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ESL: Teaching for Communication

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ESL: TEACHING FOR COMMUNICATION

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Although the field of English as a Second Language -- ESL-- is a relatively new field for study, it grows out of a long tradition of teaching foreign or second languages. However, even without formal instruction in a second language, people throughout history have been learning second --and sometimes third and fourth--languages for purposes of trade, business, politics, social acceptance, or even survival.

Entering the last quarter of the twentieth century second or foreign language teachers had used three primary methods or approaches in their instruction: the Grammar-Translation method, the Audio-Lingual method, and the Cognitive Code approach. The extent to which any of these methods was successful was determined largely by the individual's definition of success. In the world of the late 1970's and the 1980's, success in foreign or second language teaching has been defined in terms of the students' ability to speak and understand --to use-- the language for purposes of communication or interaction with native speakers of the

target language, and to use it appropriately within a given context, at the end of a course of study.

In the last fifteen years many new methods and approaches have been introduced and tried in second language classrooms, methods and approaches for which the goal has been communicative competence. Among them are the Silent Way, Total Physical Response, Counseling Learning, Suggestopedia, the Notional-Functional or Communicative Language Teaching approach, and various approaches or methods which use dramatic techniques. Although there may be considerable differences from one method or approach to another, these communicative approaches do share a common core: they involve the whole person--intellectual, emotional, and social; they recognize the importance of minimizing stress within the learning environment; and they emphasize the importance of using the language in order to attain communicative competence in that language.

One of these methods and one approach --Total Physical Response and Communicative Language Teaching--will be looked at in some detail in order to determine the underlying assumptions, particularly regarding learning and language theory; objectives and goals; syllabus; instructional materials; classroom activities; and the learner and teacher roles. Then a text which purports to reflect the method or approach will be briefly examined to determine the extent to which it does, in fact, reflect the method or approach.

ESL: TEACHING FOR COMMUNICATION

PART I: TOWARD A COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

The Study of a Second Language: A Historical View

The field of English as a Second Language (ESL) is a relatively new field for study as well as for implementation. It is, however, a branch of foreign language teaching, a well established field of study. Throughout history people have learned a second or a foreign language for pragmatic purposes: the need to communicate in a language other than the person's native language for purposes of trade, business, politics, or even survival. Quite often in such cases, the foreign language was learned, or more accurately, acquired,[1] without benefit of formal or classroom instruction. During the Middle Ages and Renaissance, however, Latin was formally studied by people all over Europe because it was the common language not only of the powerful Roman Catholic Church but also of the educated professional and the statesman; the person who studied Latin knew that he would have to use it: to read it, to write it, to understand it when he heard it, and to speak it for communicative purposes. Long after Latin had ceased to be used widely for communication, however, people continued to study it because a knowledge of Latin was the mark of an educated person: the

study of Latin and Greek was justified as an "intellectual discipline" and as the "key to the thought and literature of a great and ancient civilization" (Rivers, Teaching 15). Although in our contemporary world there are many good reasons why one should study Latin, the need to communicate is not one of them.

Approach, Method, and Technique

Communication, however, is the goal of many people who come to the United States or other English speaking countries to study, to do business, or to live. The objective of teachers in ESL classrooms is to provide the students with the communicative skills necessary for them to be able to study, to transact business, and to socialize within the English speaking culture (Robinett 145); in short, the goal within the ESL --or foreign language-- classroom is to prepare students to use the language outside the classroom (Robinett 168). The teacher strives to prepare the student to use the language by means of a particular **approach** which involves particular **methods** and **techniques.** Paulston and Bruder, in Teaching English as a Second Language: Techniques and Procedures, distinguish **approach** from **method** and **method** from **techniques.** A language teaching **approach** is based on a set of assumptions which deal with the nature of language and of language learning; these assumptions, which reflect a given approach, provide the theoretical foundation for a systematic method which comprises the procedures involved in

planning curriculum and writing lesson plans (ix). The decisions a teacher makes about how to teach constitute the **method** (x). Within the scope of the method the teacher has available to him many different **techniques**, specific classroom strategies the teacher adopts in implementing the method he has chosen (x). These techniques should reflect both the methods and the assumptions about language teaching and learning implicit in the approach; the assumptions will ultimately be judged by the effectiveness of the techniques (xi; see also Stevick 203).

Affective Variables

Before embarking on a discussion of the various methods and techniques involved in teaching a second language, it is imperative that we recognize that there are factors other than method or approach which affect the learning or acquisition of another language and over which the teachers, regardless of the methods they use, have little if any control. One, of course, is the student's aptitude for language learning; another is his attitude toward the language, the people who speak it, and the culture it reflects as well as his attitude toward studying the language. The two -- aptitude and attitude-- do not necessarily correlate with each other, as Krashen and others have pointed out (24-39). Sandra Savignon hypothesizes that if "all the variables in L2 acquisition could be identified and the many intricate patterns of interaction between learner and learning con-

text described, ultimate success in learning to use a second language would most likely be seen to depend on the attitude of the learner" (110). S.P. Corder, however, suggests that the most powerful forces in determining whether and to what extent an individual will acquire a second language is that individual's "opportunity and incentive" to learn (132-3). Other studies have shown that when learners have the opportunity to immerse themselves in the target language, and/or when they are compelled for some reason to use it communicatively, then they are most likely to acquire the language speedily and effectively (Tucker 31; see also Krashen 37).

There is no questioning the fact that with no method will all students progress equally quickly or learn equally effectively; nor can one question the fact that there is a "relationship between attitudes and motivation and achievement in a second language" (Snow and Shapiro 3). The early approaches and methods of second language instruction paid little, if any, heed to factors other than various kinds of academic aptitude; in recent years proponents of all major methods and approaches have taken into consideration that factors such as the learning environment, the teacher's competence and sensitivity to the students, and the personality and attitude which the student brings to the learning situation also influence learning. Perhaps it could be argued that regardless of method or approach, regardless of historical context, any and all success in language teaching

over the centuries has been determined, at least in part, by the extent to which teachers have recognized and responded to these factors. Nevertheless, there have been different methods and approaches tried, used, abused, and eventually --and often reluctantly-- discarded; other methods and approaches have had success in creating speakers and understanders of the second language. All of these methods and approaches have been exercised within a framework that reflected both a school of linguistics and a school of psychology.

Grammar-Translation Method

Several different approaches to the formal teaching of second or foreign languages have been employed; in the last half-century particular attention has been paid to these approaches. Each approach is based on certain assumptions or premises about language and learning, and each implies certain pedagogical methods and classroom techniques. The oldest of the methods is the grammar-translation method, which grew out of the formal study of Latin and Greek. The study of Latin and Greek "prevailed in Europe for many centuries" (Rivers, Teaching 14), and for many years the study of all foreign languages was patterned on the study of the classical languages. With this approach the emphasis is on the reading and translation of the written language rather than on the spoken language, and grammar is seen as prescriptive rather than as descriptive, i.e., what should be

rather than what is (Robinett 161). Language learning is seen as a matter of mental discipline, and as a result, students must master many grammar rules; they do this by means of memorization and other forms of mental discipline. In the twentieth century proponents of the grammar-translation method have justified this approach primarily in terms of the theories of psychologist Edward Thorndike, who stressed the "association of ideas and transfer of learning," according to Robinett (161). In practice, students of a second language memorized long lists of vocabulary and mastered the various verb conjugations and noun, pronoun, and adjective inflections of the language. They also learned to read materials in the foreign language, that is, to translate the foreign language, usually in its written form only, into their native language and, to a lesser extent, from their native language into the language of study (Rivers, Teaching 16). By using the grammar-translation method, the students learned **ABOUT** the language they were studying, not how to use it in any situation other than the classroom (Robinett 162); the foreign language itself was not used in the classroom (Rivers, Speaking 2). As a result, the students were able to translate and to perform well on grammar tests but were unable to understand the spoken language or to speak it themselves in situations which called for the need to communicate (Terrell, "Update"

268-269; see also Rivers, Speaking 2-3; Richards and Rodgers 3-5; Yalden 8).

Audio-Lingual Method

Because of its failure to prepare students to understand the spoken word or to speak it, the grammar-translation method was replaced in the 1950's by the Audio-Lingual (A-L) method. With this method the focus shifted to a study of the structure of the language, a reflection of the popularity of the work of structural linguists such as Leonard Bloomfield, who "regarded language as a living, evolving thing, not as a static corpus of forms and expressions," according to Rivers (Communicating 34), and who believed that language was "a set of habits acquired within the social group" (Communicating 3). Leonard Bloomfield claimed in his Outline Guide for the Practical Study of Foreign Languages that "the command of a language is not a matter of knowledge; the speakers are quite unable to describe habits which make up their language. The command of a language is a matter of practice.... **ANYTHING ELSE IS OF NO USE**" (12). The consequent pedagogical emphasis of embracing such a strong statement was on the practice of forms or structures rather than on the meaning of the content (Robinett 163).

In psychology, the Skinnerian school of operant conditioning or behaviorism influenced the A-L method (Rivers, Teaching 38), and descriptive linguists, claims Kenneth

Chastain, "accepted most of the basic tenets of behaviorism with regard to language and learning" (66). Skinner believed that thinking is a form of behavior; verbal behavior is one manifestation of this human behavior, virtually all of which is determined by operant conditioning, "ultimately to be accounted for in terms of controlling variables" in the environment (Skinner 449). The behaviorists believed that man's mind is a "tabula rasa onto which are stamped associations between various stimuli in the environment and responses chosen from outside the organism for reinforcement" (Omaggio 26). Language, then, according to behaviorist theory, is learned by means of habit formation in which one learns the correct response in relation to a particular variable; this behavior is immediately confirmed and is then practiced until it becomes automatic (Skinner 29-30; see also Robinett 161).

In the classroom this meant that students memorized dialogues-- "situational utterances that can be varied to meet a number of conversational needs within the foreign language culture"; that they learned grammar by means of drills in "substitution, expansion, or conversion of elements in the language patterns"; that they were given few and minimal grammatical explanations which were offered only after they had learned the patterns; that they focused on oral production and aural understanding of the limited structures they had learned; and that they were provided

with reading and writing activities only as supportive exercises in the habit formation of what had been learned to a "level of automatic production through saturation practice" (Rivers, Communicating 4). The dialogues provided the means of "contextualizing key structures and illustrat[ing] situations in which structures might be used" (Richards and Rodgers 53) as well as a means of providing cultural information related to the target language. Stress was placed on pronunciation, including intonation of the language. The students were introduced to reading and writing only after they had learned the dialogues; frequently what they did learn to read and write was material that they had already memorized (Richards and Rodgers 53).

Because great emphasis was placed on aural comprehension and the "near-native mastery" of the sound system of the language, language laboratories were instituted as part of the language departments in colleges and secondary schools across the country during the 1950's and '60's, and eventually throughout the world. In the "labs" students could listen to native speakers using the structures they had just learned and could then practice their command of these structures until they had them perfected. It can be clearly seen that the A-L method reflected Leonard Bloomfield's contention in 1942 that "language learning is overlearning" (3) as well as Nelson Brooks's assertion in 1964

that language learning involves "a change in performance that occurs under the conditions of practice" (46).

The emphasis on drill and on repeated practice of syntactic patterns resulted in students' being able to reproduce those patterns. The major problem with this approach has to do with the assumption that language production is essentially a linear process; according to Wilga Rivers, however, the organization of associations that determine language production "has little to do with linear sequence" (Speaking 60-61). Rivers asserts that "learned associations (sentences, structural patterns) cannot be useful until speakers recognize that their requirements for communication are of a type for which this learned association is appropriate. Then, in most cases, they will need to adapt the pattern by substituting semantic elements called for by the situation" (Speaking 62).

Even with its shortcomings, the Audio-Lingual method was more successful than the Grammar-Translation method in producing individuals who recognized what the language sounded like and who could understand some of the spoken language, and who also could speak some and make themselves understood. In spite of this limited success of the A-L method, within twenty years the A-L method was being severely criticized, particularly for its over-emphasis on mechanical practice to the point of tedium; for its failure to allow students to fail, i.e., to make errors, which can

also be a means of learning; for its failure to prepare students for situations in which spontaneous expression was called for; and for its failure to recognize that some students need the visual representation of language as a support in learning (Rivers, Communicating 5). Moreover, students were often unable to adapt the structural material for actual communication, perhaps because, according to language expert Wilga Rivers, the students were not "understanding the crucial element they were practicing or its relationship to other features of the language system" (Communicating 5). Communicating in a foreign language, she contends, requires "flexibility, alertness, and audacity," none of which was required for success in the Audio-Lingual classroom (Communicating 5). As a result of many of these criticisms, many of which Rivers herself authored, modifications in the A-L method were made: more grammatical explanations before or during, as well as after, practice were offered; more emphasis was given to creative, real-life communicative situations; materials were related more authentically to the culture of the language; and a greater variety of classroom activities was introduced (Rivers: Communicating 5-6).[2]

Cognitive Code Approach

In spite of the modifications made in the Audio-Lingual method, it fell into disrepute, to be superceded by the cognitive code approach,[3] which was based linguistical-

ly on Noam Chomsky's theory of transformational-generative grammar and psychologically on Jean Piaget's theories of cognition. Piaget's theories emphasized "the inherent powers of the human mind and its creative power" (Robinett 162; see also Piaget). Rejecting the "antimentalistic, mechanist view of learning favored by the behaviorists," Piaget and other cognitive psychologists maintained instead that the mind is an "active agent in the thinking-learning process" and that "learning is controlled by the individual not by the surrounding environment" (Omaggio 26-27; see also Piaget). David Ausubel, a proponent of cognitive psychology as it relates to education, attacks behavioristic approaches to learning as approaches which involve "rote" learning as opposed to "meaningful" learning (61; see also Chastain, The Development 86).

In rote learning the material is learned "arbitrarily and verbatim" (Chastain, The Develoment 86); this rote learning of "potentially meaningful discourse obviously precludes all of the information-processing and -storing advantages of meaningful verbal learning" (Ausubel 60). True meaningful learning, according to Ausubel, "presupposes both that the learning task is [sic] potentially meaningful and that the learner exhibit a meaningful learning set" (61). With meaningful learning, the mind of the individual processes the information, organizing and relating it to what the individual already knows (Omaggio 27), and inte-

grating the "newly learned material into the learner's cognitive network" (Chastain, The Development 88). This, then, is material which can become an "active part of the individual's cognitive structure" (Omaggio 28; see also Chastain, The Development 88-89).

Like the cognitive psychologists, linguist Noam Chomsky rejected the theory that language acquisition occurs as a result of stimulus-response.[4] Chomsky believed that such a theory is too simplistic; it fails to take into consideration the tremendous complexity of language and the process-[es] by which it is acquired (Chastain, The Development 79; see also Chomsky 28, 42, 44, 55). For Chomsky and other transformational-cognitive linguists, "language and mental processes are inextricably related and therefore must be studied together" (Chastain, The Development 81). Every individual, Chomsky believed, is born with "innate language learning abilities which take the form of a language acquisition device (LAD) that proceeds by hypothesis testing" (Rivers, Communicating 6; see also Chomsky 56-58). By means of his LAD, the learner makes hypotheses about the grammar or structure of the language he hears and so internalizes a knowledge of the grammar of the language. The individual's ability to use language, Chomsky believed, is governed by rules at the unconscious level (41-42, 56-59). By means, then, of a finite set of rules which govern language and which are "not necessarily conscious or easy

to ... verbalize," an individual is able to generate "an infinite variety of sentences" (Omaggio 65). These sentences, Chomsky says, are "generated by the grammar that each individual has somehow and in some form internalized" (56). This "rule-governed behavior" enables people to create and recognize structures which are consistent with the rules which they have internalized as a result of the process of hypothesis testing (Omaggio 66), sentences which are "quite new, and are, at the same time, acceptable sentences in [their] language" (Chomsky 42).

According to Kenneth Chastain, disciples of the cognitive code approach believed that the rules must be understood before they can be applied, and that they are acquired by practice, which follows explanation and precedes application of the rule in different situations (Developing 146-147) see also Omaggio 66-67 and Terrell 271). Chastain believes that the responsibility the teacher has, then, is to organize the material so that "what is to be learned will be meaningful to the learner," and to "encourage an active, questioning attitude on the part of the students which helps them to understand and relate what is being learned to what they already know" (Developing 144). The role of the teacher, then, is to "provide opportunities for the students to create language as they seek to function in language-demanding situations" (Developing 144-5).

Followers of the Cognitive-Code approach, or more accurately, approaches (Omaggio 66), recognized that language and learning are more complex than the structuralists or behaviorists had believed them to be, and that learning a language involves the processes of perception, memory, and thinking (Rivers, Communicating 7). The goals of a teacher using the cognitive code approach are to develop in the learners competence, as defined by Chomsky,[5] and to give the students opportunities to "develop functional, not necessarily perfect, performance skills" by providing the learner with opportunities to speak and write in the target language (Chastain Developing 159-60). The role of "creative construction" in language learning was emphasized, and as a result teachers began to shorten dialogues and to use them as a "springboard for creating new utterances," encouraging students to use what language they had learned to express personal meanings by generating their own sentences (Rivers: Communicating 8-9). Teachers encouraged students to "develop flexibility in creating new combinations to fit different circumstances," and provided students with more opportunities for "student-sustained discussion and for extempore dialogue in situations that simulated those in which students might find themselves in the second culture" (Rivers, Communicating 9).

But these cognitive approaches did not create speakers and understanders of the second language any more than the

grammar translation or even Audio-Lingual method had (Terrell, "Update" 268-9; see also Yalden 8; Omaggio 65-69; Rivers, Speaking 4-6; Rivers, Communicating 6-13). First of all, emphasis was placed on analysis rather than on use of the language and on the instruction offered by the teacher rather than on opportunities for the students to actually practice language forms (Rivers, Communicating 7). Students who studied a second language using a Cognitive-Code approach first learned rules about the grammar of the language and then consciously applied their cognitive understanding of these rules before attempting to speak (Terrell, "Update" 267; see also Chastain, Developing 144-147). The rules of which Chomsky had spoken are not grammatical explanations of prescriptive language use which are commonly found in textbooks; instead, they are "inherent in the structure of the language and operate below the level of conscious awareness" (Rivers, Communicating 7; see also Chomsky 56-58). However, followers of the Cognitive-Code approaches ignored or were unaware of the concept of rule as Chomsky understood and used it, and as a result they focused their attention and that of their students on "the formulation and application of rules" which were conscious and consciously applied to language structures (Robinett 162). They believed that a conscious understanding of the rules was necessary for actual communication of ideas through language (Omaggio 67). Because teachers and developers of

curriculum failed to understand that "rule-governed behavior" refers to behavior which is directed by rules which have been internalized and which may very well be unconscious, the application of this approach focused on analysis of the language with respect to consciously formulated rules rather than on the study of language for communication. The implementation of the Cognitive Code approach also failed to produce speakers and understanders of the target language (Chastain and Woerdehoff; see also Chastain, "A Methodological"; Carroll).

Communicative Competence

If these traditional approaches have been ineffective in producing speakers who can use the second language communicatively, then what is the alternative? Or is there more than one alternative? Many linguists and specialists in second language acquisition believe that there are several alternatives, and all of them focus on **communication**: the ability of a second language learner to understand and to be understood within a social context in the language he is studying (Stevick 87). Many of these scholars and teachers go beyond communication to **communicative competence**, which involves the "integration of linguistic theory with a more general theory of communication and culture" (Savignon 12). Sandra Savignon of the University of Illinois defines communicative competence as "'the ability to function in a truly communicative setting --that is, in a

dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors'" (in Omaggio 4). The goal of teaching a second language for communicative competence, according to sociolinguist Dell Hymes, who originated the term,[6] is to teach the student "'what a speaker needs to know to communicate effectively in culturally significant settings'" (in Rivers, Communicating 14). The information that the student must have, then, concerns the possibility, feasibility, and appropriateness of an utterance as well as "whether (and to what extent) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails" (Savignon 12). Because the focus is on actual interaction between the learner and native speakers of the target language within a specific context, the focus in teaching for communicative competence will be on an exchange of meaning rather than on grammatical correctness of an utterance (Allen, Frolich, and Spada 241), although, as Savignon points out, linguistic accuracy is certainly one of the "major constituents of a communicative exchange" (in Omaggio 4).

The various communicative approaches have in common a pragmatic orientation to the teaching of the second language (Oller and Oller 20); they attempt to make the learning as "natural" a process as possible for the student (Terrell, "Update" 267). Another factor that they have in common is

the "obvious assumption ... that in order for a second language to be acquired it must be used by the students" (Allen, Frolich, and Spada 240). In classes in which a communicative approach is being taken, activities must be provided in which "learners can practice getting a message across with whatever resources happen to be available," even when such practice involves their making errors since errors are "considered to be a necessary step in the active process of hypothesis formation and gradual approximation to the target language" (Allen, Frolich, and Spada 243; see also Omaggio 50). Another goal is to "engage learners in activities where the message is reasonably unpredictable, in order to develop information processing skills in the target language from the earliest possible stage" and "to provide opportunities for sustained discourse in the target language" (Allen, Frolich, and Spada 241).

These orientations or communicative approaches involve several methods, among them the Silent Way of Caleb Gattegno; the Lozanov method, also called Suggestopedia, based on the work in the 1960's of Bulgarian physician and psychotherapist Georgi Lozanov; TPR or the Total Physical Response method developed by James J. Asher; the Counseling-Learning or Community Language Learning method of psychiatrist Charles Curran; the Functional-Notional syllabus (more an approach than a method) brought to the attention of U.S. scholars by David A. Wilkins of the Centre for Applied

Language Studies at the University of Reading in Great Britain; and various methods and approaches which employ drama as a primary means of teaching a second language, including the sociodramas of Robin Scarcella, the open scenario dramas of Robert DiPietro, Via Drama techniques, and the work in the use of drama done by Alan Maley and Alan Duff. Each of these methods employs a specific set of techniques to be used in the classroom, but each also reflects the communicative approach to language learning. Each assumes that the students' innate capacity to acquire language will be tapped, and that students will have the opportunity to test hypotheses in a situation in which their attempts at communication in the second language, however imperfect, will not only be tolerated but will be encouraged (Rivers, Communicating 12-13; see also Omaggio 50).

Before addressing each of these methods separately, it is necessary to clarify the distinction --established by Stephen Krashen, an applied linguist at the University of Southern California-- between the **learning** and the **acquisition** of language. For Krashen, **learning** a language involves the study and mastery of the explicit and consciously understood rules of a language; learning is a **conscious** process and is useful **not** for purposes of communicating but for purposes of editing the speech and writing in the target language, or the language being studied (38). **Acquisition**, on the other hand, refers to the **subconscious** process by

which an individual organizes the language that he hears so that he can process it and use it; he subconsciously recognizes implicit rules for the structure of language and applies this subconscious information for purposes of comprehending and of producing --speaking or writing-- the language (1). Krashen further claims that mastery of a second language for communication **requires** acquisition rather than learning (77). The hypothesis that a second language must be **acquired** rather than **learned** if one is to communicate effectively in that language is identified by Earl Stevick as "potentially the most fruitful concept... that has come out of the linguistic sciences" during his professional lifetime (270). It is accepted by virtually all of the students of language learning, and most research done on second language acquisition since the late 1970's assumes the validity of Krashen's hypothesis.[7]

Krashen's hypothesis suggests that innate learning processors direct second language acquisition; two of these processors, what Krashen calls the "filter" and the "organizer," work subconsciously, while the third, the "monitor," functions consciously.[8] In order for the subconscious processors to work well, the individual must be exposed to natural communication in the target language and be able to understand the content of the communication (Dulay et al. 261). In second language learning the conscious learning and application of grammatical rules serves the purpose of

editing or correcting the second language attempts rather than the purpose of developing fluency in the language (Krashen 3).

In discussing the effectiveness of approaches which focus on communication, Tracy Terrell claims that such approaches must encourage classroom activities which "allow the development of communicative abilities through natural acquisition processes in addition to fostering the kind of knowledge that results from conscious cognitive learning exercises" ("Update" 269). Terrell continues to point out that activities which primarily foster **learning** should be more restricted than those which encourage **acquisition** because learning is of "secondary importance in the development of communicative competence," and therefore such activities are "more limited in their usefulness to beginners" ("Update" 269). Terrell, countering the claim that second language learning is primarily an intellectual activity and vastly different from the practical activity of learning a first language, asserts that exactly **because** languages have been taught as an intellectual activity, the teaching of languages has failed miserably "to impart even the most fundamental communication skills" to students studying a second language ("Update" 270). If, then, learning --or, more accurately, acquiring-- a second language is primarily a practical activity, surely the methods employed need to lead to the acquisition of skills which enable the

student to communicate effectively with native speakers of the target language (Omaggio 75). Terrell believes that the "level of competence needed for minimal communication acceptable to native speakers is much lower than that supposed by most teachers ... [and that] if we are to raise our expectations for oral competence in communication, we must lower our expectations for structural accuracy" (326). Communicating effectively, then, has less to do with structural or grammatical mastery or correctness than many teachers have believed. Regardless of what it does **not** involve, our concern is with what teaching a second language for communication **does** involve.

The Silent Way

In the last fifteen or twenty years there has been what might be called an explosion of approaches and methods which claim and/or strive to be **communicative**. One method that aims for communicative competence is what its originator, Caleb Gattegno, calls the Silent Way. In this method, according to Diane Larsen-Freeman, silence is a "tool" which "helps to foster autonomy, or the exercise of initiative" (59). Richards and Rodgers claim that the hypotheses underlying this approach assume that learning is facilitated when the learner "discovers or creates rather than remembers or repeats what is to be learned," when the learner engages in "problem solving involving the material to be learned," and

when he has the opportunity to manipulate physical objects (Richards and Rodgers 99).

The teacher using the Silent Way remains silent after introducing the material to be learned, putting the burden of filling the silence --it is hoped with the appropriate response-- on the students (Gattegno 74). The techniques used in this method force students to "listen attentively to material that will not be repeated and to produce utterances based on the inductive discovery of syntactic structures" (Rivers, Communicating 21). Students learn vocabulary and structures in the target language by responding and by following the teacher's simple directions. Gattegno believes that vocabulary is a "crucial dimension of language learning and the choice of vocabulary [to be presented for learning in any lesson is] crucial"; grammatical structures, with the sentence as the basic unit of teaching, are presented in a "sequence based on grammatical complexity" (Richards and Rodgers 101). Because the students are expected to function, verbally and non-verbally, within the situations created by the teacher in the classroom, the students develop, Gattegno claims, "an ease in conversation" related to the vocabularies and structures which they have studied (86).

The approach to language is structural, and once the structures have been learned, the students then explore the possibilities for generalizing these structures to new

situations (Rivers, Communicating 21). If the goal for the students is self-expression, "they need to develop independence from the teacher, to develop their own inner criteria for correctness" (Larsen-Freeman 62). The teacher, then, plays an indirect role, often a silent role; the students play a direct, involved role, assuming responsibility to "figure out and test their hypotheses about how the language works" (Richards and Rodgers 111; see also Larsen-Freeman 62).

Although Gattegno makes it very clear that he sees few parallels between first and second language acquisition (72-73), there may, in fact, be more parallels than he sees. Judith Gary has done much research on the value of allowing second language students an **initial silent period** when they are **actively listening** to the target language, that is, really paying attention to what they are hearing (186). Gary and others have seen impressive results in language acquisition when students are required to actively listen but **not** required to overtly respond in the target language during the early stages of learning (Dulay et al. 25). During this "silent period" the learners focus on understanding what they hear and then respond non-verbally, or in their native language, and only finally in the target language, after they have gained confidence in doing so (Burt and Dulay 42). As children learning their native language first learn to understand what they hear, so adults learning a second

language often understand the spoken or written word long before they are actually able to produce the target language; recent research tends to confirm the value of allowing a silent period in the early stages of second language learning (Burt and Dulay 42; see also Rivers: Communicating 19).

Total Physical Response: TPR

Like Gattegno's Silent Way, James Asher's TPR (Total Physical Response) involves the students from the very beginning of their studies in **doing**. In the case of TPR, the students respond physically to imperatives; although they **may** respond verbally, the measure of their comprehension is in the overt physical response to the command (Asher et al. 59-60). TPR is based on the demonstrated realization that "responding to commands has an impact on retention" (Asher et al. 61-62). During the initial stages of instruction, the students are allowed to remain silent, but they are required to respond to teacher commands; these commands are very simple to begin with: for example, to stand up or to sit down; but later they become quite complex, requiring the students to understand complex sentence structures in order to respond appropriately (Dulay et al. 23-24). Asher's effectiveness studies have shown that students who learn via TPR perform significantly better, not only in listening comprehension but also in reading and

writing, than students exposed to many more hours of college language studies (Dulay et al. 24).

According to Richards and Rodgers, James Asher sees adult second language acquisition as a "parallel process to child first language acquisition," and he believes that adults can learn a second language in much the same way children learn a first language (87). Meaning, then, can be communicated by means of activities, in this case in response to teacher commands, and these activities activate memory; in this way learning a second language becomes very much like learning a first one (Larsen-Freeman 114, 116). Richards and Rodgers also maintain that Asher believes that by using game-like movements and by emphasizing the development of comprehension skills before the learner is asked to produce language, stress, which can inhibit learning, will be reduced (87), and that the lower the stress, the more learning is facilitated (90; see also Snow and Shapiro 11).

Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia, a method of second or foreign language teaching developed in Bulgaria by Georgi Lozanov, strives to create the optimum conditions under which students can acquire fluency in the target language (Omaggio 84). Like Caleb Gattegno, Lozanov believes that learning a foreign language can be facilitated and can occur at a much faster rate if we remove "psychological barriers to learning, "particularly fear (in Larsen-Freeman 72); this method is

directed toward removing these psychological barriers and providing a "relaxed, comfortable environment" in which learning can best take place (Larsen-Freeman 77). But, unlike Gattegno's Silent Way, Lozanov's method assigns the teacher a central and highly authoritative role, a role which at times approximates that of a parent-to-child relationship (Richards and Rodgers, 145). Teachers, Lozanov insists, must display total confidence in the method, pay careful attention to their manners and dress as well as to organization, punctuality, and any and all rules, and maintain a "solemn attitude toward the session [and] a modest enthusiasm" (275-6).

Earl Stevick sees Suggestopedia as being based on three assumptions:

> (1) that language involves the unconscious functions of the learner, as well as the conscious functions; and (2) that people can learn much faster than they usually do, but (3) that learning is held back by (a) the norms and limitations which society has taught us, by (b) lack of a harmonious, relaxed working together of all parts of the learner, and (c) by consequent failure to make use of powers which lie idle in most people most of the time. (230)

In keeping with these assumptions, the strategy of Suggestopedia is to remove these "norms and limitations," to avoid

tension in the learner, and to keep other inhibiting factors or tensions out of or away from the learning situation (Stevick 230). As Wilga Rivers puts it, the aim is to create a relaxed, cooperative atmosphere in which students do not feel inadequate or threatened by their lack of knowledge (Communicating 24).

In order to create the optimum learning conditions, the teacher uses psychological, artistic, and pedagogical tools, Stevick claims (230). The psychological tools, he adds, include means by which the teacher makes use of emotional as well as cognitive stimuli, by which he encourages the students to capitalize on their tremendous latent powers, and by which he sets a positive example by his self-confidence and joy in what he is doing. The primary artistic tool used in Suggestopedia, according to Stevick, is classical and baroque music, music which suggests "certainty and deep but controlled emotion" or "order, stability, and completion of the task." In this method, Stevick points out, the art form is more than just a supplement; it is an integral part of the method itself (239-240). The pedagogic tools might be dialogues, conversation, games, sketches, and plays (Bancroft 104), or any other materials a language teacher might use. According to Stevick, the difference between this method and others lies in the "extraordinary care with which the elements are integrated into one another" to create a strong feeling of community in the classroom (240).

Although Suggestopedia has, to some extent, been adapted for use in the U.S. and Canada, Jane Bancroft of the University of Toronto contends that "further experiments need to be conducted in order to confirm to what extent the Lozanov method speeds up learning and aids retention" (104).

Counseling Learning/ Community Language Learning

The direct role that the teacher plays in the Lozanov method differs from the indirect role of the teacher in Charles Curran's Counseling Learning or Community Language Learning method, but the two methods have in common an emphasis on the development of a strong sense of community in the classroom. Developing a sense of community among the class members, Curran believes, reduces the threat adults often feel in a new learning situation (in Larsen-Freeman 89, 98). In contrast to Suggestopedia, however, in which the teacher plays a central and authoritative role, in C-L the teacher assumes a non-directive relationship with the students; Curran claims that this "non-threatening counseling relationship" which the teacher has with the students "provides the optimal environment for learning" (editors' introduction to Curran in Oller and Richard-Amato 146). True human learning, Curran insists, is both cognitive and affective, and best takes place in an environment in which teacher and students comprise a "community" (in Richards and Rodgers 117, 120). Curran's method recognizes the initial fear and anxiety that people feel in the face of their own

ignorance, in this case of a language they do not know; his method seeks to create a learning situation which minimizes the anxiety of the students while at the same time providing the students with cognitive material (Curran 154). Paul LaForge, a student of Curran, defines Community Language Learning as a "supportive language learning contract which consists of group experience and group reflection"; the five essential elements of CLL included in this definition, says LaForge, are **group experience, a supportive contract, group reflection, a learning contract,** and **language learning** (1). In a C-L class, the students sit in a circle and comment on any topic they wish, in their shared native language; the counselor-teacher, who knows both the native and target language, translates the comment into the target language and analyzes it (Curran 154-156; see also Larsen-Freeman 90). The students then record and analyze their own comments, taking notes which provide for them a reference text (Larsen-Freeman 104; see also Richards and Rodgers 123; and Robinett 166). In this method the teacher serves as a "supportive, non-judgmental knower, remaining on the periphery" (Rivers, Communicating 24), the person from whom the students learn as they feel able (Curran 155). Curran believes that even the group itself contributes to this optimal environment because it provides initial support with an "atmosphere of enthusiasm and shared achievements" (162). Richards and Rodgers believe that CLL is the "most respon-

sive" of the methods they have reviewed in terms of its "sensitivity to learner communicative intent" but that it also "places unusual demands on language teachers" who must be "highly proficient and sensitive to nuance in both L1 and L2" as well as being non-directive, often resisting the pressure to teach in the conventional sense, and extremely flexible (126).

Notional-Functional Approach

Another communicative approach, called the Notional Functional Syllabus, simply the Communicative Approach, or Communicative Language Teaching (Richards and Rodgers 65-66) was developed by what Wilga Rivers calls a group of "highly respected applied linguists and language teachers," for the Council of Europe in the early 1970's (Communicating 134-5). In 1976 this approach was brought to the attention of U.S. linguists and educators by David Wilkins, who claims that this method is "organized in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purposes" (13). In the Preface to his Notional Syllabuses, Wilkins acknowledges his debt to his colleagues on the Council of Europe, and to C.N. Candlin and Henry Widdowson, from whom Wilkins professes to have learned a great deal. At the same time he claims that his particular contribution to this type of syllabus was to "have provided a taxonomy through which semantically oriented language teaching can be systematical-

ly planned and ... to have helped revise our understanding of the nature of language learning and teaching" in the light of this focus on purposes for which people learn languages (Preface, n.p.).

When the Notional-Functional Syllabus is employed, students are taught not only **how** to communicate --structure and meaning-- but how to communicate **for a specific purpose** or **within a specific context**; or, as Wilkins and Widdowson call it, language **use** (in Johnson 29-30; see also Widdowson 2-4; Wilkins 10, 17). This means, Wilkins says, that "the learner has to learn rules of communication as well as rules of grammar" (11).[9] There are, in fact, two "versions" of this approach: a strong and a weak; the weak version "'stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities'" to use the language for communication, integrating these activities into an already existing program of language teaching; the strong version, on the other hand, "'advances the claim that language is acquired through communication,'" that using the language is the means by which the language system is developed (Howatt in Richards and Rodgers 66).

Whether the approach is strong or weak, within this system a knowledge of "correct usage," which involves the ability to compose grammatically correct sentences, must be "complemented by a knowledge of appropriate use" which "must of necessity include a knowledge of usage" (Widdowson 18).

The reverse, however, is not necessarily so: Widdowson claims that "it is possible for someone to have learned a large number of sentence patterns and a large number of words which can fit into them without knowing how they are actually put to communicative use" (18-19). A knowledge of language which includes "appropriate use" as well as usage is not only grammatically understandable but is also appropriate within a given context (Johnson 13). Students, then, are taught how to greet, take leave, apologize, introduce people, request information, warn, persuade, complain, advise, and issue commands at varying levels of courtesy; they are also taught to deal with specific "notions" or "general concepts such as 'quantity,' 'cause,' or 'time'" (Johnson 20; see also Littlewood 80). Since, as Wilkins points out, language is "always used in a social context and cannot be fully understood without reference to that context" (16), the focus in language teaching must be on what the learner needs to communicate in a given situation. A Functional-Notional Syllabus, then, is created to meet specific needs of students in specific situations (Robinett 169), primarily their need to communicate effectively within a specific social framework peculiar to the language they are studying.

Drama

In teaching students to communicate within a specific context, several people have found that using drama in its

various forms, including role playing, has been a successful tool. Dramatic activities, as defined by Maley and Duff, "give the student an opportunity to use his or her own personality in creating the material on which part of the language class is to be based"; such activities draw on each person's natural ability to "imitate, mimic and express himself or herself through gesture" as well as everyone's "imagination and memory, and natural capacity to bring to life parts of his or her past experience that might otherwise never emerge" (6). The use of drama in the classroom encourages active student involvement: the involvement of the student's body as well as of his intellect and his emotions (Oller and Richard-Amato 205).

Susan Stern accepts as a given that "drama in the language classroom improves oral communication" (207). Drama, Stern maintains, "facilitates communication," which in the English as a Second Language or foreign language classroom is the desired end (216). In addition, drama encourages the "operation of certain psychological factors ...: heightened self-esteem, motivation and spontaneity; increased capacity for empathy; lowered sensitivity to rejection" (Stern 222). Acting, Richard Via explains, is **doing**, and this **doing** "can lead the student out of concentrating on learning language per se and into using the language for a purpose, something which language teachers are forever seeking" (210). Drama, as Maley and Duff see it, is

not preparation for a performance; the performance is now, the audience is made up of the "performers" themselves (6).

Drama attempts to focus the attention of the participants on meaning, and the focus in any play, Rivers says, is the communication of ideas in a specific context and with appropriate emotion (Communicating 25). For the use of drama in the classroom to be effective, Maley and Duff, as well as Via, emphasize the importance of creating and maintaining a relaxed environment (Maley and Duff 22; Via 209), one in which the participants do not feel intimidated by their ignorance of the vocabulary or structures of the target language, and one in which they can develop competence in using the language communicatively.

Robert DiPietro of the University of Delaware suggests "open scenario" drama to develop competence in various roles in which the second language learner will find himself within the culture of the target language. These open-ended scenarios provide, at some point in the drama, new information which will force the participants to make decisions which will "alter the direction of the action ... and develop verbal strategies" to deal with the situation (DiPietro 233). DiPietro recognizes the importance of Wilkins's "drawing our attention to the basic functions and notions of communication likely to be needed by learners of foreign languages" (227), and he has developed dramatic

approaches to enable students to participate knowledgeably in social situations.

Another pioneer in the development of drama as a teaching tool is Robin Scarcella, who believes that sociodrama can be an effective means of developing communication skills by giving the students the opportunity to "produce new sentences based on their own behavior or the spontaneous constructions produced by other students, ... to restructure their language use according to the social context," and to "promote social interaction, a prerequisite for communication" (239). Sociodrama obliges students to attend to the verbal environment, Scarcella affirms (239), and also provides a "problem-solving activity which simulates real life situations and requires active student involvement" (243). By using drama, then, teachers can provide their students with activities which lead them toward communicative competence in the target language.

The Common Core of Communicative Approches

The communicative methods and approaches, although they may differ in many particulars, have in common that they involve the whole person: the cognitive, affective, and often the physical; they recognize the importance of an encouraging attitude on the part of the teacher; they encourage students to actively use the language for communication; and they recognize the importance of a sense of cooperation and community among the students (Rivers,

Communicating 83-4). All of them recognize that people learn to communicate by communicating, an idea which is not new to language teaching but which has experienced a revival in recent years (Savignon 47). And in all of these methods teachers attempt to create in the classroom an environment in which acquisition as well as learning can take place: a process which requires "meaningful interaction in the target language --natural communication-- in which speakers are not concerned with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding" (Krashen 1). Given a goal of communicative competence in the second language classroom, "to the extent that any of these methods works it will be because they enable the student to spotlight his or her attention on meaning --that is, to concentrate on the pragmatic connection of utterances in the target language with meaningful states of affairs and episodes of experience" (Oller and Richard-Amato xiii).

PART II: APPLICATION: ANALYSIS AND EXAMINATION

Within the scope of this project it is impossible to focus in any depth on more than two of the particular methods or approaches that this paper has so far dealt with. James Asher's Total Physical Response is a very specific method, in that Asher has been very definite in describing exactly what TPR involves. On the other hand, the Communicative Language Teaching or Functional-Notional approach encompasses many possible ways in which to apply the approach to actual teaching situations. First, then, we will look at the actual application of TPR to a teaching situation by examining TPR in more depth and then examining a textbook that purports to use TPR. Later we will do the same for the Functional-Notional approach.

Total Physical Response

Urderlying Assumptions

In TPR the emphasis is on doing --particularly doing which involves motor activity because, Asher believes, such activity ACTIVATES the memory; "physically responding to commands seems to produce long-term memory ... [and] even in one's native language, responding to commands has an impact on retention" (Asher et al. 61). As responding to imperatives --physically-- helps children to acquire their first

language, Asher believes that similar activities can help adults to learn a second language (Richards and Rodgers 87). He further believes that children and adults can acquire a second language in a "fraction of the time that was necessary for the infant acquiring his first language" partly because the individual attempting to acquire a second language "has a network of physical response possibilities that is several times larger" than that of an infant, and also because, Asher assumes, the child or adult student is willing to follow directions and able to do so (Asher 331). Many TPR activities involve "game-like" movements, which, coupled with the emphasis on comprehension before production (as in first language acquisition) reduces stress and provides a more positive environment, one which is more conducive to language acquisition (Richards and Rodgers 87).

Underlying Learning Theory

Richards and Rodgers claim that TPR is linked to the "trace theory" of memory in psychology: the more strongly the memory connection is traced (for example, between an activity and the word or words being learned), the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it is that the memory association will be recalled (87). Retracing can be verbal, by means of rote repetition, for example; it can be made in association with a motor activity; or it can be established by a combination of the two. A combination of rote repetition and motor activity increases the

probability that the tracing will be successful (Richards and Rodgers 87). TPR, predictably, focuses on a combination of repetition and the motor activity. Even though linguists have rejected the stimulus-response model of language acquisition and development as incapable of accounting for language acquisition/learning and use (see Chomsky), Asher's approach is based primarily on the stimulus-response theory of learning (Richards and Rodgers 89).

Underlying Language Theory

In terms of a language theory, Richards and Rodgers maintain that Asher believes that the verb, especially the imperative, is the "central linguistic motif around which language use and language learning are organized" (88). Asher himself says that language involves both abstractions, which should be delayed because they are not necessary in order to decode the grammatical structure of language (in Richards and Rodgers 88); and non-abstractions, such as concrete nouns and imperative verbs, into the latter of which categories "most linguistic forms can be nested" (Asher et al. 69).

Objectives and Goals

According to Richards and Rodgers, the central objective of TPR is to teach oral proficiency at the beginning level of language learning via comprehension. The long-range goal, they claim, is to "produce learners who are capable of an uninhibited communication that is intelligible

to a native speaker." On a more immediate level, the goals of any given lesson must be attainable by "the use of action-based drills in the imperative form" (91).

Syllabus

While there is no pre-established syllabus per se, the syllabi that have been developed in conjunction with TPR reflect a sentence based approach, grammatical and lexical criteria being primary in selecting teaching items, while initial attention is paid to meaning rather than to form (Richards and Rodgers 92). Grammar is taught inductively, with a fixed number of items being introduced at a time, selected on the basis of "frequency of need or use" and the "ease with which they can be learned" (Richards and Rodgers 92). Of course the focus is on the use of the imperative, which Asher believes is a "powerful facilitator of learning," but which he also believes should be used "in combination with many other techniques" (in Richards and Rodgers 92).

Instructional Materials

There is no basic textbook for TPR, and in the initial stages of teaching very few materials are needed since the "teacher's voice, actions, and gestures may be a sufficient basis for classroom activities" (Richards and Rodgers 95). As the class progresses, "materials and realia," such as common classroom objects and furniture and later materials

such as pictures, slides, word charts, and perhaps models of various kinds play an increasingly important role.

Classroom Activities

Imperative drills, used to elicit physical actions and activity, provide the initial and primary activities. In the early stages of classroom instruction, the commands consist of one word but are soon expanded into full sentences (Omaggio 73). Asher claims, however, that these activities must be used "creatively by the instructor" in order to maintain "high student interest," and that this variety is critical for maintaining the interest (Asher et al. 69).

As soon as the students feel comfortable with the commands they know, they are encouraged but not pressured to offer commands to the class, to "reverse roles with the instructor and utter directions in the the target language to peers or to the teacher"; gradually, Asher believes, the student's production of the language "will shape itself in the direction of the native speaker" (Asher 335). Asher, however, fails to indicate how this will happen or within what time frame.

Other activities are available to the teacher in a TPR classroom. Role plays, dealing with everyday situations and eventually with problem-solving situations, are later introduced. Teachers using TPR may employ a limited number of reading and writing activities to "further consolidate structures and vocabulary, and as follow-ups to oral impera-

tive drills" (Richards and Rodgers 93). Slide presentations may provide a focus for questions and for imperatives. Conversation in a TPR classroom is delayed because Asher believes that conversations are too abstract and, as he has pointed out, are not necessary for the decoding of the grammatical structure of a language.

It is difficult, if not impossible, however, for a teacher following Asher closely to avoid the imperative for even brief periods of time, no matter what the activity is. Such a narrow focus on the imperative creates serious limitations for a teaching method. In the first place, true imperatives --Close the door; Bring me the book; Open the box-- are used relatively rarely in actual spoken language. In fact, social etiquette requires that people phrase imperatives in more indirect, "polite" terms --Would you please close the door? Would you bring me the book? Would you mind opening the box for me? or even It's very cold in here, i.e., Close the window; It's getting late and I have to get up early tomorrow, i.e., Please leave now. And because repeating and responding to commands can become very tiresome for both teacher and students, teachers have found it necessary to augment TPR with activities other than those endorsed by Asher.

Learner Role

Learners in a TPR classroom are primarily listeners and performers, both as individuals and as members of the group.

They recognize and respond to novel combinations using known structures and vocabulary. At a later stage they will issue commands and produce novel combinations of their own. At an even later point in time they will learn to read and to write the structures they can understand and speak (Richards and Rodgers 93).

Teacher Role

The role of the teacher in TPR is both active and direct. The teacher decides what to teach, models the structures, presents the material, and provides feedback. At first the teacher corrects the students very little so as not to inhibit the learners; later the teacher will intervene more in order to achieve "fine-tuning" (Richards and Rodgers 94). The teacher must carefully monitor students' progress to ensure that the rate is gradual enough for the students, making sure that, for example, "speaking abilities ... develop in learners at the learners' own natural pace" (Richards and Rodgers 94). Although the teacher's role is direct, Asher stresses that the primary responsibility of the teacher is "not so much to teach as to provide opportunities for learning ... the best kind of exposure to language so that the learner can internalize the basic rules of the target language" (in Richards and Rodgers 94).

Analysis and Examination of a TPR Textbook

Although no one textbook has been developed as a TPR textbook, ESL Operations: Techniques for Learning While

Doing, by Gayle Nelson and Thomas Winters and published in 1980 by Newbury House, incorporates much of Asher's TPR.

Nelson and Winters define an **operation** as a "procedure for doing something, using a natural sequence of events .... The procedure can be as simple as making a cup of coffee or as complex as filling in a form"; the instructions are usually "delivered in the form of commands" (1). The important factor involves using the target language to give directions which enable a student to correctly complete the procedure. Language, then, is "the medium that enables the student to complete the process, and the process is a vehicle for learning the language" (1). Since the meaning is clarified by the activity which in turn reinforces the language, there is both "tactile and visual memory as well as linguistic memory" (91).

It is already clear that Asher's approach is reflected in an approach which uses operations. In an article in Cross Currents entitled "Total Physical Response Is More Than Commands--At All Levels," Contee Seely points out that "any piece of language which can be demonstrated actively can be learned through TPR" (48). Operations, clearly, involve active demonstration. Nelson and Winters point out the interrelationship between the activity and the retention of the meaning indicated by the activity (ii).

ESL Operations is intended for use as a textbook in a language-learning class; according to Nelson and Winters, it

can be used effectively with different methods or approches, including TPR (iii). The procedures or operations in this book are, Nelson and Winters say, divided into six categories; within each category the operations are carefully sequenced according to level of difficulty; i.e., the later operations require a more extensive knowledge of vocabulary and structures (8). For each procedure the title is given first, followed by the list of materials necessary to perform the operation, key words, and verbs; the operation itself follows, broken down into specific steps. The specific directions are followed by grammar notes, primarily intended for the use of the teacher, including any structures which reoccur frequently or are likely to present problems for the students. Lastly, follow-up activities are offered; these suggestions include more creative activities, such as writing an original operation, and offer "ideas for discussion, connected discourse, and games" (9).

The very first operation in the first category, Classroom Activities, is Drawing a Picture; the materials are paper and pencils; the key words are prepositions such as next to, in, between, over, around, near, and the verb draw. The operation itself involves seven steps, beginning with drawing a lake, two trees next to the lake, and a rock, a fish, a sun, two birds, and grass --all in various relative positions to the lake. The grammar notes include loca-

tive phrases, count and non-count nouns, and definite and indefinite articles.

The first follow-up activity suggests that Student A dictate the operation to Student B; that the students check what Student B student wrote down against the text; and then that the students exchange roles. This activity departs from Asher's method: first of all, in a very beginning lesson the students become involved as initiators rather than as simply listeners or responders. In addition, the activity involves both reading and writing, which Asher would postpone further, certainly not including it in an initial lesson since he puts such a strong emphasis on the need for comprehension before production.

The second follow-up activity involves having the students write their own operation on drawing the human body, an article of clothing, or a Halloween pumpkin. A method which strictly adhered to Asher's methodology would postpone such an activity since such an operation would involve the use of novel combinations of the students' own devising.

The last lesson in the category of Communication is Wiring Money. For this lesson the only material needed is a telephone book. The key words include compound nouns: Western Union, phone book, money order form; two adverbs: clearly and carefully; the simple noun charge; the simple verb wire; and the two-word or phrasal verbs look up, write

down, and fill in. The operation itself involves several steps, from having the students look up Western Union in the phone book; write down the address; go to the office with necessary cash; tell the clerk what they want; fill in the form, printing clearly and carefully; give the money they are sending to the clerk; and pay the charge. A sample telegraphic money order application is included in the lesson.

The grammar notes refer to two-word verbs, adverbs of manner, "that" clauses used as noun and adjective clauses, compound nouns, and double object verbs such as give and tell.

The first follow-up activity suggests that the wiring of money be done as a role play, an activity consistent with Asher's methodology at more advanced levels. The second follow up activity suggests that the students call Western Union to find out what other services they offer and then compare those services with those offered by telephone companies in other countries. This activity requires conversation, a linguistic activity which, according to Asher, should be delayed until the student has developed "'a rather advanced internalization of the target language'" (Asher in Richards and Rodgers 93).

ESL Operations is a book which can be used effectively with many methods or approaches; it is, in the main, consistent with Asher's Total Physical Response. Such a book as

this provides opportunities for the students to learn by doing, i.e., to learn the target language, in this case English, within various contexts. Many of the "operations" in this book provide the students with the opportunity to use the language communicatively, and as a result Operations is a book which could be used effectively within a framework of many of the communicative approaches.

Functional-Notional/Communicative Language Teaching

Underlying Assumptions

The Functional-Notional or Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach is based on the assumption that language is a sociolinguistic phenomenon: that it occurs within a social context (Wilkins 16) and involves at least two participants in an interchange which has a specific purpose (Richards and Rodgers 66). The purpose involves communication, and that communication involves a knowledge not only of what linguistic structures to use but also of when it is appropriate to use a given structure. The approach is essentially a humanistic one, "one in which the interactive processes of communication" take precedence over other aspects of language learning (Richards and Rodgers 83). Alice Omaggio claims that this approach falls into the "rationalist camp" of approaches: such an approach, Omaggio claims, "asserts that language learning is primarily the result of critical thinking and arises from a desire to communicate" (41).

Given that communication is the goal of studying a second language, what does one communicate by means of the second or target language? According to the Functional-Notional or CLT approach, people need to learn to communicate language functions and notions. These "functions (tasks) and notions (content categories) form the core of the instructional syllabus, replacing grammatical structures as the organizing principle for instruction" (Omaggio 213). Jan van Ek, who served on the Council of Europe committee which developed this approach in the late 1960's and early 1970's, says that "What people do by means of language can be described as verbally performing certain functions": i.e., people "assert, question, command, expostulate, persuade, apologize, etc." (5-6). Alice Omaggio has summarized six types or categories of language functions which David Wilkins, a fellow committee member of van Ek on the Council of Europe, has identified:10

1. Judgment and evaluation (approving, disapproving, blaming, etc.)
2. Suasion (inducement, compulsion, prediction, warning, menacing, threatening, suggestion, advising)
3. Argument (informing, asserting, denying, agreeing)
4. Rational inquiry and exposition (drawing conclusions, making conditions, comparing and

contrasting, defining, explaining reasons, and purposes, conjecturing, verifying)

5. Personal emotions (loving, hating, despising, liking)

6. Emotional relations (greetings, expressing sympathy, gratitude, flattery, cursing) (213)

In order to be able to perform such functions in language, van Ek explains, "people express, refer to or --to use a more general term-- 'handle' certain notions" (6). General notions include topics such as existence, distance, direction, time, quantity, quality, reflection, expression, and relations; specific notions include concepts such as personal identification, address, age, origin, education, occupation, family, likes and dislikes, amenities, money, daily routines, sports, entertainment, holidays, countries and places, health and welfare, shopping, food and drink, etc. (van Ek 50-83). The Communicative or Functional-Notional approach, then, provides the content about which people communicate (notions) and the means or tools by which to express the content (functions).

Underlying Learning Theory Assumptions

Although the proponents of the CLT approach initially said very little about learning theory, Richards and Rodgers claim that "Elements of an underlying learning theory can be discerned" in some of the Functional-Notional practices (773). These theoretical assumptions can be inferred from

certain practices, and they address the conditions necessary to promote language learning; among these principles are what Richards and Rodgers identify as the "communication principle," the "task principle," and the "meaningfulness principle." The first, the communication principle, holds that any activities which "involve real communication promote learning"; the second, the task principle, holds that any activities in which "language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning"; and the third, the meaningfulness principle, holds that language which is "meaningful to the learner supports the learning process" (72).

Consistent with this theory of learning, Jan van Ek insists that foreign language ability is a matter of skill rather than of knowledge (5). Keith Johnson and William Littlewood, agreeing with van Ek, have stressed that learning is a matter of skill development, but that this development involves both cognitive and behavioral skills. The cognitive skills involve the internalization of plans for using language appropriately and include the internalization of grammar rules, vocabulary selection procedures, and the social conventions which determine speech. The behavioral aspect[11] is concerned with the "automation of these plans so that they can be converted into fluent performance.... This occurs mainly through practice in converting plans into performance" (Littlewood in Richards and Rodgers 72-73). So although there is little direct indication of the underlying

learning theory, there is sufficient indirect evidence that this approach is based on the theory that individuals learn most effectively what they perceive as both purposeful and meaningful, and that they learn best by developing both cognitive and behavioral skills through critical thinking, understanding, and practice.[12]

Underlying Language Theory

The basic tenet underlying Communicative Language Teaching is that language is communication (Richards and Rodgers 69). It builds on Dell Hymes's concept of "communicative competence," which identifies "what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community" (Richards and Rodgers 70).[13] A person who acquires such a competence acquires both knowledge and ability in regard to the possibility, feasibility, appropriateness, and actual performance of a speech act (Richards and Rodgers 70). To supplement Hymes's definition of communicative competence, M.A.K. Halliday has offered a theory of the functions of language which, Richards and Rodgers assert, complements Hymes's view for many proponents of Communicative Language Teaching (70). Halliday identifies seven basic functions of language for children learning a first language: instrumental --to get things; regulatory--to control or regulate others' behavior; interactional --to create interaction with others; personal-- to express feelings; heuristic-- to learn and discover; imaginative --to

create a world of the imagination; representational --to communicate information (in Richards and Rodgers 70-71). For proponents of CLT, learning a second language involves "acquiring the linguistic means to perform different kinds of functions," very much what learning a first language does for those learning their native language (Richards and Rodgers 71).

Richards and Rodgers summarize the "rich, if somewhat eclectic, theoretical base" of CLT:

> 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. (71)

The underlying theory, then, of CLT involves at its core the belief that language is a tool for communication, and that people best learn a second language when they use the target language to interact with others. Such interaction provides the need as well as the opportunity to develop skills not only in using language structures but also in using the language appropriately within a social context.

Objectives and Goals

For those ascribing to the CLT or Functional-Notional approach to language learning, the objectives are stated in terms of the "performance of language functions and the expression of, or reference to, notions" (van Ek 5). In general terms this means that the goal is that the learners will be able to "survive (linguistically speaking) in temporary contacts with foreign language speakers in everyday situations" (van Ek 24). What this means more specifically is carefully spelled out by van Ek in terms of language functions (from imparting and seeking actual information to socializing) in respect to certain topics (from personal identification to relations with other people); he goes on to specify speaking, listening, writing, and reading objectives (25-27; see also Wilkins 13-19). It is doubtful that there is a method or approach for which the objectives and goals are more carefully or specifically spelled out than for the Communicative Language Teaching approach.

Syllabus

As the goals and objectives for CLT are explicit, the syllabus is also explicit. In contrast to TPR, for which there is no particular syllabus, for Communicative Language Teaching the very name --Functional-Notional Syllabus-- clearly indicates the importance of the syllabus. Wilkins's Notional Syllabuses is the book which brought Communicative Language Teaching and the work of the Council of Europe to

the United States. Two other major books on CLT, the titles of which indicate the importance of the syllabus, are Janice Yalden's The Communicative Syllabus: Evolution, Design, and Implementation and Keith Johnson's Communicative Syllabus: Design and Methodology.

Because "communicative language competence is viewed as consisting of a wide range of skills, of which the manipulation of linguistic forms is only one," Janice Yalden believes that for second or foreign language teaching "syllabus design... now must take on fundamental importance" (18). Yalden also believes that the term syllabus must subsume two meanings: "a specification of content derived from a description of the purposes the learners have for acquiring the target language ... [and] a plan to implement the former at the classroom level" (19). And the syllabus must address not only usage but also appropriateness or what Yalden calls "language use" (20; Johnson 23-30).

Instructional Materials

Practitioners of CLT, claim Richards and Rodgers, "view materials as a way of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use"; materials, then, play the very important role of "promoting communicative language use" (79). The textbook is one important source of material; while some texts which purport to be based on Communicative Language Teaching merely reformat the structural material to look communicative, others bear little resemblance to the

traditional language teaching texts with their "usual dialogues, drills, or sentence patterns" (Richards and Rodgers 79). A non-traditional CLT text might use visual clues, pictures, and sentence fragments to initiate conversation; it might also include a theme or a concept such as relaying information; a task analysis relative to the theme or concept, such as understanding the message or obtaining clarification; a description of a practice situation relative to the theme; a "stimulus presentation," such as the beginning of a conversation; comprehension questions; and paraphrase exercises (Richards and Rodgers 79-80).

Besides the text, other materials might include what are called "task-based materials," materials to be used in conjunction with role plays, games, simulations, and other activities which support communicative teaching. Such materials may include exercise handbooks, cue cards, activity cards, pair-communication practice materials, and student-interaction practice booklets (Richards and Rodgers 80). Realia, or "authentic" materials might include signs, advertisements, newspapers, magazines, maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, charts, or even models which can be assembled by following directions (Richards and Rodgers 80). Other possible sources of authentic materials and realia are radio or television broadcasts, menus, timetables, and picture strip stories (Larsen-Freeman 136-137). The use of authentic material and of realia help to "expose students to natural

language in a variety of situations," according to Diane Larsen-Freeman (135).

Classroom Activities

Richards and Rodgers claim that the "range of exercise types and activities compatible with a communicative approach is unlimited" as long as the exercises "enable learners to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage learners in communication, and require the use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction" (76). Littlewood distinguishes between two major types of classroom activity: "functional communication activities," which include tasks such as having learners make comparisons, work out a sequence of events from a set of pictures, discover missing features in a map or picture, give a set of directions to another student, follow directions, or solve problems; and "social interaction activities," which include conversation and discussion sessions, dialogues and role plays, simulations, skits, improvisations, and debates (20; see also pp. 22-64). Most classroom activities are designed to "focus on completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of information and information sharing" (Richards and Rodgers 76). The important thing is that the activities focus on real communication; such activities have three features: information gap, choice, and feedback. An information gap exists, according to Keith

Morrow, "when one person in an exchange knows something that the other person doesn't"; when the speaker has a choice of what to say and the respondent a choice of how to respond; and when the speaker can evaluate the effectiveness of his communication by means of the response or feedback he receives (in Larsen-Freeman 132).

Learner Role

Students in a CLT class are encouraged to see that they are, "above all, communicators" (Larsen-Freeman 131), and that communication is a shared process; the success or failure of the communication is a shared responsibility (Richards and Rodgers 77). The students, then, are active participants in the process of acquiring the target language and must assume responsibility for the degree to which they are successful in attaining their goal of communicative competence.

Teacher Role

Teachers are primarily facilitators of their students' learning, according to Larsen-Freeman; as such they must manage classroom activities, "establish situations likely to promote communication," act as advisor, monitor students' performance, and involve themselves in the communicative activities going on in the classroom (131). Richards and Rodgers say that the teacher also assumes the role of "needs analyst, counselor, and group process manager" (77). Using CLT may require that teachers adopt less teacher-centered

classroom procedures than what they have been accustomed to, and may also "cause anxiety among teachers accustomed to seeing error suppression and correction as the major instructional responsibility, and who see their primary function as preparing learners to take standardized or other kinds of tests" (Richards and Rodgers 79). The role of the teacher is much "less dominant" than in a teacher-centered method; instead of shouldering the primary responsibility for the students' success or failure in mastering the target language, the responsibility falls to the students, who "are seen as more responsible managers of their own learning" (Larsen-Freeman 131).

Analysis and Examination of a CLT Textbook

A textbook that adheres to CLT does more than build a few functions and notions into a basically structural textbook. One such genuinely Communicative text is In Touch: A Beginning American English Series, written by Oscar Castro, Victoria Kimbrough, Francisco Lozano, and Jane Sturtevant and published in 1980 by Longman, Inc. and the Instituto Mexicano Norteamericano de Relaciones Culturales (IMNRC). Besides the Teacher's Manual (TM), there are two student books, one called Student's Book and the other called Workbook. The set being examined here is a beginning level or level one of a three level series for "young adults who are studying English in beginning to pre-intermediate classes," (TM v). The text gives students, they claim, "the

language and skills they need to ... communicate in a variety of social situations; understand spoken, natural discourse; develop strategies for understanding authentic reading material; [and] express themselves clearly in writing" (TM v). Such a statement identifies the apparent purpose of the book in terms that are compatible with the goals and objectives of CLT.

To dispel any doubt that the CLT approach will be taken, the authors identify the Functional Approach as they understand it:

> ... it means that what students want to do with the new language is of critical importance. Therefore, the aim of the series is to make English work for them: how to communicate their needs, desires, questions, opinions,and feelings. These comunicative needs can be expressed as functions such as asking for and giving information, apologizing, making suggestions, agreeing and disagreeing, expressing likes and dislikes, and so on. (TM v)

The authors go on to explain that they have chosen the functions which they believe, on the basis of classroom experience, to be the most immediately applicable (TM v).

"Understanding that functions are expressed by grammatical forms ... that communication requires competence in the grammar of the language," each unit contains "prac-

tice of grammatical structures as a regular feature" (TM v). The grammatical structures presented in each chapter, Castro et al. explain, are determined by the functions in the unit; since there are often several ways to express one function, the authors have again determined the structures which they deem to be most useful in terms of the level of the student and the frequency with which the structure is used (TM v).

Other points which the authors make in the Introduction have to do with the use of natural, genuine spoken or written forms of English used by native speakers; the recognition that units will include both active and passive language, the latter referring to language which is beyond the productive ability of the students at this level but language which, nevertheless, they need to recognize; and that grammatical structures, functions, and vocabulary are all recycled for practice. The recycling, they maintain, "gives students repeated opportunities to learn each function, grammar point, and vocabulary item" (TM vi).

All of the functions, structures, and vocabulary are presented within the context of a story line which "places interesting characters in believable situations ... [which] relate to [the students'] own interests and experience" (TM vi). The first lesson, entitled Nice to Meet You, obviously deals with greetings and by means of a series of "comic strip" drawings introduces the setting for the story--the American Language Institute of New York University near

Washington Square in New York City; the characters--Tony, from Brazil; Maria, from Mexico; Ali, who we learn later is from Egypt, and Tomiko, who we learn later is from Japan; and the situation: registration for an English class which is about to begin at the American Language Institute.

In addition to the strip pictures are maps, a sample identification card to be filled out, and a crossword puzzle, all of which provide opportunities for the students to practice what they have learned. These activities may be done individually, in pairs, or in groups. The written conversation exercises include highly structured cloze exercises, open-ended completion exercises, and matching exercises under Find the Conversation. There is also a multiple choice exercise in which the students must choose the correct response to a statement such as "Nice to meet you" or "Where are you from?" Each unit includes an Expansion section, which is "thematically linked to the Conversation" and may contain "reading, writing, listening and sometimes oral practice that reinforces and expands the functions, grammar and vocabulary presented" (TM vii). In Unit 1 Expansion involves having the students read identification numbers from sample cards to a partner who will then give the name of the person identified by the number, inicating by so doing that he has understood his partner's rendering of the number.

The Language Summary which ends this and every unit except for the Review Units divides what the students have learned in the unit into three main categories: Now You Can Do This, Grammar, and Useful Words and Expressions. At the conclusion of the first unit the students are told that they are now able to greet people, introduce themselves and other people, apologize, accept an apology, ask for information, and give information about themselves (6). Under grammar, they have learned to use full and contractive forms of the verb to be: am ('m), is ('s), are ('re); and to ask and answer information questions such as "Where are you from?" and "What course are you in?" The Useful Words and Expressions they have learned include pronouns (you, I, this, my, and your); the verbs meet and to be; numerals from zero to ten; greetings such as Hello and Hi; and expressions such as "Nice to meet you," That's right," and "That's wrong."

Within each unit of the Student's Book are "oral practice exercises designed to involve two students or small groups of students in activities which approximate real conversations [and] provide students with more opportunities to participate in class..." (TM vi). In Unit 1 there are several; they include introductions, asking for and giving information, and the Expansion exercise.

The Workbook for Unit 1 uses the same grammatical structures, vocabulary, and functions, but adds more charac-

ters via the strip pictures and includes a partially completed crossword puzzle, a cloze exercise, and an open-ended completion exercise.

Unit 10 of twelve units in the Student's Book is entitled What Would You Like? The setting is a restaurant; the characters are Tony, Tomiko, Franco (a character introduced in Unit 7), and a waitress; the situation involves ordering food and asking for a check. The exercises are the same kinds that are found in Unit 1 except that alternative responses --negative as well as positive-- are encouraged in this unit; there is more of a genuine information gap which the students are asked to fill. The Expansion section involves recognizing and deleting the sentence that does not belong within a paragraph; the paragraph, in keeping with the emphasis on context, concerns restaurants and coffee shops in Greenwich Village, near the American Language Institute.

The Language Summary indicates that students, as a result of having studied this lesson, will be able to take an order in a restaurant, order something to eat, and ask for prices. The Grammar section focuses on the use of would in taking an order or in ordering something, and on the distinction between mass nouns such as salt, sugar, coffee, water, and milk and count nouns such as a sandwich, a piece of cake, a cup of coffee, a glass of water, and a glass of milk. The Useful Words and Expressions include many items

of food; the modals could and would, the verbs like and order; terms of address such as Ma'am, Miss, and Sir; and expressions such as "What kind of...," "How about...," "How much...," "Not yet," "Sure," "Is that all?" and "I think so,"

Unit 10 in the Workbook adds more vocabulary items, offers more practice with mass and count nouns, gives the students the opportunity to describe items of food which are pictured, and provides additional opportunity for oral and written conversation practice. There is also a word puzzle which provides the answers to questions related to food, to shopping, and to pronouns.

Other units in the book deal with occupations, apologies, family relationships, locations, and leisure activities. All of the units focus on functions and notions which are necessary for the students to master in order to survive in an English-speaking community, in this case at the American Language Institute in New York. All of the vocabulary items and grammatical structures are context related, and adequate written and oral practice is provided through the Student's Book and the Workbook. Real communication is emphasized; the students are given many opportunities to respond honestly, and in so doing, filling genuiune information gaps.

The ESL series In Touch appears to meet the criteria for a textbook which genuinely focuses on the Communicative

Language Teaching approach. It does so by focusing on functions and notions which enable beginning students of English as a Second Language to understand and produce language they need in dealing with the demands of everyday life in a given context. In addition, the story line generates interest; the students would soon find themselves caught up in the lives of the various characters within the story, characters whose lives bear some resemblance to theirs as students of English as a Second Language. Because the setting is in an English speaking country, it is probable that In Touch would be more appropriately and effectively used as an ESL rather than as an EFL textbook. In Touch would meet the needs of students whose goals for the target language are pragmatic and immediate, as they would be for non-native English speakers who are living within an English-speaking community and whose daily activities require a command of spoken and written English.

Language Teaching/Learning for Communication

The reasons for which people study foreign or second languages vary greatly, but for those whose objective is to attain communicative competence in the language at any level, the various communicative approaches to second language acquisition provide the most efficient and effective approach in acquiring the language. For people whose interest is in only reading the second language, these communicative approaches would involve a great deal of

material that might well be irrelevant or immaterial to their goals. Should a person be particularly interested in the study of the structure of the language, the communicative approach would be too indirect a method by which to focus specifically on language structure. In the world of 1987, however, a world in which awareness of other language groups and cultures is difficult if not impossible to avoid, many people who study a second language do so in order to be able to communicate with speakers of the target language, as tourists, business people, scholars, teachers, or students. For those people the best way to learn the target language, short of prolonged immersion in the target-language-speaking culture, is found in the communicative approaches, approaches which recognize that actual communication is the primary reason for the existence of language.

Notes

1. Stephen Krashen, an applied linguist at USC, posits a distinction between learning-- a conscious process based on the formal and explicit rules and structures-- and acquisition-- a subconscious process by which an individual internalizes the implicit and unanalyzed rules and structures of a language in order to be able to use the language for the purpose of conveying a message (77).

2. For a fuller discussion and evaluation of the Audio-Lingual method, see Wilga Rivers' 1964 The Psychologist and the Foreign-Language Teacher.

3. Tracy Terrell claims that there are actually several approaches that fall under the general heading of "cognitive code approach" ("Update, 269), but in this paper discussion of the cognitive code approaches will use the singular term.

4. See Noam Chomsky's thorough review of B.F. Skinner's Verbal Behavior in Language 35: 1 (1959): 26-58. Chomsky discusses Skinner's thesis in Verbal Behavior and then, asserting that Skinner's "claims are far from justified," discusses the magnitude of the failure of this attempt to account for verbal behavior" (28). Chomsky claims that serious observation of language learning indicates that "there must be fundamental processes at work quite independently of 'feedback' from the environment" (42).

5. Chomsky distinguishes between **competence**: an individual's internalized knowledge of his grammar, the "system of syntactic and phonological rules of the language"; and **performance**: the individual's actual use of his language, a use which includes "hesitations, false starts, and convoluted syntax" and which does not accurately reflect the individual's competence (Rivers: Communicating 14).

6. Hymes introduced the term communicative competence, a term now widely used by applied linguists and language methodologists, in his article "On Communicative Competence," in Sociolinguistics, eds. J.B. Pride and J. Holmes (Hammondsworth, England, Penguin Books, 1972), pp. 269-293. He based his term on Noam Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance; see note 5.

7. For discussion of the importance of Krashen's hypothesis, see Rivers: Speaking, 12-13; Yalden 9, 13; Terrell 267; Omaggio 29; Burt and Dulay 39; Gary 190; Stevick 14, 257.

8. A lengthy discussion of these processors can be found in the Dulay et al. book, Language Two, chapter 3, as well as throughout the Krashen (1981) book.

9. Dell Hymes and Sandra Savignon discuss at length the distinction between "rules of communication" and "rules of grammar."

10. For a detailed treatment of the functions of language as well as of the categories of notions and the notions themselves, see Wilkins, Notional Syllabuses, especially chapter two, "Categories for a Notional Syllabus." Van Ek also deals with general and specific notions in The Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools, especially in chapters two and three, "The Description of the Objective" and "Content-specification with Exponents for English."

11. van Ek clarifies what he means by behavioral objectives: "In accordance with the nature of verbal communication as a form of behaviour the objectives defined by means of this model are therefore basically behavioural objectives. To preclude misunderstanding it should perhaps be pointed out right at the beginning of our presentation that a behavioural specification of an objective by no means implies the need for a behaviouristic teaching-method" (5).

12. More recently Sandra Savignon and Stephen Krashen have identified theories of learning which they find to be compatible with communicative language learning (Richards and Rodgers 72). See also Savignon's Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice and Krashen's Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning.

13. See Sandra Savignon for a critical response to this definition, especially in terms of the varieties of a language as it is spoken in different communities, pp. 24-26.

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