Carola Surkamp / Britta Viebrock (eds.)

Teaching English as a Foreign Language

An Introduction

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Die Herausgeberinnen
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Foreword

The prime challenge of educating future teachers of English as a Foreign Language is to equip them with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to teach to the best of their abilities and become professional practitioners with a great amount of competence, self-confidence and flexibility. At university, we strive to train experts not only with regard to the content matters of their subject, but especially with regard to pedagogical approaches and methodological principles. We try to provide profound theoretical knowledge and at the same time link this knowledge to practical issues of classroom teaching. Not only do we wish to prepare teachers for their daily practice, but also for the diverse future challenges of a vital profession. English language teachers need to become *agents of change* who actively respond to the demands posed by globalisation, multilingualism or digitalisation and use these developments for innovative teaching approaches.

The fourteen chapters of this book touch on the fundamental issues and principles of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in both a theoretical and a practical way. You will be able to gather insights into all competence areas important for modern foreign language teaching, its history, its framing by education policy, and most importantly, learn about the very focus point of each lesson, the students. At the same time, you will be able to reflect upon your professional development as a future teacher of English. To facilitate the acquisition of discipline-specific knowledge and professional development, each chapter contains definitions and illustrations for easy orientation, examples for practical applications and classroom use as well as occasions for the reflection of individual experiences.

In order to provide a profound knowledge base for topical discussions in introductory courses to TEFL, this book compiles a selection of up-to-date critical literature written by a young team of experts in the fields of language, literature and cultural teaching from universities and colleges all across Germany (and Austria). Upon finishing this project, we would like to thank all of the authors of this edition for their expertise and dedication. We would also like to express our gratitude to several colleagues both in Göttingen and Frankfurt without whom this project would not have been possible: Katharina Delius and Kira Sara as well as Viviane Lohe and Jan-Erik Leonhardt for critically commenting on content matters; Ina Gnauck and Jule Inken Müller for their editorial work (especially concerning the bibliographic references); and Mariella Veneziano-Osterrath for her meticulous proofreading—thank you! Ute Hechtfischer and her colleagues at Metzler Publishing House have been very enthusiastic about our project from the very beginning and maintained to show a strong sense of commitment. They have also been very helpful in providing advice on the formalities of the manuscript and supervising the production process. Finally, we would also like to thank the many students of our past introductory courses who, with their intelligent questions,

ideas, and constructive feedback, have indirectly shaped the nature of this publication.

We hope that this introduction will inspire the future generations of students we had in mind when writing the chapters, but also teacher trainees, in-service teachers, and lecturers alike with new insights into Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

Carola Surkamp and Britta Viebrock

1 English Language Teaching and English Language Education—History and Methods

This chapter deals with the history of English language learning and teaching (ELT) and English language education (ELE) as an academic discipline. In the first part of this chapter, some background information will be provided with regard to the patterns that have been discovered when looking at the past centuries of language learning and teaching in Europe (and beyond). These patterns can help us to understand where we as teachers, learners and researchers of language learning and teaching come from and thus can also offer some orientation as to where we might or might not want to go with our teaching. This first part also provides some basic facts on the history of ELT in Germany since ca. 1800. The second section of this chapter zooms into the link between learning and teaching: a comprehensive discussion of ›method‹ as a flexible, multi-layered concept will be followed by an analysis of the history of selected examples of modern language teaching methods from this conceptual perspective. The third section contains an overview of how foreign language education (FLE), with a focus on ELE, evolved in Western Germany as a fairly young academic discipline with a focus on the second half of the 20th century. The chapter concludes with an outlook on the relevance for (future) language teachers to deal with the history of their profession and their discipline.

> **English Language Education (ELE)** is the academic discipline concerned with the investigation of the *what, how, why/what for* and *who* of teaching and learning English as a second/foreign language (L2). The academic discipline which looks at these phenomena from a cross-language perspective is called **Foreign Language Education (FLE).**

Definition

1.1 | Background: milestones of ELT history in Germany and Europe since ca. 1800

Monastery tradition versus marketplace tradition: In this section, an overview of the central stages of English learning and teaching will be given, which facilitates the description and recognition of recurring patterns that have emerged in the long history of language learning and teaching. One of these patterns is the need to communicate in everyday and professional life, for example, with merchants, traders and travellers. This type of motivation and the matching ways of language learning and teaching have often been called the »marketplace tradition«. McArthur (1998, 83) sees it as complementary to the so-called »monastery tradition« in which the primary motivation for language learning is anchored in the academic field. In the latter tradition, languages are primarily seen as gatekeepers providing access to knowledge and educational institutions.

A look back over time shows that language teaching and learning have often moved between these two orientations and that in many cases teachers and learners alike have tried to strike a balance between the two poles. This conflict of interests was evident in the past centuries of the European history of language learning, teaching and (university) education and also applies to the 200-year-history of teaching/learning English in Germany since 1800. This is how long it took, in fact, until English was established as the main foreign language in society and education in Germany (cf. Doff/Klippel 2007, 17 ff.).

Self-regulated English language learning in the 18th century: The 18th century marked the beginning of a meteoric rise of the popularity of the English language. In the first two thirds of the 18th century, English was only sporadically present in schools and universities across the German countries. However, an interest in the language was continuously fed at this stage by the growing desire to read: formative works on politics, science, philosophy, theology, art and English literature attracted a large number of **educated adult readers**. In many cases, these works had to be read in the original due to a lack of translation. Therefore, reading in English was a central skill that had to be acquired individually, through home or school study. This is reflected in a number of textbooks from this period, which typically included a grammar part and additional discussions/dialogues, a dictionary, lists of key words or short reading texts. The set-up of the grammar parts of most textbooks for English was **based on Latin grammar books**. The rules and illustrations with example sentences, which often came from well-known literary works, were presented in German.

English as a school subject in the 19th century: The number of self-taught adult learners of English continued to rise in the 19th century. One of the most important new phenomena was that in this century English teaching was established **in boys' (and later on in girls') state secondary schools as a school subject** (cf. Klippel 1994; Doff 2002). This change demanded a differentiation and adaptation of content, material and methods to address the young target group adequately. Although the overall

goal of teaching English was language proficiency, slightly different objectives were pursued in the different types of schools for boys and girls. There also was a growing competition between the emerging ›real‹ institutions (*Realanstalten*) in the 19th century and the traditional grammar schools (*Gymnasien*). The former put a focus on natural sciences and the practice of modern foreign languages (i. e. as part of a marketplace tradition). The latter focused on classical languages associated with a humanistic and formal education concept (rather in line with a monastery tradition).

The most ›modern‹ foreign language teaching at this stage probably took place at secondary schools for girls, where principles that are known today as ›communicative foreign language teaching‹ and ›English as a working language‹, i. e. the use of English for communicative purposes in subjects other than languages were realised (cf. Doff 2002). The different approaches led to controversial discussions about goals and methods of English language teaching as illustrated in the following quotation:

Discussions and controversies about goals and methods of English language teaching

I do not greatly value hearing a man speak perfect English, any skilled waiter can do that, babbling in institutional French is not worth much because they do not actually know why after this or that conjunction a subjunctive comes if they know the existing rule. [...] Let girls chat about the weather and walks, the educated have something else to do. [...] [H]e should penetrate the genius of languages, he should study the idea of nations, the ideas of foreigners, not master their words, he should have to study the historical background of languages and the type of languages, this method should and must come from the grammar school. The educated person from the grammar school, the only and real nursery of the educated, must be opposed to this crude language study [...]. (von Reinhardstöttner 1868, 13 f., translation SD)

Modern language reform movement: Towards the end of the 19th century, a group of modern language teachers turned against this position, a movement that spread across Europe and is now referred to as the ›(modern language) reform movement‹ (cf. Howatt/Smith 2002). The initial impetus for this movement stems from Wilhelm Viëtor's (1882) work *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren!* (›Language teaching must reverse!‹), originally published under the pseudonym Quousque Tandem. To put it briefly, he (and other reformers) demanded that modern languages should be taught as living languages, i. e. unlike the classical languages. For example, priority was to be given to the spoken language whereas explicit grammar knowledge should take a subservient role. Furthermore, the reformers demanded, teaching should be done in the foreign language and translation into and from the mother tongue of the learners should be reduced.

Expansion of teaching English in the 20th century: Even if the demands of the reformers did not completely dominate in the 20th century, this movement greatly influenced the academic debate in foreign language learning and teaching across Europe in the decades and century to follow. The first third of the 20th century was dominated by the question of which role the knowledge and understanding of cultural aspects should play in the teaching of foreign languages (cf. chapter 9 in this volume).

This issue formed the heart of what became known as the ***Kulturkunde-bewegung***, which gained momentum at the beginning of the 20th century. Foundations of this movement were laid in a specific memorandum, the so-called *Richert'schen Richtlinien* of 1924, where the teaching of German language, literature and culture was given a clear priority over the teaching and learning of foreign languages. This served to show the alleged ›superiority‹ of the German nation state (represented, for example, by German culture and the German language) (cf. Hüllen 2000).

This fitted in with Nazi ideology, whereby the main goal of foreign language teaching was to show the learners that their own culture should be regarded as superior to others. The Nazis extended the **dominant structural role of English as a foreign language in schools** mainly for political reasons (learning the language of the enemy). In 1937–38, the sequence of foreign languages to be taught at grammar schools was standardised to English before French. However, despite the numerous political efforts and a broad affirmative public discussion among Nazi school experts, the influence of how and what was taught in language classrooms during the time of the regime seems to have remained limited (cf. Lehberger 1986).

After 1945, there was a reverse back to the situation before 1933 in many aspects—at least initially. Pre-war methods and materials were used, partly due to the fact that there was not enough paper to print textbooks and other materials which matched the up to date requirements of school and society. One of these requirements was that foreign languages, English in particular, should be taught to all pupils, not just to grammar school students. Accordingly, in the Federal Republic of Germany the so-called *Hamburger Abkommen* (›Hamburg convention‹) in 1964 marked a milestone in the teaching of English. With this convention, English became the mandatory first foreign language at all secondary school types (including lower secondary school).

After this brief look at some key facts in the history of ELT up to the mid 1960s, the following section will offer a journey through time with a conceptual focus on ›method‹.

1.2 | Methods as an anchor of language teaching across the centuries

1.2.1 | ›Method‹ as a multidimensional concept

> **Methods** (from the Latin-Greek *methodus*/*méthodos*: ›the path towards a goal‹) are the ways a teacher proceeds to handle content in foreign language teaching and thus to achieve certain goals. To summarise, a method answers the question of how teaching and learning are organised.

In FLE, the term ›method‹ is used in different ways that are either more theory-oriented or more practice-oriented. Richards/Rodgers (2014) have structured the concept of method along a continuum of three overlapping clusters. According to them, the term method may describe

- **theoretical foundations:** i. e. scientific reasonable assumptions about the nature of language and successful language learning (APPROACH);
- **design principles:** such as objectives, syllabus, task types, role of the teacher and the learner, materials (DESIGN); or
- **practical implementations:** observable techniques, practices and behaviours when a specific approach is used (PROCEDURE).

While the concept of method covers the entire spectrum, not all aspects may be (completely) visible at any point of time. The question of ›best method‹ in terms of the most effective cost-benefit ratio for teachers and learners has been an everlasting question in foreign language education over the course of time. It has been answered differently depending on the era and cultural context.

Whether the application of specific methods by teachers actually leads to successful learning has been a controversial issue in more recent academic discourse, too. It is emphasised that teaching methods (or components thereof), which are often perceived as incompatible, are not usually represented as closed, logical sequences of concepts, but are in fact used parallel to one another. For instance, manifestations of the grammar-translation method often assigned to the 19th century (see below) are used in certain parts of the world to date and have remained very popular. Another example is the direct method usually anchored in the late 19th/ early 20th century (see below), which continues to play quite an important role as the dominant method in the context of the Berlitz Language Institute (cf. Larsen-Freeman 2000, 177). From the 1980s, the so-called **postmethod period** has been identified, which follows this line of thought and questions the concept of method altogether (cf. Kumaravadivelu 2006a and chapter 3 in this volume).

Continuum of coexisting methodological dimensions: In addition to these considerations, methods in language teaching and learning are characterised by a coexistence of different methodological dimensions (›basic options‹ according to Pennycook 1989; cf. also Thornbury 2011, 192 f.), which have developed over time. The four general educational dimensions ›achievement‹, ›encounter‹, ›learning tool‹ and ›framing‹ (cf. illustration 1.1) can be adopted for any school subject (cf. Terhart 2005, 23 ff.). The sub-dimensions (a.1, a.2 …) are those subject-specific concepts that need to be considered in English language teaching in particular:

Achievement accentuates method as a way to accomplish learning objectives. In the language classroom, this can mean objectives geared towards accuracy (i. e. correct use of language) or/and towards fluency, i. e. »features which give speech the qualities of being natural and normal, including native-like use of pausing, rhythm, intonation, stress, rate of speaking, and use of interjections and interruptions« (Richards et al. 1985, 108). As the name implies, process orientation focuses more explic-

Methodological dimensions

a **dimension ›achievement‹**

1 product orientation – – – – – – – – – – – – – – – – – – process orientation

2 accuracy – fluency

b **dimension ›encounter‹**

1 language as a form – – – – – – – – – – – – – – – – language as a function

2 syllabus is based ... on linguistic systems – – – – – – – – – ... on language skills

3 cross-language method – – – – – – – – – – – – language immanent process

c **dimension ›learning tool‹**

1 analytical language learning – – – – – – – – – experiential language learning

2 cognition – emotion

3 instruction – collaboration

4 deduction – induction

d **dimension ›framing‹**

language taught as a separate subject – – – – – – – – – content and language
integrated learning (CLIL)

Illustration 1.1:
Dimensions of
language teaching
methods (see
examples below)

itly on the learning process and less on the outcome. Conversely, product orientation focuses on a tangible final product. As in many of the sub-dimensions listed under (a)–(d), the two ends of the continuum can best be understood as complements rather than contrasts.

Encounter includes sub-dimensions which grasp ›method‹ as a combination of subject and learners, for example, a teacher's answer to the question if other languages than the language taught should be actively or passively included (b.3: cross-language) or more or less deliberately left out, i. e. language learning should be conceptualised as a language-immanent process. Likewise, an understanding of language as a formal system, which would highlight structural aspects and demand a syllabus based on the logic of linguistic systems, has different implications for teaching and learning than a functional view of language, which would highlight communicative aspects and demands a syllabus based on practicing the different language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing and mediation; cf. chapters 6 and 7 in this volume).

Method can primarily be seen as a learning tool, i. e. as a way of producing optimum teaching and learning conditions. More often than not this optimum is seen as a balance between different ways of teaching that offer the addressees a wide choice of learning approaches, which could be more analytical, predominantly demanding mental exercise, or more experiential, predominantly demanding situations in which to experience

language use (cf. Thaler 2010a). While the former most likely takes place within an instructive setting and is connected to a deductive approach, where the teacher explains the rules and the learners apply them in fairly structured exercises, the latter most likely takes place within a collaborative setting and is connected to an inductive approach, where the learners discover the rules based on their experiences. Similarly, methods can be more explicitly based on cognition, i. e. thinking and analysing, or emotion, i. e. feeling and experiencing.

Framing describes ways of institutionalising lessons in which language can be taught as a separate subject or integrated with a content-based subject, for example geography taught in English. The latter option is also referred to as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), a model that has been very successful in ELT as well as in ELE/FLE in the past decades (cf. Doff 2010; Hallet/Königs 2013; and chapter 11 in this volume).

As these explanations demonstrate, the individual sub-dimensions are not always clear-cut and often overlap. However, methods can historically be identified on account of their specific configuration of sub-dimensions. For example, within the grammar-translation method, language as form is emphasised (sub-dimension b.1), the syllabus is based on linguistic systems (b.2) and analytical language learning is usually given priority (c.1). More illustrations of the sub-dimensions and various combinations in which they have existed in the history of language teaching are provided in the next section.

1.2.2 | History and present day methods in foreign language teaching

Prototypical methods and their practical implementation: Historically, the emergence and recession of several prototypical teaching methods can be identified, which became particularly relevant in specific contexts and at specific stages in the 200-year history of teaching English as a foreign language in German classrooms. However, these highly influential methods in the history of institutionalised modern language teaching have to be understood as ideal types that were never practically implemented (›**methodology**‹) in their pure form. They were identifiable on account of typical clusters of subject-specific concepts as explained in the previous section.

Grammar-translation method: In the 19th century with the introduction of modern foreign languages in the state school system, the so-called grammar-translation method was widespread. Language was formally taught according to the teaching of classical languages; the aim was accuracy (i. e. formal correctness) in understanding and the focus was on the construction of sentences and texts. In this context, the curriculum was organised according to linguistic sub-systems—profound knowledge of words and grammar. Within the grammar-translation method great importance was placed on the written word and analytical language learning expressed in the most precise translation into or from the foreign

language. The grammar-translation method was the leading method in textbooks for both French (cf. Meidinger 1811) and English (cf. Fick 1800), the two most widely learned foreign languages in the first half of the 19th century.

Direct method: With the establishment of modern languages in state schools, it became apparent in the last third of the 19th century that methods appropriate for teaching classical languages did not necessarily meet the requirements of modern language teaching. More often than not the latter focused on usability, practicality and functionality. The focus thus shifted away from the grammar-translation method towards the direct method which accentuated the characteristics of »modern« foreign language teaching, such as a focus on fluent spoken language (cf. illustration 1.1, sub-dimension a.2), as well as on language as function rather than form (b.1) and the orientation of the syllabus on language skills (b.2). This shift was supported by advocates of the modern language reform movement explained above, who also fostered inductive learning (c.4) and language-immanent learning processes (connecting to the first language of the learners, see b.3).

Audiolingual and audiovisual methods: The 1950s and 1960s brought new approaches in linguistics and educational psychology, in particular from the United States (including Lado 1967), which subsequently became very influential in Western Germany. These approaches and their impact on language teaching methods were critically discussed in academic discourse, which was characterised by a research-based reflection on language as well as processes and outcomes of language teaching and learning at the time (cf. Hüllen 2005, 142). Audiolingual and audiovisual methods, which became popular from the 1960s onwards, form the direct link between this academic discourse and the language classrooms in Western Germany.

Based on the linguistic theory of **structuralism**, these methods focused on the formal explanation of language through specific language patterns (for example in the areas of vocabulary or phonetics, which is concerned with the sound of human speech, or syntax, which is concerned with the rules for the formation of sentences). For that reason, the syllabus was organised according to linguistic systems (grammar progression; cf. illustration 1.1, sub-dimension b.2). The **audiolingual method** put the spoken (everyday) language into the foreground (a.2). Everyday language was presented in dialogues, which had to be habitually practised by way of pattern drills, i.e. a context-embedded substitution of sentence parts based on imitation and repetition. Language learning was understood as an example of experience-based behavioural change. Listening and speaking had priority over reading and writing, teaching should be carried out mainly in the foreign language (b.3), embedded in everyday situations.

The audiolingual method was further developed as the **audiovisual method** in France and in the USA. The advancement in language teaching technology, especially visuals (slides, films, transparencies) and auditory media (tapes, cassettes, language labs) supported this development. Important elements of the audiovisual method were the use of visual media

as well as a situational and context-embedded language use, which included the repression of analytical and cognitive elements (c.1, c.2). Audiolingual and audiovisual teaching methods were often criticised for their neglect of conscious mental activities (cognition) and creativity.

Communicative foreign language teaching: At the beginning of the 1970s, demands for teaching methods with a different focus increased. Taking into account other influential developments such as the political theory of the Frankfurt School with Habermas' principle of communicative rationality as a key element (cf. Habermas 1981), teaching methods now should allow learners to be active and emancipated in the (foreign) language classroom and beyond, i. e. as citizens who could make their voices heard. Consequently, a key role was awarded to the process of communication in the language classroom (cf. illustration 1.1, subdimension a.1). Since this ›**communicative turn**‹ a pluralism of methodological characteristics can be identified under the umbrella of the so-called ›**communicative approach**‹. These characteristics all aim at the key objective of **communicative competence** (cf. Piepho 1974).

> According to Canale and Swain (1980), **communicative competence** can be defined in terms of the following four components:
> - grammatical competence (the ability to use correct language);
> - sociolinguistic competence (the ability to produce appropriate language);
> - discourse competence (the ability to produce cohesive and coherent language) and
> - strategic competence (the ability to use language effectively).

Definition

Initially, communicative competence meant a focus on communication (in the sense of **fluency**) while simultaneously dispensing with formal correctness (in the sense of **accuracy**). Associated with this new focus, was a move away from teaching and subject matter towards the learner. To this day, the communicative approach dominates foreign language teaching, as can be seen in task-based teaching of foreign languages (cf. chapter 11 in this volume) and intercultural pedagogy (cf. chapter 9 in this volume). Among the key features of this approach are an understanding of language as a function rather than a form (cf. b.1) and an according organisation of the syllabus (i. e. based on language skills rather than on grammatical systems, b.2).

These and related issues of (English) language learning and teaching are researched in a fairly young academic discipline, English Language Education (ELE). The next subsection deals with the emergence and subsequent development of this discipline in Germany.

1.3 | Foreign language education (FLE) and English language education (ELE) as academic disciplines in Germany

1.3.1 | Main concepts

As defined above, **Foreign Language Education (FLE)** is the academic discipline which deals with the teaching and learning of foreign/second language(s) (L2) in institutional, primarily school-based contexts. It can be seen as a connector between the specialist sub-disciplines of the individual foreign languages (for example, **English Language Education (ELE)**, Spanish language education etc.), based on their common objectives, content and methods. The genesis of these sub-disciplines (for example, English, French, Spanish, Russian or German as a Second or Foreign Language) has taken place in different ways and at different speeds.

FLE as an applied science: A key feature of FLE is that it is an applied science (comparable to, for example, medicine or engineering), »a theory of foreign language teaching reflecting the practice which is based on scientific theory, from which justified proposals and recommendations for the design [of teaching foreign languages] are derived« (Timm 1998, 3). In society, FLE, in addition to teacher education, assumes primarily the function of »representing the interests of the controlled teaching and learning of foreign languages« (Zydatiß 1988, 109) in the interplay between the real world, institutions and referential disciplines.

Core tasks of FLE include:

- the clarification of the **value** of foreign language teaching/learning in society;
- the re-enforcement of the **existence** of these subjects against other social forces;
- the participation in decision-making about the objectives and content of foreign language **curricula**, the development of target group specific methods and
- the realisation of **research** projects, which can be of empirical, hermeneutic and/or ideologically critical nature (cf. Timm 1998, 3).

According to Christ/Hüllen (1995) five main topical areas constitute the **research fields of FLE**. The first is concerned with processes of language teaching and teacher education (e. g. aspects of teacher professionalism as discussed in chapter 3 in this volume). The second deals with learners and language learning processes (e. g. stages of language acquisition as discussed in chapter 5 in this volume or individual learner characteristics as discussed in

Illustration 1.2: Main research areas in Foreign Language Education (adapted from Christ/Hüllen 1995)

language teaching processes & teacher education

L2 as medium, content and aim of L2 teaching/learning

learners & learning processes

research fields in FLE

characteristics & impact of institutional contexts

languages & cultures

chapter 4). The third area focuses on the interfaces of language and culture including comparisons of the foreign language with the learners' first languages (L1) as well as cultural dimensions of second or foreign language (L2) teaching and learning (cf. chapter 9 in this volume). Area 4 concentrates on the characteristics and impact of institutional contexts on L2 teaching and learning (e. g. aspects of education policy as discussed in chapter 2 or the classroom setting as discussed in chapter 13 in this volume). The last area is concerned with the foreign language as a medium of instruction as well as the overall content and objective of L2 teaching and learning.

1.3.2 | Genesis as an academic discipline

Early academic roots: In the context of learning and teaching foreign languages, the term ›didactics‹ occurred early on. **Comenius**, whose *Didactica Magna* (1657) is still the basis of some of the first known books on learning of foreign languages (so-called ›methodologies‹), demanded that the mother tongue and the other modern neighbour languages be adequately taken into account in language teaching (›lessons for all‹). In the **18th century**, this demand was only slowly realised and the classical languages were still focused on in language education. Gradually, however, modern national languages gained in significance both in literary production and in school practice. In Germany, enthusiasm for French rose during the course of the 18th century. Its distribution increased accordingly, in schools and in other educational contexts. This development also applied to English over time. In theoretical studies as well as in school education, living languages were considered alongside classical foreign languages. This meant that foreign language skills were also taught to deal with real-life issues. The notion of usefulness (as opposed to merely mental discipline) gained great importance.

In his essay on philology (1840), **Carl Mager** developed so-called school ›sciences‹, the outlines of which corresponded to today's ideas of specialist pedagogy and methodology. He even referred to the term ›didactics‹ (in the German language). Another early use of the term in the context of teaching modern foreign languages, i. e. English and French, can be found in a book title from 1895 (cf. Münch/Glauning 1895).

Constitution as an academic discipline: The beginnings of FLE as an institutionalised academic discipline lie in the second half of the **19th century** with the establishment of the first professorships for new philologies at universities as well as the founding of the first specialized academic journals and associations. The reintroduction of FLE took place **after the Second World War** (cf. Hüllen 2004) with the help of authors such as G. Hausmann, W. Klafki and P. Heimann, who often based their ideas on Comenius' *Didactica Magna*. The terms *Fachdidaktik* (subject teaching education) and *Fremdsprachendidaktik* (FLE) were implemented successively in post-WWII Western Germany but not Eastern Germany. During the 1960s, universities of education were set up as theory- and research-based educational colleges for teacher training (*Pädagogische*

Hochschulen). In this phase, which marks a fundamental reform of teacher education in Western Germany, subject-specific teaching and learning (*Fachdidaktik*) was established as an academic discipline in different domains (in addition to foreign languages there were also, for example, mathematics, geography and biology). Between the end of the 1950s and the end of the 1960s, specific subject teaching and learning education developed further based on the insight that content, goals and methods must be reflected with a distinct reference to a particular subject.

Definition

> **Fremdsprachendidaktik** is a term commonly used in the German language to describe the academic discipline that deals with teaching and learning foreign languages, mainly in institutional settings. In English, the term ›didactics‹ (pl.) denotes the art or science of teaching. It is not to be confused with the adjective ›didactic‹, which implies teaching or intending to teach a moral lesson, lecturing others too much or being a preachy and pedantic speaker. Other terms that are used in the English language are TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language) theory and methodology, TEFL pedagogy, or TESOL (teaching English to speakers of other languages).

First steps of institutionalisation: The immediate post-war period was marked by a strong **dogmatism** with regard to language learning processes, thus a defined set of teaching methods was firmly established (see 1.2.2 above, cf. Hüllen 2005, 145 f.). From the mid-1960s onwards, however, a continuing process of empirical substantiation and differentiation of knowledge about foreign language teaching and learning processes began. This tendency gained momentum as a result of the reorientation of the teaching content in the context of the Communicative Turn of the 1970s and its focus on spoken language and everyday communication. The first steps of the institutionalisation of FLE and ELE were influenced by general educational debates and by the important role of school language teaching in post-war Western Germany. Thus, for example, the legitimation and establishment of ELE is closely linked to the introduction of ›**English for All**‹ by the Hamburg Convention of 1964.

English Language Education as a model discipline: Since English was the most widely spread language in the field and the school curriculum, the development of ELE can be regarded as a model for similar disciplines in other languages up to the beginning of the 1980s. Over these decades the establishment of a considerable number of professorships for specialised sub-disciplines of modern language education at educational colleges and universities indicates the institutional anchoring of ELE/FLE in the Federal Republic of Germany. The integration of educational colleges (*Pädagogische Hochschulen*) into the universities (from the 1970s onwards) meant an adaptation of teacher education for grammar and non-grammar school teachers.

The main tasks of FLE, ELE and related disciplines in other modern

(Further) development of a **theory of foreign language teaching/learning** in close cooperation with **practice**.

Filter function within university teacher training courses, i.e. selection of relevant study content from the socalled ›**referential disciplines**‹ (for example, Linguistics, Literary and Cultural Studies, Pedagogy, Psychology) with the objective of strengthening professionalism.

Self-referential reflection on the FLE/ELE subject matter with regard to practical use, i.e. in terms of **social relevance** and common **educational requirements**.
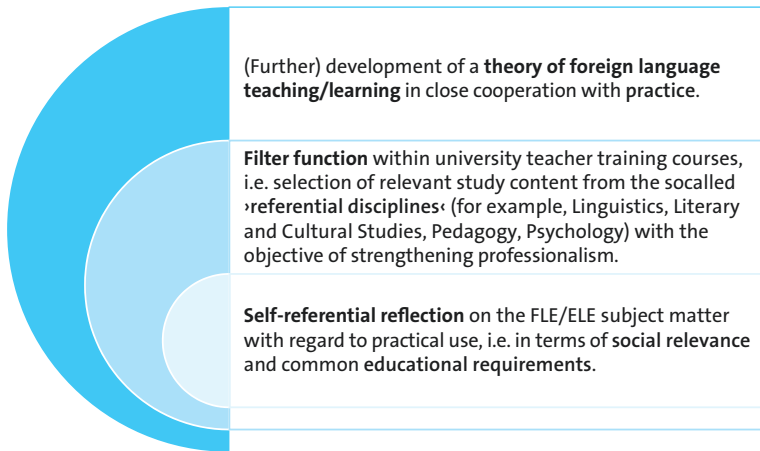
Illustration 1.3:
Main tasks of FLE, ELE and related disciplines

languages were predominantly articulated within the three **target areas** (cf. Doff 2008, 198 ff.), which did not remain undisputed (see illustration 1.3).

At this early stage, the discussion of tasks and responsibilities shaped the understanding of the ELE/FLE sciences as essentially application-oriented disciplines with a **specific theory-practice-reference** (cf. Müller 1979). Also, in the middle of the 1960s the discussion of the relationship of ELE/FLE and different **referential disciplines** began. In addition to Educational Sciences (including, for example General Didactics and Pedagogy), these included especially Linguistics, Cultural and Literary Studies, but also Psychology and—more recently—Neuroscience, Sociology and Philosophy (for a more detailed overview of interdisciplinary relations in the field of language learning and teaching cf. Burwitz-Melzer et al. 2016, chap. B).

Referential disciplines   Example

- **Literary Studies** are concerned with the study of different literary genres and the interaction between author, text and reader. Models and approaches of text interpretation quite directly feed into educational considerations regarding the potential of aesthetic texts for language learning and general education.
- Moreover, insights from the field of **Linguistics**, which studies language as a system, may be helpful in understanding, teaching and learning grammatical phenomena as well as the pragmatics of language use. Especially, the findings of **Applied Linguistics** in the fields of first and second language acquisition are directly relevant for foreign language teaching.
- In a similar fashion, the learning theories derived from **Educational Sciences** and **Psychology** influence approaches to institutional (second) language learning (cf. chapter 5 in this volume).

- **Cultural Studies** as an interdisciplinary approach looks at the representation of cultural aspects and meaning-making processes in society and thus influences the choice of classroom topics. Central categories to be analysed are race, gender and class.
- **Sociology** is concerned with the empirical and theoretical study of human behaviour, also in organisations and institutions, and thus influences the field of ELE.
- The domain of **Philosophy** that is particularly relevant for ELE is epistemology, which deals with the nature and scope of knowledge and the question how it can be acquired.

Establishment, consolidation, differentiation: Since the 1980s, a phase of the establishment, consolidation and differentiation of ELE/FLE—both institutionally and conceptually—has taken place. In addition to ELE and French language education, education in teaching other foreign languages, such as Spanish, German as a Foreign Language and as a Second Language as well as Slavic languages has developed. The conceptual expansion of the field ›L2 learning and teaching‹ became visible in the emergence and consolidation of (new) related disciplines, such as Applied Linguistics, which is concerned with the systematic study of communicative aspects of language use in particular settings or social groups and second language acquisition (SLA), which is a sub-discipline of Applied Linguistics and concerned with the study of language acquisition processes. Further indicators‹ of this establishment and consolidation are the increasing activities and number of conferences of research associations during this phase (cf. Doff 2008, 202 ff.).

Example | **Deutsche Gesellschaft für Fremdsprachenforschung**

The ›German Society for Foreign Language Research‹ (DGFF) was founded in the late 1980s. Today, the DGFF is an association with around 500 members worldwide that aims to bring together researchers in the fields of teaching and learning foreign languages, acquisition and use of second languages, multilingualism and intercultural learning.

Coming of age as an academic discipline: The process of the expansion and differentiation of FLE/ELE, which began in the 1970s and continues to this day, is reflected on a third level, namely that of PhD studies and further research papers related to the expansion of knowledge in the field (for a detailed discussion cf. Doff 2008, 207 f.). These include specialised bibliographies and manuals, by means of which a systematisation of the language and terminology of FLE/ELE has taken place. During the 1970s, the number of doctorates in the the field of learning and teaching foreign/second languages grew slowly but steadily and almost quadrupled in the 1980s. In order to systematise the continually growing body of knowledge in the field, bibliographies (among others the ›Bibliography of Modern Foreign Language Teaching‹ created in 1969 by Freudenstein; cf. https://

www.uni-marburg.de/ifs/bibliographie) made an equally important contribution to relevant lexicons and reference works. The most comprehensive example is the *Handbuch Fremdsprachenunterricht* (cf. Bausch et al. 1989). The expanded and revised editions of this standard work (most recently completely revised and extended edition 2016) show a certain level of maturity« of FLE as academic discipline, whose expansion continues up to the present day.

1.4 | Conclusion: reasons for studying ELT/ELE history

Why should you as a (future) English language teacher know (more) about what has been discussed in this chapter and what could that mean for your professional development? For (foreign language) teachers one of the core questions is the choice of methods which determine their everyday practical teaching (cf. Terhart 2005, 93 ff.): Thus, the preoccupation with and the discussion of methods and methodology are a salient issue for all teachers as well as those involved in teacher education. A central, yet hardly explored phenomenon in this context, is the tension of method as a theory-based academic concept (methods) on the one hand and the application of techniques, processes and everyday practices on the other (methodology) (cf. Kumaravadivelu 2006a, 84; Thornbury 2011, 195 f.).

A major concern of the education of (future) foreign language teachers is to introduce them to a range of teaching methods appropriate to the situation and for balancing out content demands, teaching objectives and the needs of any group of learners. A similar concern is to familiarise future teachers with the broadest possible repertoire of methods for critically reflecting on their own methodological practice (discussed as »reflective practice« in chapter 3 of this volume; cf. also Burton 2009).

Beyond these very practical considerations, a look back into the history of English language teaching and English language education has manifold potentials (cf. Hüllen 2000; see also Doff/Klippel 2007, 15 f.) which reach beyond the obvious, immediate practicalities and which, unfortunately, are often overlooked. Knowledge of the past of our own subject

- can contribute to a **deeper understanding of the present** with its strengths and weaknesses;
- can bring a certain **air of caution towards new fashions** and a serenity towards any kind of methodological or technical ›hype‹;
- makes it clear that language learning and teaching were and are important **culture-creating activities**;
- gives insight into the **constants of foreign language learning and teaching** with each era generating different solutions;
- contains interesting **individual findings**;
- offers **comparisons of past and current issues** with the potential to increase critical awareness and a sensitivity towards dubious concepts;
- may foster the **self-confidence of foreign language teachers** when they realise that they are part of a long tradition of the profession.

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