists of the greater part of the new materials-600 to 800 unfamiliar words (Lozanov, 1982: 158). This variety of vocabulary is meant for the students not to feel conditioned in language choice.

6.4   BASIC ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Like other methods, the Suggestopedia also has assumptions about learning. Some of the assumptions seem to be different from other methods; they are not only psychological but also metaphysical. The following are basic assumptions about learning.

1. Learning involves the unconscious functions, as well as the conscious functions. We sometimes remember the meaning of a word when we remember the situation in which we learned the word. Sometimes we cannot avoid having unconscious processes involved in the process of thinking. We may be aware of many other things that are connected with the word, such as objects, actions, feeling, thoughts, and other things though we do not mean to think about them. In learning a foreign language learners are exposed to learning environment which accelerate the process of learning (Stevick, 1980: 230).

2. The norms of the society often block the process of learning. Language learners are often blocked by the limitations which the society has suggested. They sometimes think that certain processes of learning are culturally or ethically unaccepted. There is an ethical barrier (Dorothy, 1981: 28). The learners tend to reject everything not in harmony with the ethical sense of the personality. This kind of sense may have been internalized by the norms of the society.

3. In learning learners need some psychological and artistic tools (Stevick, 1980: 239). The psychological tools include liveliness, joy and cheerfulness in the learning environment. This can be seen in a language class of Suggestopedia, where the lighting is dim; there is soft music playing; there are some posters on the walls (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 73 and 2000). This kind of artistic learning environment is expected to reduce psychological tensions.

4. Related to the second assumption, removing the psychic tensions will accelerate the process of learning (Stevick, 1980: 235). Tension removing can also be done through two channels: the design of the materials and the behavior of the teacher. The text is designed in such a way that allows language learners to follow the printed texts in parallel native language and target language versions. Even though the teacher reads and recites the texts, he/she may give translations and explanations when needed.

5. Related to the consciousness and unconsciouness, learning will take place effectively when there is a unity of the conscious-paraconscious and integral brain activation. The principle of unity of the conscious-paraconscious and integral brain activation is in fact a principle of globality. Not only are the learners' conscious reactions and functions utilized but also his paraconscious activity. This principle recognizes the simultaneous global participation of the two brain hemispheres and the cortical and subcortical structures, and also the simultaneously occurring analysis and synthesis. When this principle is observed, the process of instruction comes to nearer to the natural psychological and physiological regularities in personality. The consciousness, in the sense of attitude and motivation, is lifted to a still higher level. Under the conditions of the suggestopedic educational system the process of instruction is not against the natural inseparability of the conscious and paraconscious functions (Lozanov, 1982: 155).

6. Activating learners' imagination will aid learning (Larsen- Freeman, 1986: 77 and 2000). This can be done by inviting the learners to take mental trip with the teacher. All of the learners are given new names in the target language and new identities. During the class, each of the students will create an imaginary biography about the life. The students will act differently as usual, depending on their new identities. Their new identities will make the students learn the target language with their imagination. Then, they will imagine that they are going to a country where the target language is spoken.

6.5   PROCEDURES OF SUGGESTOPEDIA

Even though the Suggestopedia is a method in general teaching, Lozanov suggests three principles of the suggestopedic lesson in a foreign

language: the pre-session phase, the session phase, and the post-session phase.

The pre-session phase takes about 15 to 20 minutes. In this phase the students are made familiar with the key topics of the new materials for the first time. The organization of this "first encounter" is of particular importance in creating a positive mind set for reserve capacities. A great part of the material is memorized during this phase. The teacher explains the new material very briefly, i.e., deciphers the thematic dialogue in a few supporting points. In doing this, he must suggest through his behavior that the assimilation has begun and all is pleasant and easy. Already during the deciphering, which is a stage of giving the primary information, the following stages should be noted: fixation, reproduction, and new creative production.

The session phase comprises the session itself, which has already been described above. It lasts for 45 minutes, and with it the day's lesson always come to an end.

The post-session phase is devoted to various elaborations of the materials to activate its assimilation.

The elaborations comprise reading and translation of the text, songs, games, an extra text (a monologue), retelling, and conversation on given themes. All this merges into role-playing should take place only when the students themselves express the wish to do it. The activation must be spontaneous. Thus the teaching and learning acquires sense and meaning (Lozanov, 1982: 158).

The principles suggested in the suggestopedic lesson can be developed in a wide range of techniques. The following is a procedure of Suggestopedia in teaching a foreign language introduced by Larsen-Freeman (1986) and supported by the writer's experience when Dorothy taught a foreign language to show how the method works at the School for International Training, Brattleboro, Vermont, USA, in 1987.

The students are seated in cushioned armchairs that are arranged in a semicircle facing the front of the room. The lighting is dim. There is soft music playing. There are several posters on the walls. Most of them are travel posters. Some posters contain grammatical information.

The teacher greets the students in the target language (German) tells them in English in that they are about to begin a new and exciting experience in language learning.

With the music playing the teacher invites the students to close their eyes and to become aware of their breathing. She says almost in whisper " In, out, in, out". She then invites the students to take an imaginary trip with her. She tells them that they are going to Germany. She will be their guide. She describes the air plane flight, what they will see when they first land and how they will feel in the airport. She tells them to listen to the German all around them and to feel themselves replying fluently in German to questions posed to them by the customs and immigration officials. "Now," she says "slowly bring your awareness back to this room, its sound and its smells. When you are ready, open your eyes. Welcome to German" (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 72-77 and 2001).

The introduction process in teaching a foreign language mentioned above seems to refer to the nonconscious and nonrational plane. The teacher attempts to suggest psychological barriers the learners bring in their mind by providing a relaxed and comfortable learning environment. This technique is believed to have power to penetrate the unconsciousness of the learners. The teacher also assures the learners that they will be successful learners; the teacher speaks in an authoritative way. This technique is meant to suggest childlike interaction. This state is called *infantilisation* (Stevick, 1976: 156). This method uses a wide variety of means to help the students to achieve the childlike openness, plasticity and creativity.

Next, the teacher tells that during the course the students will create an imaginary biography about the life of their new identity. But for now, she says, they should just choose a profession to go with the new name. Using pantomime to help the students understand, the teacher acts out various occupations, such as pilot, singer, carpenter, and artist. The students choose what they want to be.

The teacher greets each student using his new name and asks him a few questions in German about his new occupation. Through her actions the students understand the meaning and reply yes or no in German. She then teaches them a short German dialog in which two people greet each other and inquire what each other does for a living. After practicing the

dialogue with the group and with individual students, the teacher tells the class to pretend that they are each at a party where they don't know anyone. The students stand up and walk around the room, greeting one another (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 74 and 2000).

By having new identity, the learners feel more secure because they can hide their real life. They can be open in expressing whatever they want since they have no secret in communication; they are pretending so that whatever they say is not their real life. By having a party, they also have fun in learning a foreign language. Lots of play, fun, imagination, and humor are the characteristics of the optimal learning environment (Dorothy, 1981: 30). The idea of role playing with new identity is to bypass the left brain and permits the right brain to intake the target language. This can relax the resistance to language acquisition that comes from the critical thinking of the left hemisphere. It is believed that the left hemisphere constantly advises us that we should stick to what we know (Ashers, 1988: 228-229).

Next, She distributes a handout that contains a lengthy dialog. She has the students turn the page. In the left is the German dialog and in the right is the English translation. The handout also contains vocabulary items and explanation about the grammar that the students will encounter in the dialog. The teacher reads the dialog and the learners listen to the reading. The students are allowed to read the translation on the left of the page. The class continues with the practice of communicating in the target language by singing German songs or other games.

Lozanov also describes the main part of a Suggestopedia language class. This is the last part of the three distinct parts in language class (cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 151).

At the beginning of the session, all conversation stops for a minute or two, and the teacher listens to the music coming from a tape-recorder. He waits and listens to several passages in order to enter into the mood of the music and then begins to read or recite the new text, his voice modulated in harmony with the musical phrases. The students follow the text in their textbooks where each lesson is translated into the mother tongue. Between the first and the second part of the concert, there are several minutes of solemn silence. In some cases, even longer pauses can

be given to permit the students to stir a little. Before the beginning of the second part of the concert, there are again several minutes of silence, and some phrases of the music are heard before the teacher begins to read the text. Now the students close their textbooks and listen to the teacher's reading. At the end, the students silently leave the room. They are not told to do any homework on the lesson they have just had except for reading it cursorily once before going to bed and again before getting up in the morning.

Suggestopedia has been criticized. As noted by Scovel (cited in Brown, 1987: 141), Lozanov's experimental data on the success of language learning were highly questionable. The practicality of using Suggestopedia is also questionable since in this method language teacher requires comfortable chairs and music which are often not available. Scovel only suggests that language teachers must try to extract from the insights of the method and adapt those insights to their teaching contexts.

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7

TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE

7.1   BACKGROUND

Total physical response (TPR) is a method developed by James J. Ashers, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, California. Dr. Ashers began experimenting with TPR in the 1960s. The method has been developed from developmental psychology, learning theory and language learning procedures. He has been invited to present his successful total physical response approach in the USA and England, and other parts of the world.

TPR is based on the premise that the human brain has a biological program for acquiring any language. Based on the developmental psychology, the proponents of TPR claim that memory is increased if it is stimulated through association with motor activity and the process of learning a foreign language is a parallel process to learning the first language (Brown, 1987: 163). Children do a lot of listening before they learn to speak and they do a lot of physical activities in learning their first language, such as reaching, moving and grabbing. In having children learn the first language commands from the adult dominate the communication and children respond physically before they begin to produce verbal responses (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 87). Based on their first language acquisition, TPR emphasizes on comprehension and delays the production of language. This process is the one by which children acquire their first language.

Many people believe that TPR is only appropriate for children since the method relies on imperatives. However, Ashers (1988: 3-1) believe that the method can be used to teach any foreign language not only to children but also adults. A research on language teaching through TPR conducted by Ashers and Brice (1982) provided data that when adults learn a second language under the same conditions as children, adults outperform children. The only advantage children have is acquiring a near-native pronunciation. He suggests that the time per session should vary depending on the age of the learners. The older the learners are, the longer the time they can learn effectively. Thirty minutes of training one time will be effective for children. Junior and senior high school students respond well to 50-minute sessions while university students can handle up to 3-hour sessions.

The use of imperative may not be possible in all language classes. If the whole procedure of the method cannot be done, Ashers (1988: 3-4) suggests that language teachers use the method as an adjunct to other approaches. He provides some results of experiments that show the effectiveness of the method as the beginning procedure of teaching a foreign language. After the learners understand some words in the target language, the class can continue with other traditional methods, such as audio-lingual method.

The method seems to be done in a class with a large area without chairs and tables. However, the idea is not always true. The use of imperative does not necessarily need the space with chairs and tables (Ashers, 1988: 3-11). The usual classroom with students sitting in rows is acceptable and workable even though Ashers acknowledges that this environment is not an ideal one. The optimal design for this method to work well is a large with six to twelve movie seats. Each set would have three sides that are movable. The sets would represents life situations as the bedroom, kitchen, living room and the park. He also suggests that the ideal group size is 20 to 25 students. If there are more than 40 students in one class, the class can be divided into several smaller groups. First, the teacher utter commands and then model by responding with appropriate action. Each group listens to the commands from the teacher or tape recorder and responds with actions to the spoken commands.

7.2 PRINCIPLES OF TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE

The advocates of TPR believe that language learners should understand the target language before speaking. Language learners can learn through observing actions as well as by performing the actions themselves (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 114 and 2000). By observing actions and performing, they will understand the language they are learning. The meaning of words can be understood by making associations between the utterances they hear and the actions they are observing. The meanings of words they may guess will be internalized by performing the actions in accordance with the commands. Even though performing and observing the actions is often associated with TPR, the tradition of teaching a foreign language through commands had been used long before the introduction of TPR. Palmer and Palmer stated that no method of teaching foreign speech is likely to be economical or successful which does not include in the first period a very considerable proportion of that type of classroom work which consists of the carrying out the pupil of orders by the teacher (cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 88 and 2001). This principle implies that the teaching of speaking is delayed until the comprehension skills are established. At the beginning of language class, learners will spend most of the time in comprehending the target language, especially represented by verbs of imperatives and concrete nouns. Speaking will be introduced later after language learners have enough understanding of the target language.

Having fun makes language learners interested in learning the foreign language is also a principle of the method. The principle that learning a foreign language will be more effective if language learning have fun also belongs to other methods. The difference is that in the TPR fun is provided through physical activities. Physical activities are meant to reduce stress people feel when studying foreign languages (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 117 and 2000). Since physical activities are done at the very beginning of language class, language teacher should be very selective in choosing words to teach. As mentioned earlier, the language to teach should start from the words comprising verbs of imperatives and concrete nouns so that it is easier for language learners to perform and observe the actions. Confusion in performing the actions may cause boredom and frustration, which the method tries to avoid.

Like other methods, the TPR also deals with error correction. Correction is carried out in an unobtrusive manner. When the learners make an error, the teacher repeats the command while acting out (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 115 and 2000). Ashers (1988, 3-6) suggests that the teacher should have wide tolerance for distortions but eventually he/she should narrow the tolerance for production or grammatical errors. The teacher almost dominates the correction. Teacher correction seems to be the only way in dealing with correction. The teacher does not delay the correction; he/she will correct the error as soon as the error is noticed. Although the teacher will finally give a turn to the student to repeat the command, he/she does this only to check whether the student already produces the command properly or not. No peer correction is done; this seems to be avoided in order not to produce further confusion among the learners.

7.3   BASIC ASSUMPTION ABOUT LANGUAGE

Richards and Rodgers (1986: 88 and 2001) states that Ahers does not directly discuss the nature of language and how the language is organized. They conclude that in the TPR method language is seen as a set of grammatical rules and language consists of language chunks. This implies that language class can be organized based on the grammar to teach or the vocabulary items. Grammar is taught through inductive processes. Language learners learn grammar based on sentences used in commands. The grammar is learned together with vocabulary items. The learners first learn the meanings of words in the target language. When the teacher develops the commands by using longer sentences, the learners begin to learn grammar by observing the actions and make associations between the actions and the commands. The learners try to test the result of the associations by giving commands to their peers.

Another assumption about language is that spoken language is emphasized over written language (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 115 and 2000). Spoken language and written language are considered different. Even though Ashers does not specifically discuss the sequence of the skills to be mastered, the procedures he has suggested implies that language class begins with spoken language and written language will be introduced later on and speech has primacy over written language. The class deals with

writing after the learners can perform the commands and give commands to other learners.

TPR also views that verbs are central. The imperative, which is done by using verbs, is the "golden tense" because students of all ages have instant understanding of the target language through the imperative. From the imperative, students can make smooth transition to all other grammatical features. After students internalize certain items through the imperative, they can switch to short dialogues, stories, patterned drills, etc.

7.4 BASIC ASSUMPTION ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Ashers (1988:3-42) indicates some assumptions about language learning. Learning a language is sequential. People learn a foreign language is similar to learning their first language. There is a biological sequence both in learning the first language and foreign languages. The sequence can be observed when the infant learns his/her mother tongue. His/her parents always give commands to the infant. The infant responds to the command "Dave, pick up your red truck and put it in your bed room" by performing it. The infant will pick up his red truck and put it in his bedroom. This fact suggests that the infant has already internalized a sophisticated understanding of the mother tongue. The process follows the principle that understanding of the language comes before speaking. The understanding of the target language is accelerated by presenting the language through commands.

Learning may take place when language learners observe actions and perform the actions themselves (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 114 and 2000). Since not all of the students in the class can perform the actions together with the teacher, the other students in the class should observe the actions and listen to the commands. This is believed that the students who observe the actions also have learning processes. Use of multiple modalities (aural, visual, kinesthetic, spatial) assists in forming long term memories.

Another assumption about language learning is that stress intervenes between the act of learning and what is to be learned; the lower the stress, the greater the learning (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 90-91 and 2001). Therefore, in order for language learners to be successful in learning the

target language, there must be the absence of stress. It is commonly believed that the environment of the foreign language learning often causes stress and anxiety. The advocates of the TPR believe that strong feelings of stress have negative effects on long-term learning. Language teacher should create an exciting learning environment by focusing on meaning interpreted through movement. Language learners do not learn language forms directly; they learn the forms by interpreting them from the commands. Language learners remember meanings much better than forms. This activity is believed to liberate self-conscious and stressful situations and language learners will learn the target language optimally.

The learning teaching interaction gradually moves from teacher centered to student centered (Reynolds: 2001). At the first stage, the interaction begins from the teacher's commands. The students listen to the language used and watch the movements of the teacher and other students as well. They may guess meanings from observations while they are responding to the commands. They themselves may also decide when to change roles: who commands the class. Finally they create the interaction among them and direct themselves to give commands to others.

With regard to learning theory, the TPR also considers the power of the left and right hemispheres of the brain. Motor activity, which is a right-brain function, should precede the language processing of the left brain. Many language learners are believed to be too anxious in learning any foreign language. Language learners should feel stress-free by listening and acting in learning a foreign language. To avoid the students from stress, language class consists of commands and language learners perform physically. Performing physically is believed to make language learners learn the target language more exciting and also believed to make the memory stronger and more likely to be recalled. Therefore, at the beginning the teacher in language class is very directive in orchestrating a performance before language learners take the role of the teacher in giving commands. The learner will be directive when they are ready to produce the language and they will learn the language by giving commands and performing the commands among themselves.

7.5   PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES OF TPR

The teacher in TPR should foster an atmosphere of general euphoria. It is important to ease as much as possible the tension of performing the commands in front of their peers. Collective participation should be encouraged from the beginning. Also, in keeping with the target language, a name in the target language is assigned to each student. Each student places a name card on the desk so it can be read easily even though it is an optional thing to do.

Garcia (1996) has experimented with many seating configurations. He has come to a conclusion that the best way is the seating plan in which the class is divided into two sections facing each other. This way makes the class have enough space to move around. In the back of the room there are three chairs from which the students perform the commands.

There are several techniques utilized in teaching the target language through TPR. Garcia (1996) divides the techniques into *introductory techniques* and *working techniques*. The introductory techniques refer to the many ways in which a new item or command can be presented for the first time to the students. Working techniques refer to the ways in which the commands and supporting vocabulary already presented to the students can be combined and explained in order to advance in the target language. It is believed that each of the techniques has two activities that make the two hemispheres of the brain: the left and right hemisphere. Motor activity, which is a right-brain function, should precede the language processing of the left brain. The commands introduced by the teacher activate the right hemisphere and the activities of the students activate the left hemisphere of the brain.

The following introductory techniques of TPR are taken from Gracia (1996):

1. The teacher utters and models the commands for the students. The students perform the commands by listening to the teacher and by doing what he/she does.
2. The teacher creates situations in which a student has to choose between two items. The student already knows one item well therefore, by the process of elimination, the other item is immediately recognized.
3. With the introduction of a new word, the student has to choose from three items of which only one is known. If the person guesses the wrong

one, another try is needed. If the guess is correct, the reward is a word of praise from the teacher.

4. The teacher introduces a new item by making very obvious to the student what to perform, either through gestures or other additional cues.

5. The teacher introduces new materials by performing the commands on a cassette. The instructor records his own voice and then follows each direction as it is uttered, but sometimes makes an incorrect response which is corrected by the voice on tape.

The introductory techniques above can be continued with the following working techniques (Gracia, 1996):

1. Sometimes it takes a great effort for the student to transfer a concept to another situation. Hence, it is important to present an item in many different situations and to recombine vocabulary.

2. The teacher should follow as slow pace in introducing material. A barrage of vocabulary will be counter- productive in the retention of learned items.

3. Besides recombining the vocabulary presented, it is valuable to expand the meaning by accretion so to speak. This can be accomplished by putting the lexical items in more complicated performances.

4. As the students increase their comprehensive vocabulary, it is of great value to include functional words such as *of, with, and,* etc. that keep the language smooth and together.

5. It is very beneficial for the learner to keep retrieving the original material introduced. These basic commands learned early in training are the foundation upon which more complex construction can be anchored.

6. From the start, it is useful to introduce equivalents and synonyms. This technique may sound confusing, but it is not if properly done.

7. As the students learn more individual commands, it is an effective procedure to give several commands in sequence to be performed in a continuous action. The teacher should not get too ambitious in this strategy. When abused, this technique could cause more harms than benefits. Also, if over-extended this is more an exercise in memorization than comprehension.

8. The teacher should be very cautious about the idea of introducing prematurely an overwhelming number of vocabulary items. In the long

run this is not desirable because it tends to create confusion. It is better to introduce a few items at a time.

Ashers (1988) has written a book consisting of a relatively complete syllabus of teaching English as a foreign language. In the book he not only provides the readers with the language materials but the procedures of presenting the materials as well.

> Using hand signals, motion four students to come up to the front of the classroom. Then gesture for two students to sit on either side of you facing the class. Other students in the class are often seated in a semi-circle so that there is a rather large space for the action.

> Then say "stand up!" and immediately stand up as you motion the students seated on either side of you to stand up. Next say, "Sit down!" and immediately sit down along with the four students. If any student tries to repeat what you have said, signal silence by touching your lips with your index finger. Then say "Stand up!", and the group, including the instructor, should stand up; and then "Sit down!" each followed by the appropriate action until all respond confidently, without hesitation (Ashers, 1988: 4-2).

The procedure above is the beginning activities in teaching English. The teacher introduced two verbs of commands "stand up" and "sit down". These two verbs are easy to be presented. As mentioned earlier that TPR follows the language sequence of how an infant learns his/her mother tongue. After the learners can respond the command confidently, the learners may practice giving the commands among them. The procedure above can continue by introducing the verbs " walk, stop, turn around, jump". If the teacher observes the hesitation of the students in responding, the teacher should model the actions and commands with the students until the students can individually respond quickly and accurately. When the learners are ready for an expansion of utterances, the activities below can follow.

Point to the door. (The teacher and the students point to the door.)
Point to the chairs. (The teacher and the students point to the chairs.)
Point to the table. (The teacher and the students point to the table.)

(Ashers, 1988: 4-3)

Through the activities above the class is not only introduced the verb "point to" but also the nouns "door, chairs, and table". After the students have enough understanding of the words, the language to teach can be expanded and the commands may consist of longer utterances. The teacher should always consider the language the students have mastered. The commands may consist of two or three actions but most (or all) of the words used in the commands must be familiar.

Point to the door. Walk to the door. (The teacher and the students point to the door and walk to the door.)

Touch the door. (The teacher and the students touch the door.)

(Ashers, 1988: 4-3)

The language materials may cover a great deal of vocabulary and the first days will be spent to teach vocabulary but the introduction of abstract nouns may be delayed since this may produce confusion and difficulties in understanding their concepts. Speaking follows listening. As long as the learners can respond commands accurately, no speaking is allowed. This is allowed in TPR that the learners can answer with gesture such as pointing. Examples would be:

Where is the towel? (Eduardo, point to the towel)
Where is the toothbrush? (Miako, point to the toothbrush)
Where is Dolores?

(Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 96)

Listening and comprehension can also be practiced by giving scenarios to the students. The scenarios below are taken from Garcia (1996: V-3):

1. Go to the table. Touch the table. Sit on the table. Point to the table with your hands. Squat in front of the table. Turn around. Get up. Return to your seat.
2. Go to the table. Pick up the green book. Read the book. Scratch your stomach with the green book. Put the book in the box of fruit. Put your head in the box of fruit. Pick up the box of fruit. Put your head in the box of fruit. Take your head out of the box of fruit.
3. Go to the chalkboard. Salute the flag. Jump twice. Touch the chalkboard with your nose. Scratch your right foot.

4. Go to the chalkboard. Draw a school. Erase the roof of the school. Write the name of the teacher of English.

When the students reach a certain level of understanding of the target language through body movements, the students are ready for *role reversal*: they play the teacher's role and utter directions in the target language to cause action from other students or the teacher. The role reversal should be done gradually since the very essence of TPR is listening and comprehension before production. The teacher does not hurry the students into speaking.

More advanced students can be encouraged to speak in the target language by providing scenarios. The following are examples of learning scenarios for advanced students (Garcia, 1996: V-27):

1. You arrive at your home. The neighbor's kids are playing in your front yard. They are pulling flowers, playing with the water hose, etc. Give some commands suitable for the occasion.
2. You need some groceries from the store. You ask your friend to do it for you because you are very busy. Ask your friend to bring you a few things (vegetables and foodstuff).
3. You are in the wilderness. You come upon a place with tall grass and thick shrubs. Suddenly you see a snake. You have three friends with you. React to the situation with some commands.
4. You find a four-year-old girl in the middle of the street. She is crying and frightened. Try to communicate with her with several commands.

Writing and reading

So far the class deals with understanding and listening (to some extent speaking as well). Writing may be introduced in the first days if needed. TPR flows from comprehension to speaking; from comprehension into reading and writing. Reading and writing in TPR may flow after the students are able to comprehend the commands. It is assumed in the following activities that the students have learned the words "run, go, board, chalkboard". The main material to teach is "name". The word "write" may or may not have been introduced. The main consideration in giving commands is that there is no more than one new word. If there are more than one new word, the understanding of the commands is relatively difficult. The following

activities are meant to teach writing. This is the beginning of writing class and the commands are simple.

I will write my name on the board.
Juan, run to the chalkboard and write your name.
Jaime, go to the chalkboard and write your name.
Everyone, write your name on your paper.

(Asher, 1988: 4-8)

For more advanced students, students' names can be replaced with other concrete nouns, as follows:

Juan, go to the chalkboard and write what you see
Jaime, walk to the chalkboard and write what you touch

The commands are not only used to teach verbs of imperatives but they can be used to teach tenses. The following examples are the activities used to teach *present continuous tense*.

Rita, touch the table. (Pause) Shirou, touch the table that Rita is touching.

Juan, touch the chalkboard. (Pause) Maria, touch the chalkboard that Juan is touching.

Miguel, draw a square on the chalkboard.(Pause) draw a circle around the square that Miguel is drawing.

Maria, write your name on the chalkboard. (Pause) Juan, erase the name that Maria is writing.

(Ashers, 1988: 4-24 — 4-25)

It is assumed that in the above activities, the students have learned the verbs *touch, draw, erase, write*, and the nouns *square, circle, table, chalkboard*.

The following is another procedure suggested by Ashers (cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 97). The instructor wrote on the chalkboard each new vocabulary item and a sentence to illustrate the item. Then she spoke each item and acted out the sentence. The students listened as she read the material. Some copied the information in their notebooks.

The TPR allows language learners to learn the target language in a manner similar to a child learns his/her mother tongue. In a class that is taught through the TPR, a language teacher begins the class by modeling

actions and students observe and act the same actions. The students guess meanings by observing and acting the commands from the teacher. The students follow simple commands and directions and then give commands to fellow classmates. Gradually, the students themselves will direct the class and decide who has to give commands.

Language teachers or prospective language teachers have to ask themselves which principles can be implemented in English teaching in their condition and situation. As suggested by Asher, the TPR should be used in association with other methods and techniques. Language teachers may develop some techniques deriving from the principles of the TPR and try out the techniques in teaching English in Indonesia. They do not necessarily take the whole procedure of the TPR. They may consider some of the underlying principles and the techniques which can be implemented in their language classes.

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8

COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

8.1 BACKGROUND

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a language teaching tradition which has been developed in the United Kingdom in 1970's. Different from the other teaching methods that have been discussed in this book, CLT is seen as an approach instead of a method. CLT is regarded more as an approach since the aims of CLT are a) to make the communicative competence the goal of language teaching and b) to develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 66). CLT deals more with assumptions about language and language learning and Larsen-Freeman (1986) names it the Communicative Approach.

The emphasis on the communication makes the proponents of this approach pay attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language. It is believed that no single set of procedures or texts that is accepted as typical procedures of CLT. Different people have interpreted the concept of the combination of functional and structural aspects of language in different ways (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 66). For some, CLT means an integration of grammatical and functional teaching while for others, the approach means using procedures where learners work in pairs or groups employing available language resources in problem-solving tasks.

The first concept suggests that language items are presented in situations in the classroom to ensure that their meaning is clear, and then practiced as formal structures by means of exercises of sufficient variety to sustain the interest of the learner and in sufficient numbers to establish the structures in the learner's memory (Widdowson, 1983: 117-8). This concept of CLT is not regarded as the right assumption of CLT since the aim of communicative teaching is not only the ability to compose correct sentences but also the ability to communicate. The second concept seems to be not the only aim of CLT. Language learners should do more than working in-groups to learn to use the language in communication.

The concept of CLT can be traced back by looking at the concept of communication itself. Widdowson (1983: 118) states that communication only takes place when we make use of sentences to perform a variety of different acts of an essentially social nature and we use sentences to make statements of different kinds, to describe, to record, to classify and so on, or to ask questions, make requests, give orders. It implies that language teaching should be contextualized by presenting language items in situational settings in the classroom. In other words, in CLT language teachers should consider the formal structures in situational settings in the classroom. Even though it may be argued what type of contextualization (signification or value) can be provided to the students in the classroom, Widdowson (1983: 119) suggests that whatever the contextualization the teacher provides will help the students learn the communicative function of the language. Another way of teaching a foreign language as a means of communication is what Allen and Widdowson suggest (1983: 125). They consider the language as a medium of teaching another subject. . Language as communication no longer appears as a separate subject, but as an aspect of other subjects. The target language should be presented in such a way as to reveal its character as communication. Therefore, designing an English course, for students of science, should cover common topics in basic science and language items. The purpose of English teaching is to develop in the students an awareness of the ways in which the language system is used to express scientific facts and concepts. Their idea suggests that the target language be used in an immersion program in order for the teaching of the target language to be communicative.

8.2   PRINCIPLES OF CLT

To develop the procedures of teaching, language teachers may consider the underlying principles of CLT developed by different authors. These principles are worth considering not only for preparing what learning-teaching activities are expected but the whole processes that cover the preparation of language materials, the sequence of the materials, the presentation, and the evaluation of the output. However, different writers have different stresses of the principles of CLT. Howatt (cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 66) states that there are a strong version and a weak version of CLT:

The weak version of CLT stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching …The strong version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication…If the former could be described as 'learning to use' English, the latter entails 'using English to learn it'.

The two different versions need not be contrasted. CLT principles may be a continuum. One side of the interval of CLT is the weak version and the other side of the interval is the strong version. The procedure developed based on the principles of the weak version of CLT may be the starting point of teaching a foreign language communicatively. Then, the procedure of CLT ends with the activities developed based on the strong version of CLT. It seems impossible to teach English by using the target language to learn it in a setting where English is really a foreign language, such as in Indonesia. Probably, the procedure of the strong version of CLT may be introduced without considering the weak version in countries where the target language is the second language, or where the target language is used in an immersion program.

Since the emphasis of teaching is the use of the language for communication, language errors are tolerated and seen as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills (Larsen- Freeman, 1986: 129). Language teachers are not suggested to correct all of students' errors. As

long as the ideas expressed in the target language can be understood, the minor errors may be ignored. Corrections are done when the errors may hinder the understanding of the communication. Language teachers should be selective in correcting errors. They should provide their students with opportunities to express their ideas in the target language and the target language is used as a vehicle for communication in the classroom.

CLT emphasizes on linguistic performance instead of linguistic competence. The goal of teaching a foreign language is the actual use of language in real situations. This is a response to traditional methods that are concerned with what so called linguistic competence. Linguistic competence is understood as concerned with the tacit knowledge of language structure, that is, knowledge that is commonly not conscious or available for spontaneous report, but necessarily implicit in what the (ideal) speaker-listener can say (Hymes, 1983: 7). This concept is used to contrast it with linguistic performance, which is mostly concerned with the processes often termed encoding and decoding. This practical goal gives a direction to language teaching activities. The activities done to present language materials should be oriented to the ability to use the target language in communication. This principle is related to the first principle that CLT sees errors as a natural outcome. The main concern of teaching is communication with ease in the target language without being occupied with error correction. One of the characteristic features of communicative approach to language teaching is that it enables us to make assumptions about the types of communication we will equip learners to handle (Morrow, 1983: 155).

The principles of CLT will be more easily understood by contrasting CLT with another method. Finacchiaro and Brumfit contrast the major distinctive features of CLT with those of Audio-Lingual Method.

Communicative Language Teaching	Audio-Lingual Method
Meaning is paramount.	**Attends to structure and form than meaning.**
Dialogs, if used, center around communicative functions and are normally memorized.	Demands memorization of structure-based dialogs.

Communicative Language Teaching	Audio-Lingual Method
Meaning is paramount.	**Attends to structure and form than meaning.**
Language learning is learning to communicative.	Language learning is learning structures, sounds, or words.
Effective communication is sought.	Mastery, or "over-learning' is sought.
Drilling may occur, but peripherally.	Drilling is a central technique.
Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.	Native-speaker-like pronunciation is sought.
Any device which helps the learners is accepted-varying according to their age, interest, etc.	Grammatical explanation is avoided.
Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.	Communicative activities only come after a long process of rigid drills and exercises.
Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.	The use of students' native language is forbidden.
Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.	Translation is forbidden at early levels.
Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.	Reading and writing are deferred till speech is mastered.
The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process.	The target linguistic system will be learned through the overt teaching of the patterns of the system.
Communicative competence is the desired goal	Linguistic competence is the desired goal.
Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology.	Varieties of language are recognized but not emphasized.
Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning which maintains interest.	The sequence of units is determined solely by principles of linguistic complexity.
Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.	Teachers control learners and prevent them from doing anything that conflicts with the theory.

Communicative Language Teaching	Audio-Lingual Method
Meaning is paramount.	**Attends to structure and form than meaning.**
Language is created by the individual often through trial and error.	"language is habit" so errors must be prevented at all costs.
Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.	Accuracy, in terms of formal correctness, is a primary goal.
Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings.	Students are expected to interact with the language system, embodied in machines or controlled materials.
The teacher cannot know exactly what language the students will use.	The teacher is expected to specify the language that students are to use.
Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.	Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in the structure of the language.

(cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:67)

The principles of CLT mentioned above cover not only the theory of language and language teaching, but also the procedures of presenting language materials, the sequencing, the objectives of language teaching, and the language testing. Considering that CLT has basic concepts of language teaching like the other methods discussed in this book, CLT is regarded more as a method.

8.3   BASIC ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE

In Richards and Rodgers' s view (1986: 71), CLT has a rich theoretical base at the level of language theory. At least four basic assumptions about language are proposed.

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

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

The four basic assumptions of language suggest what aspects of the language should be taught, how language should be presented in language class and how language competence should be evaluated. The four assumptions mentioned above seem to derive from a single theory that emphasizes the use of language in daily life for practical reason: communication.

Different from traditional methods which regard language as a system consisting of grammatical units, CLT regards language as means for communication and interaction. This assumption suggests language teachers to consider what language should be taught. The discussion on what aspects of a foreign language should be taught will lead us to decide what syllabus is appropriate for our language learners. The discussion also influences the sequence of the materials that has been chosen to be the language syllabus. This idea may be debated without an end.

Wilkins (1983: 82) argues that the content of learning is still thought of in grammatical terms and he believes that the applicability of the knowledge the students gain through such an approach is in question. This type of syllabus is believed not to support the theory of language proposed in CLT. A type of syllabus Wilkins believes to support the theory that language is a system for the expression of meanings is the notional syllabus. Through this syllabus, language materials will be arranged based on the notional analysis. This syllabus establishes the grammatical means by which the relevant notions are expressed. This type of syllabus, which consists of structures plus notions, is not the only syllabus suggested in CLT. There are some other types of syllabus that can be implemented in CLT, namely: functional spiral around a structural core, structural, functional and instrumental syllabus, functional syllabus, notional syllabus, interactional syllabus, task-based syllabus, and learner generated syllabus (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 74).

The assumptions about language discussed above also have impact on the language teaching (Brumfit, 1983: 183). Traditionally, language class has followed the tradition of procedure that starts from the presentation

of language items, followed by drills that are used to internalize patterns of language, and ends with the practice in context. Contrarily, in the communicative model language learners are expected to communicate as far as possible with all available resources, this step is followed by the presentation of language items shown to be necessary for effective communication, and then language learners are provided with drills if necessary.

The movement of communicative approach has also given impact on what aspect of language and how should be measured. The design and construction of the test to measure communicative proficiency should be different from that of the traditional approach. Morrow (1983: 145) argues that the advocates of the behaviorist view of learning through habit formation tend to make language tests by posing questions to elicit responses which show whether or not correct habits have been established. In such language test correct responses are rewarded and negative ones punished in some way. The reward and punishment may be in the forms of scores given to language learners. As mentioned earlier that one of the characteristic features of communicative approach to language teaching is that it enables us to make assumptions about the types of communication that we will equip learners to handle. In language testing, consequently, there is unlikely to be a single overall test of language proficiency. However, Morrow suggests that there are three implications in this.

First, the concept of pass: fail loses much its force; every candidate can be assessed in terms of what he can do. Of course some will be able to do more than others, and it may be decided for administrative reasons that at certain level of proficiency is necessary for the awarding of a particular certificate. But because of the operational nature of the test, even low scores can be shown what they have achieved. Secondly, language performance can be differentially assessed in different communicative areas. The idea of " profile reporting" whereby a candidate is given different scores on, e.g. speaking, reading, writing and listening tests is not new, but it is particularly attractive in an operational context where scores can be related to specific communicative objectives.

The third implication is perhaps the most far-reaching. The importance of specifying the communicative criteria in terms of which assessment is being offered means that examining bodies will have to

draw up, and probably publish, specifications of the types of operation they intend to test, the content area to which they will relate and the criteria which will be adopted in assessment.

The system and the criteria used in TOEFL, to some extent, may be similar to the suggestions. Whatever the TOEFL score one has cannot be used to judge whether he/she fails or passes and he will receive a certificate that shows the level of his/her proficiency. And, we may decide whether we want to take Test of Written English (TWE) or TOEFL without a writing section. The suggestions mentioned above seem to have practical problems when implemented in the schooling system.

8.4   BASIC ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

Richards and Rodgers (1986) argue that little has been written about learning theory of CLT. They state further that elements of an underlying learning theory may be discerned in some CLT practices. One of the elements of learning theory of CLT is that activities that involve real communication promote learning (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, 72). This implies that language learning will learn the target language optimally when they communicate in the language. They should use the language to carry out meaningful tasks, not just learn the language. Communication practice is believed to develop linguistic skills. It seems that the role of teacher is likely to be teaching communication via language, not teaching language via communication (Allwright, 1983: 167). Allwright (1983: 170) acknowledges that this strategy may be argued since absolute beginners cannot be expected to solve communication problems. Language beginners seem not to be able to use the target language for conveying meanings. They are in the process of learning to convey meanings by using the language. The problem that language learners are not yet able to use the language for communication need alternative techniques of CLT. The weak version of CLT discussed above could be the answer to this problem.

Another principle of CLT which is related to learning theory is the meaningful task principle, meaning that activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, 72). However, language tasks performed in interaction are not necessarily meaningful. Pair work, which is often considered as the

main element of CLT, does not always produce meaningful tasks. Pair work makes learners work together and help each other but in the interaction in the pair work may not convey meanings. In meaningful communication there must be information gaps. Language teacher should create situations in which information gaps exist among learners. The attempt to create information gaps in the classroom, thereby, producing communication viewed as the bridging of the information gap, has characterized much recent communicative methodology (Johnson, 1983). These attempts may take many forms, for examples, identifying objects in a picture, providing uncomplete plans or diagrams, developing listening texts and telling the content to others, and others.

A principle that may be regarded as another assumption about language learning in CLT is that the grammar and vocabulary the students learn from the function, situational context, and the roles of the interlocutors (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 130). Larsen-Freeman provides an example of the assumption by observing a class taught through CLT that after the role-play is finished the students elicit relevant vocabulary. This seems in accordance with the first assumption that the emphasis of teaching a language is communication. After communication, as well as games and roleplay, is finished the students may discuss the elements of the language: grammar and vocabulary. The elements of the language come later after the first priority of language teaching: communication is over.

8.5   SOME MISCONCEPTIONS ABOUT CLT

Many teachers remain somewhat confused about what exactly CLT is. It is clearly understood that the emphasis of CLT is communicating by means of the foreign language. Practically, the teaching of the foreign language is often strongly associated with a number of particular classroom activities, such as problem-solving and pair work. This misconception is not the only one among language teachers and applied linguists. Thompson (1994) identifies three main misconceptions about communicative language teaching. He states that a number of applied linguists have argued strongly and in theoretically persuasive terms that the grammar teaching should be avoided since the knowledge that a speaker needs in order to use a language is simply too complex. The exclusion of explicit attention to grammar is

certainly understandable that this was a reaction of CLT against the heavy emphasis on structure at the expense of natural communication. Thompson argues that in the consensus view of CLT it is now fully accepted that an appropriate amount of class time should be devoted to grammar.

The second misconception about CLT that Thompson (1994: 11-12) identifies is that CLT emphasizes speaking and listening skills and ignores written language. He acknowledges that learners are probably likely to talk more in a successful CLT class than in classes using traditional methods. The reason of this misconception is that CLT stresses the need for the learners to have sufficient practice. This is often translated that TTT (teacher talking time) is to be reduced and STT (student talking time) is to be maximized -chiefly by putting students into pairs and telling them to talk to their pairs. However, as the emphasis of teaching a foreign language through CLT is communicating, communication may happen in any form of interaction. Communication through language does not only take place through speech; it can happen in both the written and spoken language. This implies that the goal of CLT should be communicating by means of language both in oral and written forms.

The third misconception is that the proponents of CLT often considers that role-play is the signal that the implementation of CLT principles. Role-play is a useful technique of CLT but the activities in playing roles are not necessarily the learning processes suggested in CLT. In teaching a foreign language communicatively, pair work and role-play should provide opportunity for the learners to choose what to say and how to say it. Learners should be given the opportunity to learn the target language and to learn how to make choices. Language teachers of CLT should not control over students' learning all the time.

Misconceptions about CLT may happen everywhere. Misconceptions are really understandable since CLT is an open approach. Different people will interpret the principles of the approach in different ways depending on their perceptions and experiences. It is likely that CLT will be modified based on the situation and setting where it is implemented. If it is so, there will be no single interpretation of CLT even though different people may have something in common about communicative approaches and communicative processes.

8.6   PROCEDURES OF TEACHING A LANGUAGE THROUGH CLT

Even though little has been written about theories of language learning underlying the principles of CLT as stated earlier, some writers suggest some techniques or procedures in the classroom that can support the goal of communicative teaching. The following principles are tips worth considering in communicative teaching suggested by Larsen-Freeman (1986: 128-130).

1. Whenever possible language as it is used in real context should be introduced.
2. The target language is a vehicle for classroom communication, not just the object of study.
3. Students should work with language at the discourse level.
4. Games are important because they have in common with real communicative events.
5. Students should be given an opportunity to express their ideas and opinions.
6. One of the teacher' s major responsibilities is to establish situations likely to promote communication.
7. The social context of the communicative event is essential in giving meaning to the utterances.
8. Learning to use language forms appropriately is an important part of communicative competence.
9. The teacher acts as an advisor during communicative activities.
10. Students should be given opportunities to develop strategies for interpreting language as it is actually used by native speakers.

No fixed procedure has been claimed to be typical procedure of CLT. Different writers have suggested different set of procedures and different writers have emphasized different aspects and skills of language. The CLT classroom procedure below is the one suggested by Finocchiaro and Brumfit.

1. Presentation of a brief dialog or several mini-dialogs, preceded by a motivation (relating the dialog situation (s) to the learners' probable community experiences) and a discussion of the function and situation-people, roles, setting, topic, and the informality or formality of the language which the function and situation demand. (at the beginning levels, where all the learners understand the same native language, the motivation can well be given in their native tongue).

2. Oral practice of each utterance of the dialog segment to be presented that day (entire class repetition, half class, groups, and individuals) generally preceded by your model. If mini-dialogs are used, engage in similar practice.
3. Questions and answers based on the dialog topics (s) and situation itself. (inverted wh, or or questions).
4. Questions and answers related to the students' personal experiences but centered around the dialog theme.
5. Study one of the basic communicative expressions in the dialog or one of the structures which exemplify the function. You will wish to give several additional examples of the communicative use of the expression structure with familiar vocabulary in unambiguous utterances or mini-dialogs (using pictures, simple real objects, or dramatization) to clarify the meaning of the expression or structure.
6. Learner discovery of generalizations or rules underlying the functional expression or structure. This should include at least four points, e.g. "How about + verb + ing?"); its position in the utterance; its formality or informality in the utterance; and in the case of a structure, its grammatical function and meaning.
7. Oral recognition, interpretative activities (two to five depending on the learning level, the language knowledge of the students, and related factors).
8. Oral production activities-proceeding from the guided to freer communication activities.
9. Copying of the dialog or mini-dialogs or modules if they are not in the class text.
10. Sampling of the written homework assignment, if given.
11. Evaluation of learning (oral only), e.g. "How would you ask your friend to ____? And how would you ask me to _____?"

<div align="right">(cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 81)</div>

The activities of the CLT procedure mentioned above seem not be exclusive to CLT classrooms. The procedure may be classified as the application of the weak version of CLT of teaching the oral language. The following is one of the basic procedures in teaching writing suggested by Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983: 151)

1. Motivate the material by giving a brief summary or by asking preliminary questions relevant to the theme of the passage.
2. Clarify any difficulty
3. Review the procedure you will follow.
4. Read the material through two times at normal speed.
5. Ask a question two times. Give the students time to write the answer.
6. Continue until you have given all the questions.
7. Read the passage or conversation again at normal speed.
8. Say the questions again.
9. Give the students about two minutes to check their own work and to make necessary changes.
10. Correct the material as in the dicatation.

Another application of the weak version of CLT has also been developed in teaching grammar (Thompson, 1994, 11).

> Wherever possible, learners are first exposed to new language in a comprehensible context, so that they are able to understand its function and meaning. Only then is their attention turned to examining the grammatical forms that have been used to convey meaning. The discussion of grammar is explicit, but it is the learners who are doing most of the discussing, working out - with the guidance from the teacher- as much of their new knowledge of the language as can easily and usefully be expressed. Behind this strategy lies the recognition that the learners may well have "understood" more about the language than they - or the teacher- can put into words. If the new language were introduced in the form of an apparently all- embracing (but actually pitifully incomplete) rule from the teacher, this would convey unspoken message that the learners had nothing further to understand about the language point and simply needed to practice it. If, on the other hand, talking about grammar is postponed until learners themselves can contribute by bringing to light what already in some sense 'know', the unspoken message is that the process of acquiring the new knowledge is one which takes place inside them and over which they have some control.

Some activities of the two procedures above may belong to the other methods that have been introduced earlier. As mentioned earlier that some writers regard CLT as an approach, not a method. As an approach, CLT

is open for language teachers to develop their own activities based on the principles and the basic assumptions of CLT. It is not surprising that CLT and the other methods share similar activities or techniques; the activities or techniques may have been developed from the same assumptions about language or language learning. Each of the four skills may have different techniques even though they may come from the same assumptions.

Among the many activities which will promote our students' listening ability are the following (Finocchiaro and Brumfit: 1983: 138-54):

1. Listening to you as you
   – present sound sequences or model sentences;
   – read a passage;
   – describe simple or situational pictures;
   – etc.
2. Listening to other people speaking.
3. Engaging in dialog dramtization.
4. Listening to recordings
5. Attending lectures, speaking clubs, and other meetings conducted in the target language.
6. Etc.

Speaking activities:

1. Reply to directions or questions given by other people.
2. Give directions for other people.
3. Tell what objects appear in a picture or on a chart.
4. Tell a story or retell an experience in their own words.
5. Read a newspaper article in the native language and give a report on it in the target language.
6. Etc.

Writing activities:

1. Copy model sentences, dialogs, or anything that has been spoken or read.
2. Write a summary of material which has been read.
3. Complete an outline form of material they have read.
4. Write a letter.

5. Write a report on an article or book.
6. Etc.

Reading activities:

1. Ask the students to formulate questions on the passage.
2. Have the communicative expressions, structures, and notions that were clarified before the reading used in original sentences.
3. Engage in numerous word study exercises.
4. Have students retell what happened in the passage from a list of key words you will place on the board.
5. Have them look for the key words.
6. Have them summarize the passage.
7. Etc.

As mentioned earlier that the activities developed for communicative abilities are not exclusive to CLT. If compared to the activities of the other methods presented in this book, the activities suggested for CLT have similarities with the activities of the other methods. Again, different methods may have the same assumptions about language and language learning; it is not surprising that different methods may have similar activities.

Considering the objective of teaching a foreign language through the CLT, other elements involved in foreign language teaching should be taken for considerations. The performance of language is an essential element. Do language teachers in schools have English performance which enables them to communicate in the target language? If not so, how can they teach the target language as a means of communication in the class?

If language teachers can use the target language as a means of communication, other problems may still appear, such as the textbooks which may not have been developed for the communicative teaching. Should language teachers develop their own "textbooks"? Then, how should they evaluate the language class? Should (or not) they consider the national English tests, which are not always devised to measure the communicative ability of the students of high schools?

Again, language teachers or prospective language teachers have to ask themselves which principles can be implemented in English teaching in their condition and situation. They may develop some techniques deriving

from the principles of the CLT and try out the techniques in teaching English in Indonesia. By trying out some techniques or procedures suggested in the CLT, they will enrich their understanding of communicative teaching. Finally, they will find relatively effective techniques to teach a language as means of communication.

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9

NATURAL APPROACH

9.1 BACKGROUND

The Natural Approach is a philosophy of language teaching proposed by Tracy Terrel, a teacher of Spanish in California. His philosophy, which was introduced in 1977, has been developed by combining it with Krashen's theory of second language acquisition. In the Natural Approach the emphasis is on the exposure of the target language. The exposure is often called *input*. The Natural Approach is meant to provide comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985: 14). This can be done by discussing topics of interest, games, tasks, and the like. In learning teaching processes, language learners may respond in either the first or second language. Language teachers do not concentrate on learners' errors and their errors are not corrected. Language learners study grammar at home, not at school. The study of grammar is meant to maintain the conscious Monitor. Grammar instruction has a limited role. The language syllabus will vary according to student interest and can be negotiated since according to theory, input need only be comprehensible and interesting.

A similar method was known a long before the Natural Approach was introduced. The *Natural Method* was introduced at the end of the nineteenth century. Even though it is named the Natural Approach, the approach not only has assumptions about language and language learning but also procedures of language teaching. The approach seems to be appropriately regarded as a method or procedures (to borrow Richards and Rodgers' term).

The two different methods have many things in common. The main similarity is that both of the two methods emphasize the natural process of language learning. The difference between the two is that in the first Natural Method language learners are not allowed to use the first language. The sequence of language material of the first Natural Method is also different. The order of presentation is: listening, speaking, reading, writing and grammar while the order of the Natural Approach is that comprehension (listening and reading) precedes production (speaking and writing).

Krashen and Terrel (1983: 18) state that language learning is different from acquisition. Language learning is 'knowing about the rules'. Language learners have conscious knowledge about grammar. Language acquiring, on the hand, is picking up the target language. Language learners develop ability in the target language by using it in natural, communicative situations. The Natural Approach emphasizes the principles that are related to language acquisition, instead of language learning as traditional methods. It is claimed that the input hyphotesis, which is the main principle of the Natural Approach, is consistent with second language acquisition.

The natural Method seems to consider a concept that language learners do not take in everything they hear. Their motives, attitudes and emotional states filter what they hear and therefore affect the rate and quality of language learning (Dulay, Burt, and Krashen, 1982: 45). The affective factors, which they call the "filter", work together with the "organizer" are subconscious processors in language learning, while a conscious processor in language learning is called the "monitor". Related to the five hypotheses mentioned earlier, the *filter* "screens out certain parts of learners' language environments and the *organizer* works subconsciously to organize the new language system". The role of the *organizer* is "to build up the rule system of the new language in specific ways and is used by the learners to generate sentences not learned through memorization" (Dulay, Burt, and Krashen, 1982: 46). In the conscious processes, language learners rely on the *monitor* to memorize grammatical rules and apply them consciously during conversation.

Principles Of Natural Approach

Like the other methods discussed in this book, the Natural Approach has some basic principles. The first basic principle is that comprehension

precedes production (Krashen and Terrel, 1983: 20). In oral language listening precedes speaking while in written language reading precedes writing. This principle follows from the hypotheses that acquisition is the basis for production ability and understanding messages is the prerequisite to acquisition. Some of the implications of the principle Krashen and Terrel suggest are that (1) language teachers have to use the target language, (2) the focus of the communication in language class will be on a topic of interest for their students, (3) language teachers have to help their students understand.

The second general principle of the Natural Approach is that production is allowed to emerge in stages (Krashen and Terrel, 1983: 20). The stages seem to have been developed from the principle of first language learning: how a child acquires his/her mother tongue. The acquisition of another language consists of five stages. The first stage is that language learners respond by using nonverbal communication, such as pointing or nodding, etc. The second stage is that language learners respond with a single word, such as *yes*, *no, fine, good*, etc. The third stage is that language learners respond with combinations of two or three words, such as me *fine, no study, where go*, etc. The fourth stage is that language learners use phrases in responding, such as *where you going?, I am study*, etc. The fourth stage is that language learners use more complex sentences.

The third general principle is that the course syllabus consists of communicative goals (Krashen and Terrel, 1983: 20). The implication of this principle is that language syllabus is organized by topic, not grammatical items. Krashen and Terrel believe that by having communicative goals language learners will acquire (not learn) grammar effectively while they will acquire grammar very little if the goal of learning is grammatical. Therefore, at the beginning stages the emphasis of language learning is communicative ability, not grammatical accuracy. It does not mean that the ability of communicating with correct grammar is ignored. Later, language learners will acquire the target language, meaning that they will be able to produce sentences with correct grammar. This principle also has an implication on language testing. If communication is the goal, then it is the overall ability to communicate, not grammatical accuracy, which must be tested (Terrel, 1982: 171). However, the proponents of the approach acknowledge that judgments

of fluency will many cases be subjective, but language teachers are suggested to make those judgements with a reasonable degree of accuracy.

The fourth general principle of the Natural Method is that the activities done in the classroom aimed at acquisition must foster a lowering of the affective filter of the students (Krashen and Terrel, 1983: 21). This can be done by creating an environment conducive to acquisition. Language learners create such an environment by encouraging language learners to express their ideas, opinions, desires, emotions and feelings freely; the learners and the teacher should have good rapport among them in order for the learners to have low anxiety. The language to learn also has an important role in creating the environment. That is why the topic of the class should be interesting and relevant to the learners.

Another principle which may be regarded as one of the principles of the natural Approach is the way the approach treats the error. Terrel (1982:165) suggests that error correction be done only in written assignments which focus specifically on form and never oral communication. Since language learners are encouraged to say new and interesting things with their knowledge of the target language, they are likely to produce errors. Correction of the errors will make the students feel uncomfortable and embarrassed in front of their peers. Such a feeling will not motivate the students to learn and acquire the target language. It is believed that the correction of speech errors is negative in terms of motivation and attitude towards the target language.

The four principles mentioned above constitute the design of the Natural Approach. These may also be regarded the assumptions about language learning of the Natural Approach that underlie the theories of second language acquisition, which will be discussed later.

Assumptions Of Language And Language Learning

All methods in this book are expected to have assumptions about language and language learning. Even though Krashen and Terrel do not explicitly state the assumptions about language, they elaborate the assumptions about language learning in detail. The assumptions about language learning have derived from the theory of second language acquisition of Krashen: the input hypothesis.

9.2   ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE

Since no assumption about language has been stated, some interpretations have been proposed by different people. Richards and Rodgers (1986: 129) conclude that the Natural Approach focuses on teaching communicative abilities, language in the Natural Approach is viewed as a vehicle for communicating meanings and messages. This is similar to the assumption of the CLT. The implications of this assumptions have been discussed deeply in the chapter the *Communicative Language Teaching.* However, the communicative function is not the only underlying principle of the language in the Natural Approach. In the Natural Approach it is also suggested that language should contain a set of grammatical rules that language learners have to acquire. They suggest that grammar should be presented through context and extra linguistic information. Language teachers have to present visual aids so that language learners will acquire the target language through meaning. Even though to some extent language is also seen as a set of grammatical rules, language learning in the Natural Approach is not grammatically oriented. If we compare the Natural Approach with the CLT, especially the weak version of CLT, the implications of the assumption about language of the Natural Approach and that of the CLT almost have no difference.

As discussed earlier, the assumption suggests that language syllabus is organized by topic, not grammatical items. Even though language learners are also expected to learn grammar, grammar knowledge functions as a monitor which makes changes in the utterances we produced based on the acquired system. The monitor may correct the utterances we have produced, which is often called *self-correction* (Krashen and Terrel, 1983: 30). The Natural Approach still regards grammatical accuracy important in language learning.

9.3   ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING

The Natural Approach has some basic assumptions about language learning. The five hypotheses of Krashen form the core of the second language learning theory that underlies the Natural Appraoch. The following are the explanations of the five hypotheses.

1.   The Acquisition-Learning hypothesis

Acquiring a second language is not the same as learning a second language. The two terms are sometimes confusing to some people and some people are not interested in distinguishing them in language learning.

There are two independent ways of developing ability in second languages. 'Acquisition' is subconscious process identical in all important ways to the process children utilize in acquiring their first language, while 'learning' is a conscious process that results in 'knowing about' language (Krashen, 1985: 1).

Krashen and Terrel (1983: 26) claims that adults can still acquire second languages. This is a response to an idea that the ability to acquire second languages disappears at puberty as some have claimed. They also elaborate adults have two ways of learning a second language: subconscious and conscious processes but they do not claim adults can acquire second languages perfectly as native speakers. Since the two processes really exist in adult and both have different roles in acquiring a second language, language teachers may be expected to provide environments for the two processes to take place. Language teachers should have their students exposed to the target language by providing language input in order for the students to "acquire" the target language. The input can be provided by giving tasks to students, games, or discussions of topics interesting for them. Language teachers are also expected to develop students' competence in a second language. Language teachers should make their students "learn" the target language. Language learners may discuss knowledge of the language explicitly and they are also expected to be able to talk about the rules.

The Acquisition-Learning Distinction

Acquisition	Learning
Similar to child first language acquisition	Formal knowledge of grammar
Picking up a language	Knowing about a language
Unconscious	Conscious
Implicit knowledge	Explicit knowledge
Formal teaching does not help	Formal teaching helps

(Krashen and Terrel, 1985: 27).

2. The Natural Order Hypothesis

It may be argued that language learners have similar patterns in acquiring a second language. Some people may believe that different people have different manner in acquiring a second language since people are unique; they have different language aptitudes, levels of motivation, and other individual factors. However, the proponents of the Natural Approach support the hypothesis that there is a natural order which relatively exist among language learners.

... It states that we acquire the rules of language in a predictable order, some rules tending to come early and others late. The order does not appear to be determined solely by formal simplicity and there is evidence that is independent of the order in which rules are taught in language classes (Krashen, 1985: 1).

According to this hypothesis, grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable manner but the predictable manner does not necessarily exist when the learners learn the language. Krashen and Terrel (1983: 28) give an example of the tense marker -ing (as in *he is going to work*) and the plural -s (as in *two hats*). The two are among the first English morphemes that children acquire. They also state that the natural order of second language acquisition is not exactly the same as the order of the acquisition of the first language, they believe that there are some similarities. They note that the natural order of adult subjects seems to appear only under certain conditions and the natural order only appears in communication not in grammar tests. Even though they believe that the natural order of adult subjects exists, they fail to provide some examples of the order. This may imply that the natural order of adult subjects varies among individuals since different subjects acquire a second language in different manners. Language learners, especially adults, will acquire different aspects of the target language due to different interests, and different interests, in turn, will affect the comprehensible input.

3. The Monitor Hypothesis

The third hypothesis that has also influenced the principles of the Natural Approach is the Monitor Hypothesis. This is also one of the five hypotheses that Krashen has introduced.

This hypothesis states how acquisition and learning are used in production. Our ability to produce utterances in another language comes from our acquired competence, from our subconscious knowledge. Learning, conscious knowledge, serves only as an editor, or Monitor. We appeal to learning to make corrections, to change the output 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 consciously concerned about correctness; and he or she must know the rule. Both these conditions are difficult to meet (Krashen, 1985: 1).

Krashen and Terrel believe (1983: 30) that conscious learning has an extremely limited function in adult second language performance. Conscious learning will result in grammatical knowledge in adult learning. This knowledge only functions as editor in case some ungrammatical utterances have been produced. Language learners will correct the ungrammatical utterances as soon as the utterances are produced based on the knowledge they have learned, or they will prepare utterances to produce based on the knowledge they have learned. Krashen and Terrel also believe that this knowledge is not responsible for fluency but only has the function of checking and making repairs on the output of the acquired system. Three requirements must be satisfied in order to use the Monitor successfully (1983: 30):

a. The performer has to have enough time. In rapid conversation taking time to think about rules, such as the subjunctives or subject-verb agreement, may disrupt communication.
b. The performer has to be thinking about correctness, or be focused on form. Even when we have time, we may not be concerned with whether we have inflected the verb correctly. We may be concerned with what we are saying not how we are saying it.
c. The performer has to know the rule. This is a very formidable requirement. Linguists readily admit that they have only been able to describe a subset, a fragment, of the grammar of even well studied languages such as English. We can assume that even the best students fail to learn everything presented to them.

4. The Input hypothesis

The fourth hypothesis of Krashen, which has also become one of the assumptions about language learning of the Natural Approach, is the Input Hypothesis.

The input hypothesis claims that humans acquire in only one way by understanding messages, or by receiving 'comprehensible input'. We progress along the natural order (hypothesis 2) by understanding input that contains structures at our next 'stage' - structures that are a bit beyond our current level of competence. (We move from *i*, our current level, to *i +1*, the next level along the natural order, by understanding input containing *i + 1*) (Krashen, 1985: 2).

Krashen and Terrel (1983: 33) give an example of how the input hypothesis works in language teaching. If we are sure that our students have acquired *-ing*, plural, and copula, and they are ready to acquire auxiliary and articles in the input, we do not have to worry about providing auxiliary and articles in the input. We have to be sure that our students understand what is being said or what they are reading. It implies that language teachers may not give input that has many things new for the students. We have to give utterances that have one thing new and the other components of the utterances are familiar for the students. By doing this way, the students will acquire the grammatical units easily.

5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis

The Affective Filter Hypothesis of Krashen has also been a part of the assumptions about language learning of the Natural Approach. Krashen seems to have adopted this hypothesis from the works of psychology. He has tried to explain what is meant by the Affective Filter Hypothesis in second language acquisition.

Comprehensible input is necessary for acquisition, but it is not sufficient. The acquirer needs to be 'open' to the input. The 'affective filter' is a mental block that prevents acquirers from fully utilizing the comprehensible input they receive for language acquisition. When it is 'up', the acquirer may understand what he hears and reads, but the input will not reach the LAD (Language Acquisition Device)- the language processor. This occurs when

the acquirer is unmotivated, lacking in self-confidence, or anxious, when he considers the language class to be a place where his weakness will be revealed. This 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 (Krashen, 1985: 3).

The affective filter hypothesis seems to focus on attitudinal variables, which are sometimes called *affective* variables in language learning. The proponents of the Natural Approach believe that language learners with optimal attitudes have a lower affective filter (Krashen and Terrel, 1983: 38). This implies that language learners who have positive attitudes towards the target language, as well as its native speakers, will acquire the target language better. Krashen and Terrel believe that a lower filter means that the performer is more open to the input and tries to get more input. This condition may make the learners with positive attitudes will be more successful acquirers of the target language. They also suggest that language learners not only supply optimal input but language learners also create a situation that promotes a low filter since input cannot be utilized by adults for acquisition if the affective filter is high. It is believed that the value of all classroom activities is measured by the degree to which the affective filter is lowered, as well as the amount of comprehensible input provided (Krashen and Terrel, 1983: 58).

9.4   PROCEDURES OF NATURAL APPROACH

Since the aim of the Natural Approach is communication, language learners are expected to have ability in listening, speaking, reading and writing in the target language. The following are the suggested procedures for teaching each skill for beginners.

Teaching Listening

Krashen and Terrel (1983: 76) consider the techniques developed in the TPR and the students do not have to produce utterances in early stages. At the beginning, the students are expected to act out what the teacher says. The commands are quite simple: "stand up, turn around, raise your right hand" Then, the commands are continued by teaching parts of body: " lay your

right hand on your head, slap your left leg, touch your right foot with your left hand, put both hands on your shoulder, first touch your nose, then stand up and turn to the right three times, and so forth.

The teacher may also provide comprehensible input by using context and the items themselves to make the meanings of the key words clear (Krashen and Terrel, 1983: 76).

"*What is your name?* (selecting a student*). Class, look at Barbara. She has long, brown hair. Her hair is long and brown. Her hair is not short; it is long* (Using mime, pointing and context to ensure comprehension*). What is the name of the student with long brown hair?* (Barbara). Questions such as *What is the name of the student with short blond hair?* or *What is the name of the student sitting next to the man with short brown hair and glasses?* are simple to understand by attending to key words, gestures and context. And they require the students only to remember and produce the names of a fellow student.

The above procedure of teaching beginning listening is simple. The above procedure is believed to give opportunity to the students to become comfortable with the class activities. Language teacher should really consider the students' feeling since at the beginning learning a foreign language often makes students feel uncomfortable and depressed. Comfortable feeling can be created if first language classes are enjoyable and the students can maintain their self-esteem.

Teaching Speaking

Language learners begin to speak in the target language by producing one or two words; they often begin to speak by responding to *yes/no* questions. In the Natural Approach it is suggested that language learners are given opportunity to speak by eliciting *yes* or *no* response.

Does Brian have the picture of the boy with his brother? Is the boy tall? Is he wearing blue jeans? Does Jean have the picture of the man playing golf? Is there a mountain in the picture? Is it raining? Does Jane have the picture of the woman talking on the phone? Is she beautiful? Is she wearing a blue blouse (Krashen and Terrel, 1983: 79).

The questions above do not require the students to respond by using complex utterances; they only respond to the questions by saying "yes" or "no". Again, this simple procedure will make the students feel comfortable as they do in listening class. Language teacher may continue to introduce more complex utterances and expect the students to produce longer utterances. The suggested materials to learn are "either-or" and then identification of items (Krashen and Terrel, 1983: 79). Examples of the *either-or* materials are*: Is this a dog or a cat? Is this a woman tall or short? Is Mary wearing a red or green blouse?* The students may answer these questions by saying " dog, tall and red". The examples of identification questions are *What is this? What color is her skirt? What is he doing?* To respond to the questions for encouraging early production, the students may say a single word " shirt, red and eating".

Teaching Reading and Writing

Terrel (1982: 170) acknowledges that there is no "natural" approach to the teaching of reading and writing. Therefore, the Natural Approach almost has no principles or procedures of teaching the two skills. In teaching reading and writing for beginners, the Natural Approach suggests similar activities to those of the TPR. After the students are given commands for early listening comprehension, the teacher writes the commands on the board and asks the students to copy them in their note books. Actually, this is a simple activity in reading and writing classes. By doing this, the students have opportunity to see in print what they already have comprehended in the spoken language (Krashen and Terrel, 1983: 88). This activity is really important for the students whose first language has a different writing system from that of the target language. The students will learn that the way they read and write is different from the way they are used to.

Even though the name of The Natural Approach suggests that the approach is an approach, this seems to be the implementation of CLT. This approach has many things in common with the CLT. Most of the underlying principles of this approach cannot be differentiated from those of the CLT. Therefore, the Natural Approach also has similar problems to the CLT. Do language teachers in schools have English performance which enables them to communicate in the target language? If not so, how can they teach the target language as a means of communication in the class? If language teachers can

use the target language as a means of communication, other problems may still appear, such as the textbooks which may not have been developed for the communicative teaching. Should language teachers develop their own "textbooks"? Then, how should they evaluate the language class? Should (or not) they consider the national English tests, which are not always devised to measure the communicative ability of the students of high schools?

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10

TEACHING ACROSS AGE LEVELS

10.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters different methods have been introduced. Even though the methods may have come from different assumptions, they may have similar techniques. In teaching a foreign language, it seems that it is hard to use a single method all of the time. The suitability of a method to a language learner depends on many factors. The most common factors that affect the choice of a method are age, aptitude, second language level, interests, the time he can devote to language learning, the size of the group with whom he practices the language, and the culture group to which he belongs (Mackey, 1975: 325). Not all of the factors will be discussed in this chapter. This chapter is more concerned with *age* since it is relatively easier to classify language learners based on their age levels. Based the age levels, language learners in this chapter are classified under three groups: children, teenagers and adults even though the difference among one another may be arguable.

Undoubtedly, children (up to the age of about eleven) are popularly believed to be better at learning second languages than adults. They can learn the second language more easily. This belief seems to come from the Critical Period Hypothesis: the claim that human beings are only capable of learning language between the age of two and the early of teens (Cook, 1992: 83). But research evidence in favor of the superiority of young children has proved surprisingly hard to find (Cook, 1992: 84). In recent years, this claim

has been disputed, with several studies showing that older language learners are better in learning the second language. Much research shows that age is a positive advantage. Which idea is true can be argued depending on the empirical evidence of different studies. Some studies support the notion that younger learners are better while some others provide the opposite evidence.

To language teachers it may be not very important to get an answer to the question. We language teachers are more interested in knowing whether students of different ages need different methods or approaches in studying a foreign language. By knowing how to teach a foreign language to students of different ages, we are expected to be ready to teach the target language to any language learners, disregarding their levels. No matter their levels, whether they are children, teenagers, or adults, we should be professional in making our students successful language learners.

One of the questions a language teacher has in mind is whether the use of teaching methods should vary according to the age of the students. Many people believe that at particular ages students prefer particular methods. Some assumptions about language learning related to age are suggested as follows (Spolsky in Cook, 1992: 85).

a. The teaching method that entails sophisticated understanding and reasoning by the student, as for instance the grammar translation method is better for older students.
b. The child is more open to L2 learning in informal situations.
c. The natural L2 situations may favor children. An important characteristic of language spoken to small children is that it is concerned with the "here and now" rather than with the absent objects or the abstract topics that are talked about in adult conversation.

As suggested in the assumptions above, the underlying principles in teaching a foreign language are different from one group to another since the characteristics of human beings may change according to the level of their maturity. Consequently, a method which is considered effective for children should be reconsidered or redesigned when it is used to teach teenagers or adults.

10.2 TEACHING CHILDREN

In language learning context it is believed that children will learn a foreign language more effectively under certain conditions. Therefore, there are some assumptions about language learning that should be considered when teaching English as a foreign language to children. The following are some assumptions, to mention only a few, and you may propose another list of assumptions of your own. The assumptions below are adapted from different sources (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Mackey, 1975 and Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

a. Learning should be fun and natural for children. In order for them to be successful in learning the target language, there must be the absence of stress. It is commonly believed that the environment of the foreign language learning often causes stress and anxiety. Children are believed not to learn language forms directly; commands are believed to be helpful for children to interpret meanings. This activity is believed to liberate self- conscious and stressful situations.

b. The language should be first presented through sounds, not written symbols. Listening and speaking are worked on as the learners produce meaningful utterances concerning physical objects and their own experience. After children can produce sounds in the target language and connect the sounds with the truth, they may begin to read symbols in the target language. This process can begin after the children are able to understand what other people speak (listening) and able to produce the language (speaking).

c. Children are more sensitive to anything that touches the senses; they react easily to physical objects. Language is taught by having the students use their senses: touch, see, listen, smell, and even taste if necessary. This will help them relate the linguistic signs to truth that they perceive with their senses.

d. Meaning should be made perceptible through concrete objects or by the presentation of experience. When a language learner makes a mistake or misconception of something, the teacher does not correct it through translation but he/she tries to show something to make the meaning clear.

e. The idea that teaching should start from what the students already know in order to encourage association processes seems to favor children. By teaching through this way, children are expected to know what they are doing. They are not only saying something without being aware of what they are saying. In order for them to be aware, the new materials have to have a relationship with the previous one so that they can easily make associations since the association process is a necessary part of learning. Thus, language teacher should build upon the learning process by adding one new segment of language to the previous one; he/she starts from what the language learners already know in order to encourage association processes. To facilitate inductive processes, language teacher is suggested to deal with rule at a time. This is in accordance with the Input Hypothesis, which claims that humans acquire by receiving comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985). Students are able to understand language containing unacquired grammar with the help of context.

The methods for teaching children should maintain the characteristics of children in order that the students can learn the target language optimally. One of the common principles that may be considered to develop or choose methods for children is that learning a foreign language should be fun and natural. From this principle a language teacher may develop his/her own techniques, such as introducing songs and games to make their learning fun and natural. In addition to the techniques, the choice of vocabulary and structure also make teaching children different from other levels. A language teacher should choose the simple vocabulary and structure that are relatively easy to learn.

10.3 TEACHING TEENAGERS

The previous section is concerned with teaching English to children and this section is related to teaching English to teenagers. As mentioned earlier, classifications of age levels may be arguable. Different people may have different classifications of age levels and each category under a classification may have a different range of ages. In this book teenagers are classified as young adults whose ages range between twelve and eighteen or so; they are an age of transition; they are in between childhood and adult (Nunan, 1995: 92). Since they are an age of transition from childhood to adult, some

assumptions about teaching English to children apply to teaching them and to some extent assumptions about teaching adults may also work for this group.

The method that should be avoided in teaching children may work at the upper levels of childhood. As mentioned in earlier, *the teaching method that entails sophisticated understanding and reasoning by the student is better for older children*. Teaching by explaining some grammatical concepts and meanings that should be avoided for children classes can be introduced in a class of teenagers. In the presentation of grammatical concepts and meanings children may need only the examples or contexts, whereas teenagers may demand to know the rules and the meanings in their language. Following this assumption, underlying principles that suggest an introduction of grammatical rules or grammar explanations may work for classes of teenagers. A method that entails understanding of grammatical rules, such as the Grammar Translation Method can be used in this group. Complex problems in language learning can be solved with logical thinking for this group. This does not mean that in teaching teenagers we always need to employ such a method; there are still other methods for teenagers that may work better than grammar-oriented methods. In using a method that introduces grammar explanations care must be taken since the grammar of the target language is not an end and grammar mastery of the language is not the goal of teaching the language. Language competence or the skills of language should be the goals of learning the target language so that grammar mastery should be considered as the basis for the language skills, either listening, speaking, reading or writing.

Different from children, who are more sensitive to anything that touches the five senses, *teenagers have more increasing capacities for abstraction as a result of intellectual maturation*. This important characteristic distinguishes children from older students in learning the target language. Children are believed to be more concerned with 'here and now" rather than the absent objects or abstract topics while older students are more ready to learn the target language without the absence of physical objects. They are already good at handling abstract rules and concepts. This psycholinguistical characteristic will determine the suitability of a method or technique in language teaching. Giving commands of the Community Language Learning, for an example,

favors children in learning a language but this way may not work optimally for teenagers. Teenagers may feel uncomfortable and shy to follow instructions in a language class since they may bring their egos into a classroom and the fragility of egos when doing physical responses may be critical for older students. Older students may think that their language teacher treats them like children when she/he gives commands to them and they have to follow the commands physically.

In teaching teenagers, the age level between childhood and adult, some assumptions about teaching English to children still apply to teaching this group but some assumptions about teaching adults may also work for them. Different from children, teenagers may demand to know the rules and the meanings in their language. A method that entails understanding of grammatical rules, such as the Grammar Translation Method may be introduced to this group since they already have capacities for abstraction as a result of their intellectual maturation. In using such a method that introduces grammar explanation, care must be taken since grammar mastery is not the final goal of teaching the target language and the skills of language should be the goals of learning the language. Another method that may also be considered for this group is the Community Language Learning. The method, which has been inspired by the application of psychological counseling techniques to learning, represents the use of Counseling-Learning theory to teach foreign languages. The psychological counseling techniques seem to be needed in teaching teenagers, who are in a transition from childhood to adult. English teachers may also consider other methods that have been studied in this subject as long as the methods have underlying principles that are in accordance with the characteristics of this group. The approaches that are believed to work optimally for adults, such the Grammar Translation Method, the Natural Approach and the Communicative Approach are also worth trying.

10.4 TEACHING ADULTS

A method that is considered effective for children should be reconsidered or redesigned when it is used to teach teenagers or adults even though there may be some assumptions that should be applied in English teaching contexts for all levels. Even though many teaching techniques

for teaching children can apply in some ways to teaching adults, adults are believed to pose some characteristics that are different from younger children. The following are principles, techniques or thoughts that may be worth considering when teaching adults.

Adults have superior cognitive abilities that can render them more successful in certain classroom endeavors and their need for sensory input can rely on a little more on their imaginations (Nunan, 1995: 90). Considering this characteristic, language teachers may develop learning activities that provide the learners with enough opportunities to use the target language by introducing imaginative situations. By having imaginative contexts the language learners are "forced" to acquire the target language with superior cognitive abilities. There are many activities that exploit imaginations and one of them is *a role playing with new identities*.

This role-play technique has been popularly known in language classes taught through the Suggestopedia. The idea of role playing with new identity is believed to bypass the left brain and permits the right brain to intake the target language. This can relax the resistance to language acquisition that comes from the critical thinking of the left hemisphere. It is believed that the left hemisphere constantly advises us that we should stick to what we know (Ashers, 1988: 228-229). All of the learners are given new names in the target language and new identities. By having new identities, the learners feel more secure because they can hide their real life. In language teaching this can be done by inviting the learners to take mental trip with the teacher. During the class, each of the students will create an imaginary biography about the life. The students will act differently as usual, depending on their new identities. Their new identities will make the students learn the target language with their imagination. Then, they will imagine that they are going to a country where the target language is spoken. They can be open in expressing whatever they want since they have no secret in communication; they are pretending so that whatever they say is not their real life. Assuming a new identity enhances students' feeling of security and allows them to be more open. They feel less inhibited since their performance is really that of a different person (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 78).

Adults can utilize various deductive and abstract processes to shortcut the learning of grammatical and other linguistic concepts (Nunan, 1995: 87). The

context of language learning in the classroom instruction may favor adults more than children, who are better at acquiring the target language in natural settings. This characteristic implies that underlying principles that suggest an introduction of grammatical rules or grammar explanations that are believed to apply to teaching teenagers also work for adults. Adults may learn the target language by studying its rules first and then continuing to learn the language communicatively. A method that entails understanding of grammatical rules and complex problems can also be used for this group.

The introduction of grammar and vocabulary in language teaching should be meant to focus on the accuracy in using the target language and the class should continue to acquire the fluency in using the target language communicatively. The combination of grammar-vocabulary oriented methods and the Communicative Approach may be a solution to a problem in learning English in the Indonesian context in which most students may have no basic skill of the target language to carry out communicative tasks. This may be done by providing language learners with enough opportunities to practice the target language grammatically and then use the language communicatively.

However, whenever possible the target language as it is used in real context should be introduced from the beginning of the class. The grammar and vocabulary of the target language is learned from the function, situational context, and the roles of the interlocutors (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 128). This second way of learning grammar may be contradictory to that through the combination of the Grammar Translation Method and the Communicative Approach. The second way is popularly known as the Communicative Approach. Larsen-Freeman (2000) provides an example of the Communicative Approach that after the role-play is finished the students elicit relevant vocabulary. After communication, as well as games and role-play, is finished the students may discuss the elements of the language: grammar and vocabulary. The elements of the language come later after the first priority of language teaching: communication is over.

The suitability of a method and its teaching techniques to age levels can also be judged in the light of the objectives that the language learners are supposed to meet. The most usual objectives are the skills of the language: listening, speaking, reading and writing, even though in addition to the

language skills many language learners demand to know a knowledge of grammar rules in order for them to do better in certain tests that also measure grammar mastery. Since the difference between adults and teenagers may be not so distinct, the methods that are believed to be appropriate for teenagers are worth trying.

Some implications for teaching adults based on the characteristics of adults may vary from one to another language teacher. It may take different language teachers to be able to teach English at different levels. Since teaching a language is not only a skill but also an art, along with the proposed guidelines for teaching the different levels, we will also develop a certain intuition after experiencing teaching different levels through different methods. At least there are two principles and we may add our own principles to make the list longer. Based on the underlying principles of teaching the target language to adults, we can choose suitable methods or develop techniques that are relevant to their characteristics.

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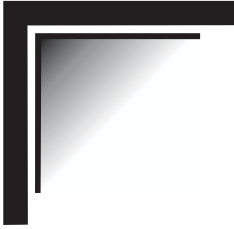
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