NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC LEARNING
HEINLE CENGAGE Learning

Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language

FOURTH EDITION

MARIANNE CELCE-MURCIA · DONNA M. BRINTON · MARGUERITE ANN SNOW
EDITORS

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Australia • Brazil • Japan • Korea • Mexico • Singapore • Spain • United Kingdom • United States

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Marianne Celce-Murcia
Donna M. Brinton
Marguerite Ann Snow

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Preface

Introduction

This is the fourth edition of *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, Cengage Learning's comprehensive textbook for use in courses designed to prepare teachers of English as a second language (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL). Although designed primarily as a textbook for a preservice teaching English as a second/foreign language methods course, this volume is also a useful reference and guide for those who are already teaching ESL or EFL without having had specific training and for practicing teachers who received their training some time ago and are looking to update their knowledge of the field. The field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages is dynamic and constantly evolving, and the many developments between 2001 (the publication date of the third edition of the text) and 2013 have demonstrated the need for this new edition. The latest research findings are included and integrated with time-tested features of classroom practice.

Purpose in Preparing the Text

Our purpose in preparing this fourth edition of *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (also known as the "Apple Book") remains the same as for the first (1979), second (1991), and third (2001) editions: to produce the best and most comprehensive introduction to the teaching of English to speakers of other languages. Our conceptual approach has been to reflect the most recent findings of current approaches to the teaching and learning of second languages, and to maintain a balance between theory and practice—that is, between providing necessary background information and relevant research, on the one hand, and offering many classroom suggestions and resources for teachers, on the other.

Organization of the Book

This edition covers all areas that are critical to successful language instruction and is organized into six units:

1. **Foundations of Methodology**: an overview of past and present teaching approaches and related research
2. **Language Skills**: the treatment of and techniques for teaching the four language skills (including pronunciation) plus grammar and vocabulary, along with guidance on how to assess these skills through large-scale and classroom-based assessment
3. **Skills for Teachers**: a close examination of skills that teachers need to be effective
4. **Integrated Approaches**: options for integrating the teaching of language skills with content
5. **Focus on the Learner**: information on language learners relevant to classroom instruction
6. **Focus on the Teacher**: issues for the professional development of language teachers

As editors, we have worked to produce an introduction to the field that is of sufficient depth and breadth to be suitable for students with some previous teaching experience yet straightforward enough not to needlessly bewilder the novice.

Features

Each chapter begins with key questions that preview the content of the chapter. Next is an "experience," or example of how the topic at hand plays out in the classroom or in the life of an ESL/EFL learner or teacher. This is followed by a section that defines the topic and introduces readers to key concepts and terminology. These early sections frame the chapter and are referred to when appropriate. Chapters continue with a discussion of conceptual underpinnings (i.e., research and theory) followed by classroom applications. The body of each chapter ends with a section on future trends, a conclusion, and a bulleted summary. Following

the body of the chapter are discussion questions, suggested activities, and recommendations for further reading. These supplementary materials suggest ways in which the chapters can be used in methodology courses to stimulate critical thinking, application of the material presented, and further exploration of the topic.

New to this Edition

This new edition covers more topics and has more contributing authors than the previous ones:

- First edition (1979): 31 chapters, 27 contributors;
- Second edition (1991): 32 chapters, 36 contributors;
- Third edition (2001): 36 chapters, 40 contributors;
- Fourth edition (2013): 40 chapters, 46 contributors.

Twenty-three of the 36 authors who contributed to the third edition have also contributed to this volume (often—but not always—on the same topic). Eighteen of the chapters appearing in this edition are revised and updated versions of chapters in the third edition, and in most cases, the revisions have been substantial. Twelve chapters have been completely rewritten by new authors. The following 11 chapters are on topics that appear for the first time in this edition:

Principles of Instructed Second Language Learning (Rod Ellis)

Teaching English in the Context of World Englishes (Marianne Celce-Murcia)

Fluency-Oriented Second Language Teaching (David Bohlke)

Developing Engaged Second Language Readers (Neil J Anderson)

Spoken Grammar (Michael McCarthy & Anne O'Keeffe)

Assessment in Second Language Classrooms (Anne Katz)

Tools and Techniques of Effective Second/Foreign Language Teaching (Donna M. Brinton)

Teaching Language through Discourse (Marianne Celce-Murcia & Elite Olshtain)

Task-Based Teaching and Learning (David Nunan)

Motivation in Second Language Learning (Zoltán Dörnyei)

Teaching Young Learners in English as a Second/Foreign Language Settings (Joan Kang Shin)

Many of these topics were suggested by users of the third edition and by reviewers commissioned by the publisher to provide feedback for the fourth edition. This feedback guided our decisions as we planned the new edition and led to revisions and expansion of the scope and content. In addition, the fourth edition has been greatly enriched by the addition of a more international focus—both in terms of the diverse settings in which the authors work and teach, and in the examples from second and foreign language classrooms they used to illustrate their topics.

Ancillary Materials

A new feature of this edition is the companion website (http://www.NGL.Cengage.com/tesfl), which accompanies this text. For each chapter, there is a list of Internet links with useful information to help the reader explore related research and teaching suggestions. There are also expanded biographical statements for all the authors to supplement the list of contributors and their affiliations on pp. x–xi. Perhaps the most important feature of the website is the glossary, which defines the hundreds of key terms introduced in the book. We have prepared this glossary as a tool to assist the reader.

Editors/Authors

This fourth edition benefits greatly from having three co-editors: Donna Brinton and Ann Snow have joined with Marianne Celce-Murcia to bring their expertise and knowledge of the field to the task of compiling this edition. Marianne Celce-Murcia is professor emerita of applied linguistics at the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA) and served as the editor of the previous three editions of this book. Donna Brinton is a retired member of the TESL and applied

linguistics faculty at UCLA, and has also served on the faculty of the University of Southern California' and Soka University of America; she brings extensive expertise as an author and editor. Ann Snow is professor of education at California State University, Los Angeles; she has significant experience as an author, researcher, series consultant, and editor. (See longer biographies for all three editors on the companion website [http://www.NGL.Cengage.com/tesfl].)

Suggestions on How to Use the Book

Our goal in compiling this volume has been to produce a comprehensive introduction to the field—one that would serve both as a course text and as a resource for the ESL/EFL teacher's professional library. As a result, the book may contain too much material for a single methods course. Thus, we advise instructors using this volume as a course text to be selective and to focus on the chapters most relevant to preparing their students as classroom teachers; alternatively, instructors may consider dividing up the content of the text over two or more courses. Different instructors and different teacher-preparation programs emphasize different topics and organize courses differently. This is understandable, and thus there is flexibility in how instructors will choose to use the book.

There are many options available for using *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language.* Using it as a course text, instructors can tailor the reading list to the anticipated needs of their students, taking into account the length of the course and its focus. In addition to simply assigning chapters to be read, many instructors assign pairs or small groups of students to present and lead a discussion on individual chapters of their choice. Instructors with access to a course management system may also wish to have students respond to selected end-of-chapter discussion questions by posting their answers in the online discussion forum section and also by responding to their peers' contributions. Any chapters that are not covered in a course as a result of time constraints will become useful reference materials for the teacher in training, whose interests, needs, and target student population may well change after the completion of the methods course and the teacher education program. Finally, the book can serve as a single, comprehensive reference for language methodology—just as it is useful to have a comprehensive dictionary or a comprehensive reference grammar.

We welcome comments and feedback on this edition. In our role as teachers, we all have much to learn from one another.

Acknowledgments

Many colleagues, students, and friends have been of invaluable assistance in the preparation of this volume. Our greatest debt is to all the colleagues who graciously accepted our invitation to write or rewrite chapters for this fourth edition. The breadth and depth of their expertise make this collection truly unique.

We are especially indebted to many people at National Geographic Learning/Cengage Learning who have supported the production of this edition. Thanks, first of all, to our editor Tom Jefferies, who has shepherded this project from the initial planning to final production and who has been extremely helpful and supportive. We are also most grateful to our content project manager Andrea Bobotas and to our copy editor, Julie Nemer. Thanks also to those who have helped to prepare the authors' contracts (Vanessa Richards, David Spain, and Timothy Paquet), to obtain permissions (Julie Berggren, Kavitha Kuttikan, Catherine Pare, Gabriel Feldstein, and Miranda Paquet), and to ready the manuscript for production (Liza Ruano). We also thank Sarah Barnicle for her feedback on many chapters.

Finally, we have greatly appreciated the patience and encouragement of friends and family throughout the lengthy preparation process. We accept full responsibility for any errors or shortcomings due to our actions or inactions as editors.

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UNIT I

Foundations of Methodology

1 An Overview of Language Teaching Methods and Approaches

MARIANNE CELCE-MURCIA

KEY QUESTIONS

- ➤ What are the methods and approaches that language teachers have used over the years to teach foreign or second languages?
- ➤ What are the current methodological trends and challenges?
- ➤ Where does language teaching methodology appear to be heading?

EXPERIENCE

A committee of professors reviewing applications for their graduate program in TESOL come upon the statement of another applicant who declares in his statement of purpose that he wishes to be admitted to discover or (more ambitiously) to develop the one best method for teaching English as a second or foreign language. Several committee members utter words of impatience and disappointment:

"Oh, no! Not another one!"
"Here we go again!"

The reasons for the committee's reactions to this statement of purpose will become clear in the course of this chapter.

WHAT IS A METHOD OR AN APPROACH TO LANGUAGE TEACHING?

Anthony (1963) was one of the first applied linguists to distinguish the terms *approach, method,* and *technique* as they apply to language teaching.[1] For Anthony, an approach reflects a theoretical model or research paradigm. It provides a broad philosophical perspective on language teaching, such as found in the justifications for the direct method, the reading approach, or the communicative approach (all are discussed in this chapter). A method, on the other hand, is a set of procedures for Anthony. It spells out rather precisely in a step-by-step manner how to teach a second or foreign language. Examples of methods are the Silent Way, Community Language Learning, and Suggestopedia (all of which are also described here). A method is more specific than an approach but less specific than a technique. Anthony's methods are typically compatible with one (or sometimes two) approaches. A technique in Anthony's system is a specific classroom activity; it thus represents the most specific and concrete of the three concepts that he discusses. Some techniques are widely used and found in many methods (e.g., dictation, listen and repeat drills, and read the passage and fill in the blanks); other techniques, however, are specific to or characteristic of a given method (e.g., using cuisenaire rods in the Silent Way) (Gattegno, 1976).

A more recent framework for discussing language teaching methodology has been proposed by Richards and Rodgers (2001); it is presented in Figure 1. Richards and Rodgers use *method* as the most general and overarching term. Under method, they have the terms *approach, design,* and *procedure.* Their use of the term *approach* is similar to Anthony's use, but their concept is more comprehensive and explicit. It includes theories of the nature of language (including units of language analysis) and the nature of language learning with reference to psychological and pedagogical principles. The design portion of Richards and

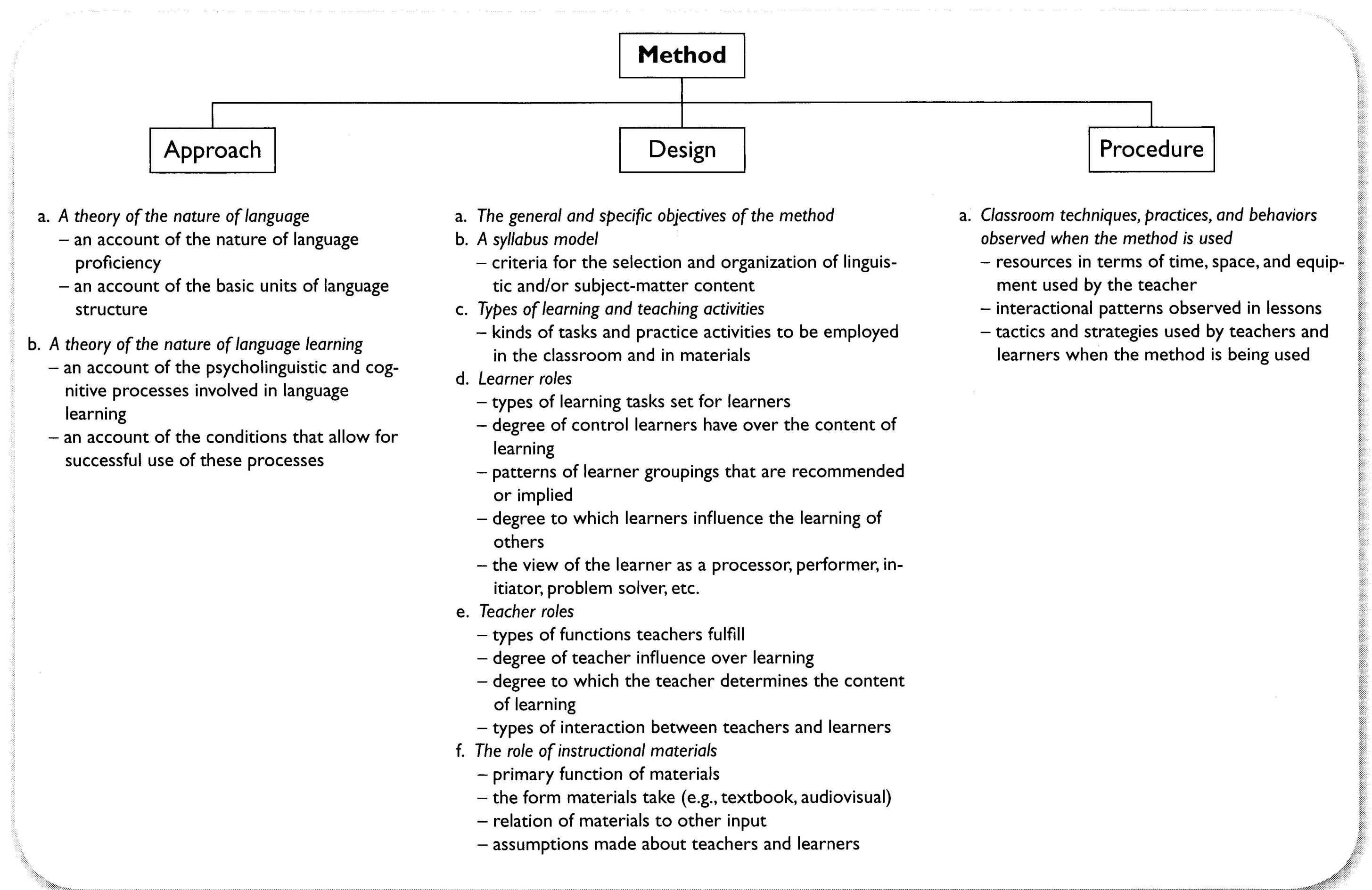

Figure 1. Summary of elements and subelements that constitute a method (adapted from J. C. Richards & T. S. Rodgers, 2001).

Rodgers's framework entails the curriculum objectives and syllabus types (e.g., structural, notional-functional, or content-based). (See Graves, this volume.) It also includes learning and teaching activities and spells out the roles of teachers and learners. Finally, it includes instructional materials along with their form, function, and role in the teaching-learning process. The term *procedure* for Richards and Rodgers refers to techniques, practices, behaviors, and equipment observable in the classroom. The interactional patterns and the strategies used by teachers and students are also part of their procedural component. (See Brinton, this volume.)

CONCEPTUAL UNDERPINNINGS

The field of second language (L2) teaching has undergone many fluctuations and shifts over the years. In contrast to disciplines like physics or chemistry, in which progress is more or less steady until a major discovery causes a radical theoretical revision (referred to as a paradigm shift by Kuhn, 1970), language teaching is a field in which fads and heroes have come and gone in a manner fairly consistent with the kinds of changes that occur when people jump from one bandwagon to the next (M. Clarke, 1982). One reason for the frequent swings of the pendulum is that very few language teachers have a sense of history about their profession and are thus unaware of the linguistic, psychological, and sociocultural underpinnings of the many methodological options they have at their disposal. It is hoped that this overview will encourage language teachers to learn more about the origins of their profession. Such knowledge will ensure some perspective when teachers evaluate any so-called innovations or new approaches to methodology, developments that will surely arise in the future.

Pre-twentieth-century trends: A survey of key approaches

Prior to the twentieth century, language teaching methodology vacillated between two types of approaches: getting learners to use a language (i.e., to speak and understand it) and getting learners to analyze a language (i.e., to learn its grammatical rules). Both the classical Greek and medieval Latin periods were characterized by an emphasis on teaching people to use foreign languages. The classical languages, first Greek and then Latin, were used as lingua francas (i.e., languages used for communication among people speaking different first languages). Higher learning was conducted primarily through these languages all over Europe. Manuscripts and letters were written in these languages. They were used widely in philosophy, religion, politics, and business. Thus the educated elite became fluent speakers, readers, and writers of the classical language appropriate to their time and context (Prator, 1974).

We can assume that during these earlier eras language teachers or tutors used informal and more or less direct approaches to convey the form and meaning of the language they were teaching and that they used aural-oral techniques with no language textbooks per se; instead, they probably had a small stock of hand-copied written manuscripts of some sort, perhaps a few texts in the target language (the language being learned), or crude dictionaries that listed equivalent words in two or more languages side by side.

During the Renaissance, the formal study of the grammars of Greek and Latin became popular through the mass production of books made possible by Gutenberg's invention of moveable type and the printing press in 1440. In the case of Latin, it was discovered that the grammar of the classical texts was different from that of the Latin then being used as a lingua franca—the latter subsequently being labeled vulgate Latin (the Latin of the common people). Major differences had developed between the classical Latin described in the Renaissance grammars, which became the formal object of instruction in schools, and the Latin being used for everyday purposes. This occurred at about the same time that Latin was gradually beginning to be abandoned as a lingua franca. No one was speaking classical Latin as a first language anymore, and various European vernaculars (languages with an oral tradition but with little or no written tradition) had begun to rise in respectability and popularity; these vernacular languages, such as French and German, had begun to develop their own written traditions (Prator, 1974).[2]

Since the European vernaculars had grown in prestige and utility, it is not surprising that people in one country or region began to find it necessary and useful to learn the language of another country or region. Thus during the early seventeenth century the focus on language study shifted from an exclusive analysis of the classical languages back to a focus on utility. Perhaps the most famous language teacher and methodologist of this period is Johann (or Jan) Amos Comenius, a Czech scholar and teacher, who published books about his teaching techniques between 1631 and 1658. Some of the techniques that Comenius used and espoused were:

- Use imitation instead of rules to teach a language.
- Have your students repeat after you.
- Use a limited vocabulary initially.
- Help your students practice reading and speaking.
- Teach language through pictures to make it meaningful.

Thus Comenius, perhaps for the first time, made explicit an essentially inductive approach to learning a foreign language (i.e., an approach based on exposure to the target language in use rather than through rules), the goal of which was to teach the use rather than the analysis of the language being taught (Kelly, 1969).

The next section of this chapter outlines the major approaches that still resonate and influence the practice of language teaching today—some to a greater and some to a lesser degree.

The grammar-translation approach. Comenius's progressive views held sway for some time; however, by the beginning of the nineteenth century, the systematic study of the grammar of classical Latin and of classical texts had once again taken hold in schools and universities throughout Europe. The analytical grammar-translation approach became firmly entrenched as a way to teach not only Latin but also, by extension, the vernaculars that had

become modern languages as well. Grammar-translation was perhaps best codified in the work of Karl Ploetz (1819–1881), a German scholar who had a tremendous influence on the language teaching profession during his lifetime and afterward. The following is a synthesis of the key elements of the grammar-translation approach (Kelly, 1969):

- Instruction is given in the native language of the students.
- There is little use of the target language for communication.
- The focus is on grammatical parsing, that is, the forms and inflections of words.
- There is early reading of difficult texts.
- A typical exercise is to translate sentences from the target language into the mother tongue (or vice versa).
- The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use the language for communication.
- The teacher does not have to be able to speak the target language fluently.

The direct method. The swinging of the pendulum continued. By the end of the nineteenth century, the direct method, which once more stressed as its goal the ability to use rather than to analyze a language, had begun to function as a viable alternative to grammar-translation. François Gouin, a Frenchman, began to publish his work on the direct method in 1880.[3] He advocated exclusive use of the target language in the classroom, having been influenced by an older friend, the German philosopher-scientist Alexander von Humboldt, who had espoused the notion that a language cannot be taught, that one can only create conditions for learning to take place (Kelly, 1969). The direct method became very popular in France and Germany, and even today it has enthusiastic followers among language teachers in many countries (as does the grammar-translation approach). Key features of the direct method are:

- No use of the mother tongue is permitted (i.e., the teacher does not need to know the students' native language).
- Lessons begin with dialogues and anecdotes in modern conversational style.
- Actions and pictures are used to make meanings clear.
- Grammar is learned inductively (i.e., by repeated exposure to language in use, not through rules about forms).
- Literary texts are read for pleasure and are not analyzed grammatically.
- The target culture is also taught inductively.
- The teacher must be a native speaker or have native-like proficiency in the target language.

The influence of the direct method grew; it crossed the Atlantic in the early twentieth century when Emile de Sauzé, a disciple of Gouin, traveled to Cleveland, Ohio, to see to it that all foreign language instruction in the public schools there implemented the direct method. De Sauzé's endeavor, however, was not completely successful (in Cleveland or elsewhere) since at the time there were too few foreign language teachers in the United States who were highly proficient speakers of the language they were teaching (Prator, 1974).

The reform movement. In 1886, during the same period that the direct method first became popular in Europe, the International Phonetic Association was established by scholars such as Henry Sweet, Wilhelm Viëtor, and Paul Passy. They developed the International Phonetic Alphabet—a transcription system designed to unambiguously represent the sounds of any language—and became part of the reform movement in language teaching in the 1890s. These phoneticians made some of the first truly scientific contributions to language teaching when they advocated principles such as the following (Howatt, 2004):

- The spoken form of a language is primary and should be taught first.
- The findings of phonetics should be applied to language teaching.
- Language teachers must have solid training in phonetics.
- Learners should be given basic phonetic training to establish good speech habits.

The work of these influential phoneticians focused on the teaching of pronunciation and oral skills, which they felt had been ignored in grammar-translation. Thus, although the reform movement is not necessarily considered a full-blown pedagogical approach to language teaching, its adherents did have a significant influence on certain subsequent approaches, as we will see.

Early and mid-twentieth-century approaches

The reading approach. In the early decades of the twentieth century, the Modern Language Association of America, based on the Coleman Report (Coleman, 1929), endorsed the reading approach to language teaching. The report's authors felt that, given the skills and limitations of most language teachers, all that one could reasonably expect was for students to come away from the study of a foreign language being able to read the target language, with emphasis on some of the great works of literature and philosophy that had been produced in that language. As reflected in the work of Michael West (1941) and others, this approach held sway in North America until the late 1930s and early 1940s. Elements of the reading approach are:

- Only the grammar useful for reading comprehension is taught.
- Vocabulary is controlled at first (based on frequency and usefulness) and then expanded.
- Translation is once more a respectable classroom procedure.
- Reading comprehension is the only language skill emphasized.
- The teacher does not need to have good oral proficiency in the target language.
- The first language is used to present reading material, discuss it, and check understanding.

The audiolingual approach. Some historians of language teaching (e.g., Howatt, 2004) believe that the earlier reform movement played a role in the simultaneous development of both the audiolingual approach in the United States and the oral-situational approach in Britain (discussed next). When World War II broke out and made it imperative for the U.S. military to quickly and efficiently teach members of the armed forces how to speak foreign languages and to understand them when spoken by native speakers, the U.S. government hired linguists to help teach languages and develop materials: the audiolingual approach was born (Fries, 1945). It drew on both the reform movement and the direct method but added features from structural linguistics and behavioral psychology. Structural linguistics begins with describing minimally distinctive sound units (phonemes), which then form lexical and grammatical elements (morphemes), which then form higher structures such as phrases and clauses/sentences (Bloomfield, 1933). In behavioral psychology, learning is based on getting learners to repeat behaviors (verbal or nonverbal) until they become fully learned habits (Skinner, 1957). The audiolingual approach became dominant in the United States during the late 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s. Its features include:

- Lessons begin with dialogues.
- Mimicry and memorization are used, based on the assumption that language learning is habit formation.
- Grammatical structures are sequenced and rules are taught inductively (through planned exposure).
- Skills are sequenced: first listening and speaking are taught; reading and writing are postponed.
- Accurate pronunciation is stressed from the beginning.
- Vocabulary is severely controlled and limited in the initial stages.
- A great effort is made to prevent learner errors.
- Language is often manipulated without regard to meaning or context.
- The teacher must be proficient only in the structures, vocabulary, and other aspects of the language that he or she is teaching, since learning activities and materials are carefully controlled.

The oral-situational approach. In Britain the same historical pressures that prompted the development of the audiolingual approach gave rise to the oral or situational approach (Eckersley, 1955). It arose as a reaction to the reading approach and its lack of emphasis on listening and speaking skills (Howatt, 2004). This approach was dominant in Britain during the late 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s; it drew on the reform movement and the direct approach but added features from Firthian linguistics (Firth, 1957)[4] and the emerging professional field of language pedagogy. It also drew on the experience that Britain's language educators had accrued in oral approaches to foreign language teaching (e.g., Palmer, 1921/1964). Although influenced by,

but less dogmatic than, its American counterpart (the audiolingual approach), the oral-situational approach advocated organizing structures around situations (e.g., "at the pharmacy" or "at the restaurant") that provided the learner with maximum opportunity to practice the target language. However, practice often consisted of little more than pattern practice, choral repetition, or reading of texts and memorization of dialogues. Features of the oral-situational approach include:

- The spoken language is primary.
- All language material is practiced orally before being presented in written form (reading and writing are taught only after an oral base in lexical and grammatical forms has been established).
- Only the target language should be used in the classroom.
- Efforts are made to ensure that the most general and useful lexical items are presented.
- Grammatical structures are graded from simple to complex.
- New items (lexical and grammatical) are introduced and practiced situationally (e.g., "at the post office," "at the bank," "at the dinner table").

More recent approaches to language teaching

In addition to the three approaches whose historical developments have been sketched here, there are four other discernible approaches to foreign language teaching that developed and were widely used during the final quarter of the twentieth century; some of them continue into the early twenty-first century. In this section, I briefly describe key features of the cognitive, affective-humanistic, comprehension-based, and communicative approaches.

The cognitive approach. This approach was a reaction to the behaviorist features of the audiolingual approach, influenced by cognitive psychology and Chomskyan linguistics. Cognitive psychology (Neisser, 1967) holds that people do not learn complex systems like language or mathematics through habit formation but through the acquisition of patterns and rules that they can then extend and apply to new circumstances or problems. Likewise, in Chomskyan linguistics (Chomsky, 1959, 1965), language acquisition is viewed as the learning of a system of infinitely extendable rules based on meaningful exposure, with hypothesis testing and rule inferencing, not habit formation, driving the learning process. Features of the cognitive approach include:

- Language learning is viewed as rule acquisition, not habit formation.
- Instruction is often individualized; learners are responsible for their own learning.
- Grammar must be taught, but it can be taught deductively (rules first, practice later) and/or inductively (rules can either be stated after practice or left as implicit information for the learners to process on their own).
- Pronunciation is deemphasized; perfection is viewed as unrealistic and unattainable.
- Reading and writing are once again as important as listening and speaking.
- Vocabulary learning is again stressed, especially at intermediate and advanced levels.
- Errors are viewed as inevitable, to be used constructively for enhancing the learning process (for feedback and correction).
- The teacher is expected to have good general proficiency in the target language as well as an ability to analyze the target language.

The affective-humanistic approach. This approach developed as a reaction to the general lack of affective considerations in both the audiolingual approach and the cognitive approach (e.g., Curran, 1976; Moskowitz, 1978).[5] It put emphasis on the social climate in the classroom and the development of positive relationships between the teacher and the learners and among the learners themselves. It argues that learning a language is a social and personal process and that this has to be taken into account in the methods and materials used. Following are some of the defining characteristics of the affective-humanistic approach:

- Respect for each individual (students and teachers) and for their feelings is emphasized.
- Communication that is personally meaningful to the learner is given priority.
- Instruction involves much work in pairs and small groups.
- The class atmosphere is viewed as more important than materials or methods.

- Peer support and interaction are viewed as necessary for learning.
- Learning a second or foreign language is viewed as a self-realization process.
- The teacher is a counselor or facilitator rather than the ultimate source of knowledge.
- The teacher should be proficient in the target language and in the students' native language since translation may be used heavily in the initial stages to help students feel at ease; later, it is gradually phased out.

The comprehension-based approach. This is an outgrowth of research in first language (L1) acquisition that led some language methodologists to assume that second language (L2) learning is very similar to L1 acquisition and that extended exposure and comprehension (i.e., listening with understanding) must precede production (i.e., speaking (Asher, 1996; Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Postovsky, 1974; Winitz, 1981). The best-known of the comprehension-based approaches is Krashen and Terrell's Natural Approach (1983). The characteristics of the comprehension-based approach are:

- Listening comprehension is very important and is viewed as the basic skill that will allow speaking, reading, and writing to develop spontaneously over time, given the right conditions.
- Learners should begin with a silent period by listening to meaningful speech and by responding nonverbally in meaningful ways before they produce language themselves.
- Learners should not speak until they feel ready to do so; such delayed oral production results in better pronunciation than if the learner is expected to speak immediately.
- Learners progress by being exposed to meaningful input that is just one step beyond their level of proficiency.
- Rule learning may help learners monitor (or become aware of) what they do, but it will not aid their acquisition or spontaneous use of the target language.
- Error correction is seen as unnecessary and perhaps even counterproductive; what is important is that the learners can understand and can make themselves understood.
- If the teacher is not a native (or near-native) speaker, appropriate audiovisual materials must be available online and in the classroom or lab to provide the appropriate input for the learners.

The communicative approach. This approach is an outgrowth of the work of anthropological linguists in the United States (e.g., Hymes, 1971) and Firthian linguists in Britain (e.g., Firth, 1957; Halliday, 1973, 1978), all of whom view language as a meaning-based system for communication. (See Duff, this volume, for an extended discussion.) Now serving as an umbrella term for a number of designs and procedures (to use Richards and Rodgers's terminology) the communicative approach includes task-based language teaching and project work, content-based and immersion instruction, and Cooperative Learning (Kagan, 1994), among other instructional frameworks. (See also chapters by Nunan and Snow, this volume.) Some of the salient features and manifestations of the communication approach are:

- It is assumed that the goal of language teaching is the learners' ability to communicate in the target language.
- It is assumed that the content of a language course will include semantic notions and social functions and that they are as important as linguistic structures.
- In some cases, the content is academic or job-related material, which becomes the course focus with language learning as a simultaneous concern.
- Students regularly work in groups or pairs to transfer and negotiate meaning in situations in which one person has information that the other(s) lack.
- Students often engage in role play or dramatization to adjust their use of the target language to different social contexts.
- Classroom materials and activities often consist of authentic tasks and projects presented and practiced using segments of preexisting meaningful discourse, not materials primarily constructed for pedagogical purposes.
- Skills are integrated from the beginning; a given activity might involve reading, speaking, listening, and also writing (this assumes the learners are educated and literate).

Table 1. Central Principles of Four Current Approaches to Language Teaching

Approach	Central Principle
Cognitive approach	Language learning is rule-governed cognitive behavior (not habit formation).
Affective-humanistic approach	Learning a foreign language is a process of self-realization and of relating to other people.
Comprehension approach	Language acquisition occurs if and only if the learner receives and comprehends sufficient meaningful input.
Communicative approach	The purpose of language (and thus the goal of language teaching and learning) is communication.

- The teacher's role is primarily to facilitate communication and secondarily to correct errors.
- The teacher should be able to use the target language fluently and appropriately.

To sum up, we can see that certain features of several of the pre-twentieth-century approaches arose in reaction to perceived inadequacies or impracticalities in an earlier approach or approaches. The more recent approaches developed in the twentieth century and expanded in the early twenty-first century also do this to some extent; however, each one is based on a slightly different theory or view of how people learn or use second languages, and each has a central principle around which everything else revolves, as summarized in Table 1.

Designer methods. In addition to the four approaches already discussed, several other methods proliferated in the 1970s and 1980s; these have been labeled designer methods by Nunan (1989b). These methods were rather specific in terms of the procedures and materials that the teacher, who typically required special training, was supposed to use. They were almost always developed and defined by one person. This person, in turn, trained practitioners who accepted the method as gospel and helped to spread the word. Several of these methods and their originators follow with brief descriptions:

Silent Way. (Gattegno, 1976) Using an array of visuals (e.g., rods of different shapes and colors, and charts with words or color-coded sounds), the teacher gets students to practice and learn a new language while saying very little in the process. The method is inductive, and only the target language is used.

Community Language Learning. (Curran, 1976) Sitting in a circle, and with the session being recorded, students decide what they want to say. The teacher as counselor-facilitator then translates and gets learners to practice in the target language the material that was elicited. Later at the board, the teacher goes over the words and structures the class is learning and provides explanations in the L1 as needed.

Total Physical Response. (Asher, 1996) The teacher gives commands, "Stand up!" "Sit down!" and so on and shows learners how to demonstrate comprehension by doing the appropriate physical action as a response. New structures and vocabulary are introduced this way for an extended time. When learners are ready to speak, they begin to give each other commands. Only the target language is used.

Suggestology, Suggestopedia, or Accelerated Learning. (Lozanov, 1978) In a setting more like a living room than a classroom, learners sit in easy chairs and assume a new identity; the teacher, using only the target language, presents a script two times over two days, accompanied by music. This is followed by group or choral reading of the script on the first day, along with songs and games. On the second day, the students elaborate on the script to tell an anecdote or story. The learners have copies of the script along with an L1 translation juxtaposed on the same page. The process continues with new scripts.

The lockstep rigidity found in such designer methods led some applied linguists (e.g., Richards, 1984) to seriously question their usefulness. This aroused a healthy skepticism among language educators, who argued that there is no such thing

as a "best" method; Strevens (1977) was among the earliest to articulate skepticism about the various proliferating methods:

> the complex circumstances of teaching and learning languages—with different kinds of pupils, teachers, aims, and objectives, approaches, methods, and materials, classroom techniques and standards of achievement—make it inconceivable that any single method could achieve optimum success in all circumstances. (p. 5)

Adamson (2004) also critiques language teaching methods and suggests that attention now be turned "to the teacher and the learner, and the ways in which they can operate effectively in their educational context, instead of offering generalized, pre-packaged solutions in the shape of teaching materials and strategies" (p. 619).

The post-methods era

Building on the professional consensus that no method could claim supremacy, Prabhu (1990) asks *why* there is no best method. He suggests that there are three possible explanations: (1) different methods are best for different teaching/learning circumstances; (2) all methods have some truth or validity; and (3) the whole notion of what is a good or a bad method is irrelevant. Prabhu argues for the third possibility and concludes that we need to rethink what is "best" such that classroom teachers and applied linguists can develop shared pedagogical perceptions of what real-world classroom teaching is.

Coming from the perspective of critical theory (Foucault, 1980), Pennycook (1989) also challenges the concept of method:

> Method is a prescriptive concept that articulates a positivist, progressivist and patriarchal understanding of teaching and plays an important role in maintaining inequities between, on the one hand, predominantly male academics and, on the other, female teachers and language classrooms on the international power periphery. (p. 589)

Many applied linguists, while not holding as radical a view as that of Pennycook, nonetheless agree that we are in a post-methods era. Beyond what Strevens, Prabhu, and Pennycook have noted, H. D. Brown (2002), in his critique of methods, adds the following two observations: (1) so-called designer methods seem distinctive at the initial stage of learning but soon come to look like any other learner-centered approach; and (2) it has proven impossible to empirically (i.e., quantitatively) demonstrate the superiority of one method over another. Brown (2002) concludes that classroom teachers do best when they ground their pedagogy in "well-established principles of language teaching and learning" (p. 17).

So what are these well-established principles that teachers should apply in the post-methods era? One of the early concrete proposals comes from Kumaravadivelu (1994), who offers a framework consisting of the 10 following macro strategies, which I summarize briefly:

1. *Maximize learning opportunities.* The teacher's job is not to transmit knowledge but to create and manage as many learning opportunities as possible.
2. *Facilitate negotiated interaction.* Learners should initiate classroom talk (not just respond to the teacher's prompts) by asking for clarification, by confirming, by reacting, and so on, as part of teacher-student and student-student interaction.
3. *Minimize perceptual mismatches.* Reduce or avoid mismatches between what the teacher and the learner believe is being taught or should be taught as well as how learner performance should be evaluated.
4. *Activate intuitive heuristics.* Teachers should provide enough data for learners to infer underlying grammatical rules, since it is impossible to explicitly teach all rules of the L2.
5. *Foster language awareness.* Teachers should get learners to attend to and learn the formal properties of the L2 and then to compare and contrast these formal properties with those of the L1.
6. *Contextualize linguistic input.* Meaningful discourse-based activities are needed to help learners see the interaction of grammar, lexicon, and pragmatics in natural language use.
7. *Integrate language skills.* The separation of listening, reading, speaking, and writing is artificial. As in the real world, learners should integrate skills: conversation (listening and speaking), note-taking (listening and writing), self-study (reading and writing), and so on.

8. *Promote learner autonomy.* Teachers should help learners to learn on their own by raising awareness of effective learning strategies and providing problems and tasks that encourage learners to use strategies such as planning and self-monitoring.
9. *Raise cultural consciousness.* Teachers should allow learners to become sources of cultural information so that knowledge about the culture of the L2 and of other cultures (especially those represented by the students) becomes part of classroom communication.
10. *Ensure social relevance:* Acknowledge that language learning has social, political, economic, and educational dimensions that shape the motivation to learn the L2, determine the uses to which the L2 will be put, and define the skills and proficiency level needed in the L2.

Based on these 10 guiding macrostrategies, Kumaravadivelu (1994) suggests that teachers should have the independence to design situation-specific micro strategies, or materials and procedures, to achieve their desired learning objectives. (See Brinton, this volume, for specific instructional strategies.)

Kumaravadivelu (2001, 2006) further elaborates on his 1994 paper, acknowledging that this post-methods era is a transitional period and that post-method pedagogy is a work in progress. He argues that language teachers need to become principled pragmatists, shaping their students' classroom learning through informed teaching and critical reflection. The post-methods teacher is characterized as reflective, autonomous and self-directed (Nunan & Lamb, 1996), and able to elicit authentic pedagogical interaction (van Lier, 1996). Ideally, such teachers will engage in research to refine their practices. (See also chapters by Murphy and Bailey, this volume.)

The post-methods teacher educator moves away from transmitting an established body of knowledge to prospective teachers and, instead, takes into account their beliefs, voices, and visions to develop their critical thinking skills. The goal is to help them develop their own effective pedagogies that will create meaningful collaboration among learners, teachers, and teacher educators (Kumaravadivelu, 2001).

Not all applied linguists are fully convinced that the idealistic proposals that have emerged to date in the post-methods era will work in all settings. Adamson (2004), for example, reviews Kumaravadivelu's 10 macro strategies and notes that this framework might not be applicable where the syllabus and teaching materials are fixed and external examinations are prescribed. In such cases, he feels that teachers may not have sufficient autonomy to implement a post-methods approach. He adds that teachers may also lack access to the professional knowledge that will allow them to develop an approach truly responsive to their learners and their context.

CLASSROOM APPLICATIONS

Recall the TESOL-program applicant described in the opening Experience section, who wanted to discover or develop the one best method to the consternation of the professors on the graduate admissions committee. What is the solution for dealing with this prospective ESL/EFL teacher? The best way for him or her to learn to make wise decisions is to gain knowledge about the various approaches, methods, and frameworks currently available and to identify practices that may prove successful with the learners in the context in which he or she is, or will be, teaching (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). This chapter's overview just scratches the surface. Further information is available in the remainder of this volume and in many other books, in journal articles, in presentations and workshops at professional conferences, and on the Internet.

There are at least five things that our applicant to the MA TESOL program should learn to do to make good pragmatic decisions concerning the judicious application of an approach, a design, or a method (including teaching materials) and its techniques or procedures:

1. Assess student needs: Why are they learning English? For what purpose?
2. Examine the instructional constraints: time (hours per week, days per week, and weeks per term), class size (nature of enrollment), materials (set syllabus and text, or completely open to teacher?), and physical factors (classroom size, available audiovisual and technological support). Then decide what and how much can reasonably be taught and how.
3. Determine the attitudes, learning styles, and cultural backgrounds of individual students

to the extent that this is possible, and develop activities and materials consistent with the findings.

4. Identify the discourse genres, speech activities, and text types that the students need to learn so that they can be incorporated into materials and learning activities.
5. Determine how the students' language learning will be assessed, and incorporate learning activities that simulate assessment practices into classroom instruction.

In the course of doing all these, the applicant (having completed his or her training) will be in a position to select the most useful techniques and procedures and to design a productive course of study by drawing on existing research findings and assessing the suitability of available approaches, syllabus/curriculum types, and teaching materials. Clifford Prator, a professor and former colleague of mine, summed up the professional ESL/EFL teacher's responsibility aptly (personal communication):

> Adapt; don't adopt.

Our MA program applicant will certainly be in a better position upon graduation to follow Prator's advice if he or she is familiar with the history and the state of the art of our profession as well as with all the options available to the teacher and his or her learners.

FUTURE TRENDS

Finding ways to integrate all that we now know is the challenge for current and future language teachers and for the profession at large. We must build on our past and present knowledge of what works to refine and improve existing language teaching practices and, it is hoped, develop other practices that will be even better and more encompassing. We cannot be satisfied with the current, in-progress state of affairs but must seek out new ways to provide learners with the most effective and efficient language learning experiences possible, taking into account the learners' goals, interests, and learning contexts. Language teachers must also become familiar with the research in the field of instructed second language acquisition. (See Ellis, this volume.) This research offers insights into the teaching and learning of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, as well as the language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing).

Canagarajah (2006) suggests that research into the following six areas could result in new methodological paradigms:

1. *Motivation:* How does the nature and extent of the learner's motivation affect language learning? (See Dörnyei, this volume.)
2. *Learner variability:* How can teachers best accommodate students with different strengths and weaknesses in the same class?
3. *Discourse analysis:* How does the discourse of the classroom and of the materials used by the teacher and generated by the learners contribute to language learning? (See Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, this volume.)
4. *Corpus-based research:* To what extent can corpus-based data be used by teachers and learners to enhance the learning process? (See McCarthy & O'Keeffe, this volume.)
5. *Cognition:* How do the learners' cognitive styles and cognitive strategies influence their language learning and language use? (See Purpura, this volume.)
6. *Social participation:* To what extent can group work, pair work, Cooperative Learning, and well-structured tasks enhance student participation and learning? (See chapters by Brinton and by Nunan, this volume.)

To this list, we add a seventh area—new technologies—since we are only beginning to understand how wide access to and use of the Internet and social media can advance language pedagogy and accelerate language learning. (See Sokolik, this volume.)

CONCLUSION

This is an exciting time to be teaching English as a second or foreign language. The spread of English around the world has created a growing need for qualified teachers—native and nonnative speakers. In many countries, children are starting to learn English at an ever-younger age. There is more need than ever for teachers who can deal with English in the workplace. The ever-growing use of English as a lingua franca and the proliferation of varieties of English require careful linguistic description and appropriate pedagogies.

Continual advances in digital technology are opening new channels for teaching and learning. Language teachers must be ready to continually adapt to new and changing circumstances since there is no fixed body of knowledge that one can master and say, "Now I know everything!"

SUMMARY

- ➤ Many different approaches and methods for L2 instruction have been proposed and developed over the centuries.
- ➤ New approaches and methods are often developed in direct response to perceived problems with or inadequacies in an existing popular approach or method and/or to the learning theory prevalent at that time.
- ➤ There has never been and will never be one approach or method that works best in all possible teaching/learning contexts.
- ➤ Ideally, L2 teachers will develop (with full knowledge of available options and in collaboration with their students) the goals, methods, materials, and activities that work best in their particular contexts.
- ➤ Some applied linguists claim that we are in a transitional post-methods era in which teachers have opportunities to creatively apply new findings and fine-tune effective past practices to develop, reflect on, and continuously improve their classroom teaching.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Which of the approaches discussed in the chapter have you personally experienced as a language learner? What were your impressions, and what is your assessment of the effectiveness of the approach(es)?
2. What is the position regarding the teaching of: (a) pronunciation; (b) grammar; and (c) vocabulary in the nine approaches discussed in this chapter? Has there been a swinging of the pendulum with respect to the teaching of these areas? Why or why not?
3. What changes have occurred regarding the relative emphasis on spoken language or written language in the nine approaches discussed in this chapter? Why?
4. What has been the role of the native language and the target language in the various approaches and methods?
5. Do you agree or disagree that we are currently in a post-methods era? Explain.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Select an integrated-skills ESL/EFL text that you have used or expect to use. Examine its contents to determine which approach it seems to follow most closely. Support your decision with examples. Discuss any mixing of approaches that you observe.
2. Observe an ESL or EFL class, and make a list of all the procedures that the teacher uses. Based on these observations, hypothesize the main features of the approach and design that the procedures imply.
3. Demonstration of teaching method: In groups, use the Internet and other available sources to research a teaching method/approach from the list that follows. Then plan a lesson illustrating the key features of this method. Be prepared to: (a) present a brief demonstration of the method to your classmates; and (b) explain its key features using the Richards and Rodgers framework. Suggested topics:

• Audiolingual approach	• Natural Approach
• Task-based learning	• Content-based instruction
• Total Physical Response	• Silent Way
• Cooperative Learning	• Oral/situational approach
• Community Language Learning	• Direct method (Berlitz method)
• Project work	• Suggestopedia

FURTHER READING

Howatt, A. P. R. (with Widdowson, H. G.). (2004). *A history of English language teaching* (2nd ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

This book covers the teaching of English from 1400 to the present day.

Kelly, L. G. (1969). *Twenty-five centuries of language teaching.* New York, NY: Newbury House.

This volume goes back to the Greeks and Romans and covers the teaching of all foreign languages (not just English).

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Anderson, M. (2011) *Techniques and principles in language teaching* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

This is a good source for a more detailed look at many of the teaching methods mentioned in this chapter.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching: A description and analysis* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

This text presents a thorough description and analysis of past and current second language teaching approaches.

ENDNOTES

[1] Versions of the first part of this chapter were published in Prator with Celce-Murcia (1979) and Celce-Murcia (2001). This expanded and updated version also draws on Madsen (1979) and Brinton (2011a).

[2] Examples of such written texts are the Gutenberg Bible in German and the *Chanson de Rolande* in French.

[3] The term *direct method* is more widely used than *direct approach*; however, the former is a misnomer, since this is really an approach, not a method, if we follow Anthony's (1963) terminology or that of Richards and Rodgers (2001).

[4] Firthian linguistics is best codified in the work of Firth's best-known student, M. A. K. Halliday (1973), who refers to his approach to language analysis as systemic-functional grammar. Halliday's approach is very different from Chomsky's generative grammar, a highly abstract extension of structuralism and an approach to language that paid explicit attention to the description of linguistic features (Chomsky, 1965). In addition to form and meaning, Halliday also takes social context into account in his theory and description. Halliday's system extends beyond the sentence level, whereas Chomsky's does not. Thus many applied linguists find Halliday's framework better for their purposes than Chomsky's.

[5] The term *humanistic* has two meanings. One refers to the humanities (i.e., literature, history, and philosophy). The other refers to that branch of psychology concerned with the role of the socio-affective domain in human behavior. It is the latter sense that I am referring to here. However, see Stevick (1990) for an even broader perspective on humanism in language teaching.