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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

In this thesis we attempted to follow through the developments of theory referring to second language learning and second language teaching. The aim of our investigation has been to find the roots of the prevailing theoretical considerations and methodological ideas of our days and consider their validity for the practice of language teaching. Our conclusions are based on recent findings of research as well as personal experiences.

The thesis falls into three main parts. In the first part we outline the basic trends of theory and the emergence of the new branches of linguistics. The second part gives a survey of the relevant questions centred around the communicative approach to language teaching. Part three introduces some teaching techniques which have been used successfully by the author.

The thesis does not aim at giving any strict guidelines on how to teach communication. We have only intended to introduce some activities, discuss how they work in practice, and convey the theoretical considerations behind them.

Although we have tried to include the most important contributions of the recent years both in theory and practice, the list of references offered at the end of the thesis is far from being complete.

PART I.: THE THEORETICAL BACKGROUND - A SURVEY

1. LANGUAGE TEACHING AND SCIENCES

The idea that developments of theory result in developments of practice is a generally accepted view in all fields of science. The interrelation between theory and practice cannot, however, be simplified to linear developments in both fields which then result in an ideal combination of both aspects. The phases of development are rather characterized by a discrepancy between theoretical work and practice, where progress in both fields takes place as a result of confrontations and discussions of the contradicting ideas of both aspects of science.

Language, and, consequently language teaching, is an area which is related to numerous other fields of science, especially nowadays, when the complexity of language as a very special human behaviour has become the centre of interest.

1.1. Language Teaching as Related to Linguistics and Psychology

The most common idea about the relationship of language teaching methodology to other sciences is the involvement of three basic fields of science: linguistics, psychology, and pedagogy. (Wardhaugh,1968: cited in Robinett,1978:160)

> "Linguistics provides information about language in general and about the language being taught: psychology describes how learning takes place: and pedagogy blends the information from linguistics and psychology into a compatible 'method' of presentation in the classroom." (Robinett,1978:160)

Although Robinett admits later in her survey that linguistics and psychology are only 'more or less paralleled with teaching methods' (Robinett,1978:160) she still finds evident links between the theoretical science of language studies of her age and what really goes on in the classroom. Her idealized view represents a highly simplified view of the complex interrelation of theory and practice.

This thesis attempts to follow the developments in the field of *Linguistics, Psychology, Psycholinguistics* and *Sociolinguistics* with special interest in their implications for the language teaching methodology.

1.2. Modern Linguistics

1.2.1. The Study of Language

Language as one of the mysteries of human life has always been in the centre of interest of philosophers and scientists. Since Greek philosophy numerous approaches have been taken to the description of language as a set of rules and the analysis of the rules which is known to most people as 'grammar'.

> "The writing of a grammar is basically an attempt at systematization and codification of a mass of data which may at first sight appear amorphous but within which recurrent regularities can be discerned. The way in which this systematization is approached will depend on the convictions of the grammarian about the nature of language."
> (Rivers 1981:64).

The long tradition of linguistic research has been maintained by new attempts to bring the rules into conformity with actual usage. Rivers sees a continuous and uniform trend running through the basic concepts of linguistics which derives from ancient Greek philosophy, and can be traced down up to modern linguistics:

> "In the European tradition, grammatical analyses have come down to us from the scholars of ancient Greece, and the basic divergence in approach which existed among grammarians at that time is still reflected in the differing viewpoints we hear today. For some grammarians, language reflects a reality which exists beyond language itself, whether categories of logic derived from man's innate neural organization, or relationships observable in the physical world: for others, a language is a purely arbitrary set of associations among which systematic relationships can be discerned and described and for which categories can be established in terms of the unique system of the particular language being studied. For those who hold the first of these views, the categories of grammar are the same for all languages, because the external reality they represent is the same for all men; for those holding the second view, each language must be described in terms of its own coherent system." (Rivers,1981:65)

1.2.2. *Basic Trends of Modern Linguistics: Structuralism and Transformational-Generative-Grammar*

The second basic trend described by Rivers was manifested by the *structuralists* who in the 1930s and 40s raised objections to the practice of describing any and every

language with the same set of conceptual terms. They placed major stress on the empirical analysis of speech data and by describing many non-Indo-European languages emphasized the great differences among languages. The structuralist description of language, known as Immediate-Constituent Grammar or Phrase-Structure Grammar associated with the names of Bloomfield, Fries and Hockett (Bloomfield,1933; Fries,1940; Hockett,1958) concentrates on structural meaning by differentiating three modes of meaning in language: lexical, structural and socio-cultural. (Fries,1940).

Syntactic relationships are identified first, and then larger entities are gradually broken down by a process of binary division into smaller and smaller constituents, until ultimate constituents which can undergo no further division are identified. The constituents at a particular level under consideration are called immediate constituents, like morphemes, as segments of words or phonemes, as segments of phonology.

In the late 50s and 60s Noam Chomsky and the *transformational-generative* grammarians revived the notion of universal categories applicable to all languages. By emphasizing the similarities between languages rather than their differences, transformational-generative grammar considered features of an abstract deep structure from which surface forms developed after the operation of a series of transformations. Transformational grammarians carried out research primarily in the field of phonology, syntax and semantics. (Halle,1962; Katz,1963; Chomsky,1968a,b).

1.2.3. *Linguistics and the Scientific Method*

Theoretical Linguistics is called the 'scientific study of language' (Lyons,1970:7). This implies that there has been an 'unscientific' study of language. Pit Corder makes this distinction roughly as the contrast between modern linguistics — as being scientific, and traditional linguistics — as being unscientific. (Corder,1973;82) The difficulty of establishing the validity of the claim of linguists to being scientific lies in the fact that the term 'scientific' itself has been subject to various interpretations. Crucial to the nature of scientific investigations is the scientific method, the way of interpreting the starting point and approach to the issues described. Two main accounts of the linguistic investigation can be observed.

The *Inductive Generalization* proposed by Bloomfield (Bloomfield, 1935, cited in Corder,1973:83) gave the observation of data as the starting point of scientific investigation of language. On the basis of observations, hypotheses about the nature and regularities of the phenomena under investigation are formed. The theory which is arrived at is the *end-point* of a set of scientific procedures and is determined by the data which were the starting point of the whole investigation. The scientist starts his investigation with an *open mind.*

> "..science dealt exclusively with acessible events and the task of scientists was the induction of general laws from these events." (Bloomfield,1955, cited in Rosenbaum,1969:470)

The decision on what data are relevant to the investigation, however, presumes a preoccupation about the matter, and the

selection of some data and the rejection of others in itself applies some sort of theory about the subject of investigation. This suggests that theory is not the end-point but, in fact, the starting point of scientific investigation, and the data serve to verify, disprove or modify the theory. In the field of linguistics it means that linguists start out with some notion about what language is and what data to select for proving this notion. This alternative account of the scientific process is known as the *hypothetico-deductive* approach (Popper,1959, cited in Corder,1973:84). This approach has many manifestations in the linguistic description of language of the recent years, as well as the combination of both approaches.

The distinction, between competence and performance, basic to the generative grammarians; the description of linguistic universals and the creative aspect of language use introduced a *projective* or *predicitve* aspect to the two basic aspects of describing languages. (Corder,1973,87).

1.3. Psychology of Language

The idea of psychologists about how language is learnt and how it operates was manifested in the behaviourist description of language. The stimulus-response, as basis of all learning, particularly Skinner's operant conditioning model was widely accepted in the 30s and 40s. According to this theory, language is a learned behaviour. The mind is a '*tabula rasa*' (a blank tablet) upon which language is engraved through habit-forming practice. With repeated reinforcement the habit is established; unacceptable utterances are inhibited by lack of reward, until the language of the child begins to resemble more and more the speech of the community in which he grows up. (Skinner,1957)

The behaviourist view of language learning was rejected by Chomsky. (Chomsky,1959)

The studies of Lenneberg (Lenneberg,1960) drew attention to the fact that all children learn the language of their community at the same age to a similar degree of mastery of basic structures despite the great differences in structural complexity, cultural environment and amount of parental attention. Lenneberg also pointed out that the child's learning process cannot be simplified to imitation, but it also involves an active selection and construction of forms which develop at a certain age of mental maturation. In parallel with Chomsky's view, Lenneberg stated that language is a species-specific ability which is peculiar to man.

> "Obviously, children are not given rules which they can apply. They are merely exposed to a great number of examples of how the syntax works and from these examples they completely automatically acquire principles with which new sentences can be formed that will conform to the universally recognized rules of the game... Words are neither randomly arranged nor confined to unchangeable, stereotyped sequences. At every stage there is a characteristic structure. ... The appearance of language may be thought to be due to an innately mapped-in *program* for behaviour, the exact realization of the program being dependent upon the peculiarities of the (speech) community." (Lenneberg,1960:599-600)

1.4. New Disciplines: Psycholinguistics and Sociolinguistics

Chomsky's theory and the controversies of it shifted the emphasis on to the creative aspect of language users' ability to produce novel sentences and the description of the rule-governed behaviour of language learners stimulated a new and more complex way of looking at language and the development of new experimental techniques for testing it. Psychologists were forced to reconsider their whole approach to the study of language behaviour.

The recognition that language is such a complex and many-sided thing as Chomsky assumed made it impossible to build up an "all embracing theory which brings every aspect of the problem within a single coherent and mutually consistent set of propositions" (Corder,1973;81) and started the process of 'bridge-building' between different disciplines. Chomsky's idea that "the study of language should proceed within the framework of what we might nowadays call 'cognitive psychology'" (Chomsky,1969a) led to the emergence of a new discipline: psycholinguistics. The use of the new term instead of the formerly used 'psychology of language' reflected the real shift from earlier approaches to language behaviour, mostly connected with learning theories and information theory. (Greene,1972:13-14)

The later emergence of another 'hybrid' discipline, sociolinguistics, proved the process described by Corder as an "intense revival in the study of language and its correlation with other sciences" which formed an "unstable constellation of disciplines concerned with language". (Corder, 1973:82). What distinguishes the status of theoretical linguistics from the other approaches lies in its goals i.e. what aspects of language it sets out to describe and explain. (Corder,1973:87)

In the view of Robinett's assumption, i.e. that trends in methodology are determined and characterized by the findings of linguistics and psychology, parallels can be drawn between the linguistic theories and hypotheses of psychology, and trends in language teaching methodology. The direct connection between traditional grammar and the grammar-translation method — analysis of the written literary language with prescriptive grammar rules — is obvious. Structural grammar also had considerable influence on preparing materials for language teaching. The structural, rather than lexical or situational meaning was basic to the development of the pattern or structure drill, as essential form of *audio-lingual method* where certain formal or functional features were isolated. In correspondence with the psychological theory, pattern drills were developed as a technique for building habits in the new language, where the direct influence of the stimulus-response behaviour description can be observed. The same kind of generalizing would fail, however, in the case of the generative-transformational grammar and Chomsky's theory. Although Chomsky is often associated with the *cognitive code-learning method,* the influence of Chomsky's new insight into the nature of language did not produce one prevailing trend in the field of methodology, but having an extensive impact on the study of language as a whole, opened up new prospects for language description, new fields of research which then considerably influenced approaches to foreign language teaching. At the same time, empirical studies launched in the field of second language teaching methodology led rather to an interrelationship between theory and practice than to a simple one-way influence of theory on practice.

2. INFLUENCE OF PSYCHOLINGUISTICS ON SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODOLOGY

2.1. General Views

As a result of the ferment evoked by the contradictions of the two basic linguistic and psychological theories, the interest of linguists and psychologists shifted to new fields of research. The clear distinction made between linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge, i.e. the acceptance that language acquisition is not only one of the general intellectual developments of man, but a unique and genuine capacity; the theory of the innate language acquisition device that proceeds by hypothesis testing gained considerable importance and influenced the research of first language acquisition. The aim of this research undoubtedly was to gain a closer insight into the nature of first language acquisition, but experiments soon proved the relevance of the study of first language acquisition to that of second language learning.

These experiments, carried out by psychologists, linguists and psycholinguists began to rely on the empirical data and experience of the language teacher.

> "Even with respect to general principles, however, the teacher is not asked to accept the authority of science but rather is invited to examine critically the ideas expounded. The professional psychologist has the benefit of relative familiarity with the literature of discipline, but the language teacher has the advantage of insight gained from experience." (Anisfeld,1966:108)

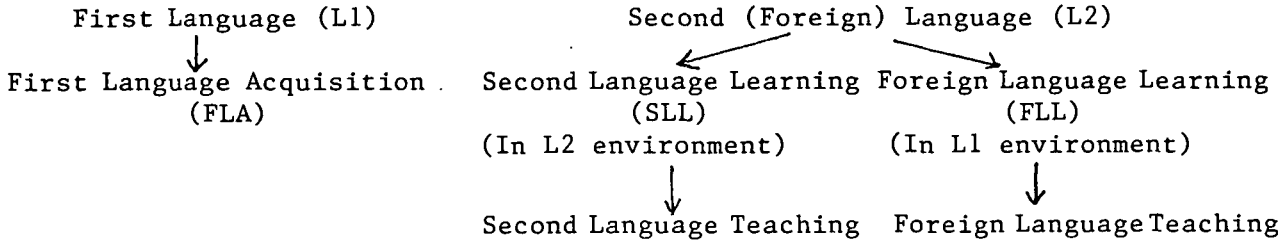
Before introducing the important points of interest in the field of psycholinguistic research, the terminology has to be clarified. There has been no consistent use of terms and distinctions which caused several misinterpretations and misunderstandings. Researchers who attempted to have a closer understanding of the process of second language learning introduced different terminology, so the terms 'second language acquisition', 'second language learning', and 'foreign language learning' might have the same meaning in different articles. For practical reasons we are going to insist on the use of terms as follows.

For the process the child undertakes while acquiring his mother tongue i.e. his native language, the term First Language Acquisition (FLA) will be used, even when authors who use different terminology are in question. (Exceptions are quotations.) (Chomsky and his followers for example are consistent in using *language learning* where they obviously mean language acquisition.) The process when children or adults learn a language which is not their mother tongue, the term Second Language Learning (SLL) will be used.

Further distinctions are often made by many authors between Second Language Learning (SLL) and Foreign Language Learning (FLL). The process which takes place in an environment where the L2 is spoken as L1 by the members of the surrounding speech community is called Second Language Learning. The process which takes place in an environment where the L1 of the language learner is spoken by the surrounding speech community as L1 too, i.e. the second language is spoken only in the classroom, is called Foreign Language Learning (FLL). (Kontra,1979)

As we identify ourselves with this distinction, the term FLL will be used when this process is described separately, as compared or as opposed to SLL, while the term SLL will

also be used as a cover term for both processes if the distinction has no special relevance. The term Second Language Teaching and Foreign Language Teaching will be used with similar considerations. The use of the term Second Language Acquisition will be restricted to areas where the authors are consistent in using this term.



2.2. Second Language Acquisition Research

2.2.1. The Adaptation of Chomsky's Theory to Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Learning

Although Chomsky himself admittedly refused to include the second language learning process in his study and confined his theoretical work to the first language acquisition of children, there have been attempts to draw conclusions from his findings and to apply them directly to second langauge learning. Starting from a strong criticism of structuralist language description and behaviourist learning theory the points of interest were centered around the analogy and differences between FLA and SLL processes. The notion of the innate language acquisition device and its functioning in internalizing the rules of language became a basic idea to the new approaches of language acquisition and language learning processes.

Sol Saporta recognized the crucial difference between FLA and SLL as a 'problem' by trying to apply the Chomskian view of language acquisition to SLL.

> "...the argument that one might facilitate second language acquisition by reproducing in part the first language, cannot, in a sense, be taught at all. Evidence, such as the fact that children exposed to rather different samples of a given language develop very similar linguistic capacities suggest that children are not taught their language but that rather one could not prevent a normal child from acquiring the language of his environment. What makes second language learning a problem is the fact that whatever ability, presumably innate, that the child has which permits him to perform this feat is apparently lost as he matures." (Saporta,1966:85)

He also sees the paradox of theory and practice, but his proposals remain on a highly theoretical level.

> "Language is a rule-governed behaviour, and learning a language involves internalizing the rules. But the ability or inclination to formulate the rules apparently interferes with the performance which is supposed to lead to making the application of the rules automatic. The curious consequence is that linguists whose central concern is precisely the formulation of accurate grammatical statements are limited to 'summaries of behavior.'" (Saporta,1966:86)

Saporta's strong criticism of structuralism and behaviourist language learning theory leads him to the definition of what the language learner must achieve, without giving any suggestions of how it should be achieved:

> "Traditional grammarians more closely approached the aims of language teaching by attempting to match a speaker's ability to understand and produce arbitrarily

selected novel sentences. Their pedagogical failure was in the assumption that such abilities could be taught by the conscious application of the relevant abstract furmulations. Applied linguists have noticed the irrelevance and, at times, the interference of verbalizing such formulations, and some have incorrectly assumed that the appropriate abilities could be achieved solely by judicious performance of carefully selected and ordered examples. Others have been willing to modify the latter procedure to include formulations of some unspecified sort of some syntactic and semantic information. They have, however, failed to make explicit the form, content, and alleged pedagogical function of such formulations, and until they do, the corresponding claims are difficult to evaluate." (Saporta,1966)

Saporta's list of the capacities the langauge learner must possess if he wants to approximate the competence of a native speaker reflects Chomsky's theory:

"1. ability to distinguish grammatical from non-grammatical sentences
2. to produce and comprehend an infinite number of the former
3. the ability to identify syntactically ambiguous sentences and the interrelation of sentences."

(Saporta,1966:82)

Saporta closes his analysis with the recognition that language learning is more complicated than a simple hypothesis testing procedure, and inspite the fact that he does not give any practical solution to the problems, his final view of the importance of parlinguistic factors in developing one's competence has important implications for further research. It foreshadows the emergence of sociolinguistic

studies and resembles later studies in interlanguage, discourse analysis, as well as pragmatics.

> "Specifically, it cannot be the case that learning a a language merely involves successively close approximations to the linguistic performance of some model, since this latter performance includes slips, mistakes, false starts, and a variety of nongrammatical behaviour, which the competent speaker is able to identify as such, and, more important, the corpus to which the learner is exposed is nothing more than some small sample of the linguistic universe of grammatical sentences which ultimately characterize his competence."
>
> (Saporta,1966:83)

2.2.2. *Other Contributions and their Implications for the Language Teacher*

To get a comparatively unbiased view of the state of psycholinguistic research of that age, we have found Susan Houston's survey very useful. (Houston,1972) Her own neutral starting point, namely that "Both stimulus-response and cognitive notions are blended in any realistic description of the learning process" (Houston,1972:26) enable her to give a realistic picture of all developments in psycholinguistics, including minor contributions as well as the evaluation of the major hypotheses based on learning theory and developmental psycholinguistics. Her own conclusions and ideas relating to second language teaching are also valuable contributions to the theoretical and practical findings of psycholinguistics. After a detailed analysis of behaviourism, Houston draws attention to learning theories which she thinks had special bearings on later developmental psycholinguistics.

Gestalt theories, Gestalt laws of perception, describe a framework assumed to be present at the start of any learning or conceptualizing activities. This is either innate or maturationally caused and species specific, i.e. human beings are postulated as able to operate differently with the environments. (Houston,1972:29)

> "A major difference between early stimulus-response theory and Gestalt theories of learning is that the former felt that the possession of the necessary past experience guarantees the solution to the problem, or in other words that organisms always learn from their mistakes and, once having performed correctly, will perform correctly on the next occasion as well. Gestaltists, on the other hand, postulate that although experience clearly facilitates solution, organizations must also be taken into account, since more is generally required than mere information. (Houston,1972:37)

The main law of Gestalt theory, the tendency towards a 'Good Gestalt' which is simple, regular and stable is rooted in the traditional idea of language description, but the recognition of transfer as negative or positive "effect of previous learning on a new learning situation," as well as the idea that "problems are to be solved sensibly, structurally, organically, rather than mechanically, stupidly, or by the running off of prior habits" (Houston,1972:45) show the early recognition of the basic problems of language teaching.

Houston acknowledges the importance of the research work in the field of general psychology, and sacrifices a long discussion to Piaget's work. Piaget's concept of the ego boundary and the establishment of the four stages of mental

development are accepted by the theoreticians of our days, and are referred to as valuable contributions to language acquisition research. (Krashen,1981:6)

Piaget, by observing children talking among themselves, devoted a lot of effort to determining the way in which the child's logic, reasoning and other conceptual processes develop, and how these processes are mirrored in the child's changing use of the language. The recognition that for the child words are much nearer to action and movement than for adults, and that actions are often accompanied with speech is echoed in the 'full bodily response' notion of later methodologists.

The presence of monologues and collective monologues in early stages of language development with an increasing presence of conversation developing in parallel with the child's growing concept of distinctions between himself and others is a point which has been neglected when children's second language learning procedures were directly projected on the foreign language learning situation.

The distinctions between the four major stages of mental development have similar importance:

1. under 2 years: the acquisition of perceptual invariants (objects and movements)
2. from 2 to 7 years: preoperational intuitive thinking characterized by ego-centricism (elementary concepts of space, time and causality, purported, based on his internal notions rather than objective reality)

3. from 7 to 11 years: concrete operational thinking, characterized by verbal syncretism (permanence of objects learnt, genuine equivalences between physical and logical units
4. after 11 years: formal propositional thinking (reason logically, abstract concepts to handle)

This general scheme of mental growth describes the development of maturation, where the child first sees the world as an undifferentiated continuum and then later comes to understand the unchanging nature of objects, boundaries between himself and the rest of the world. (Piaget,1955:151)

The Whorfian hypothesis of cognition is the next theoretical work which in Houston's opinion holds significance in the development of new ideas. In his work Whorf distinguishes language from cognition, and with this challenges the starting point of earlier learning theories.

> "A demonstrated dependence of cognition on language would not only indicate an important source of intercultural divergence and communicational malfunction, it would also carry implications for the effect of verbal persuasion and influence on behaviour. Conversely, if language is shown to be shaped chiefly by cognition, then this may indicate how linguistic operations can be made more efficient through changes in ways of dealing with environmental input." (Whorf,1962:186)

> "..users of markedly different grammars are pointed by their grammars toward different types of observations and different evaluations of externally similar acts of observation, and hence are not equivalent as observers but must arrive at somewhat different views of the world." (Whorf,1962:221)

Houston then summarizes the theory of Vygotsky, whose ideas will be discussed in the next chapter of this thesis. Houston gives a detailed analysis of the *Developmental Approach to Language Learning*. The starting point of this psycholinguistic approach is Chomsky's idea of the innate language acquisition device, modified by Slobin (1968). In Slobin's view the language acquisition device "scans the linguistic input for distinctions which are found in the postulated universal hierarchy of categories, or in other words which are common to all languages. The capacity of developing such categories, rather than the categories are innate." (Slobin,1968:170)

Relying on the findings of developmental psycholinguistics Houston gives her own views about the findings of psycholinguistics in the field of second language learning. She is among the first who makes a distinction between the basically different circumstances of SLL and FLL. In her terms she distinguishes between *'naturally acquired bilingualism'* or *'primary bilingualism'*, as a special case of language acquisition, when two languages are acquired in a natural speech situation either consecutively or concurrently, contrasted to *'secondary bilingualism'*, when one studies a second language formally, as in school. (Houston,1972:204)

Houston then differentiates between two principle systems by which the language learner organizes his two languages; namely *'compound bilingualism'* and *'coordinate bilingualism'*.

> "..coordinate and compound bilingualism are functions of the speaker's own behavior rather than of any genealogical or other linguistic relationship between the languages; the same two languages may be compounded for one speaker and coordinated for another.

> Types of bilingualism also occur irrespective of the learning situation, so that the monolingual studying a second language in school is presumably capable of forming a coordinate system from his first and second languages, which is in fact the goal toward which foreign language teaching is directed." (Houston, 1972:205)

Houston also sees the differences between child's and adult's language learning, deriving her view from the findings of neurophysiology.

The completion of cortical lateralization (11-14 years) is approximately coterminous with the ability to learn a native language. She claims that the language learning of adults, i.e. post-pubertal individuals, is "qualitatively different from the language learning of the child", thus requires a different teaching process.

> "The child goes about learning his first language, he follows the same procedure with other languages learned during childhood as well.
> It is presumed that after the age of eleven or so the brain becomes functionally as well as structurally changed in such a way that it cannot process linguistic input automatically as it previously could." (Houston, 1972:218)

The differences between a child's and an adult's language learning are determined by the physical process, as adults learn languages with a different portion of their brain (i.e. area, pathways or other sets of neural structures) from that with which they learnt their native language. Language in adults is usually fed in and stored as a collection of learned data, put through completely different path-

ways than those used for the native language. This results in a different knowledge of the language, where the adult does not handle the language, he actually does not think in it but merely about it, using his native language to classify concepts in it. (Houston,1972:219)

Houston states that compound vs. coordinate bilingualism are directly opposed to the physiological situation, as *coordinate bilingualism* being neurophysiologically compound, i.e. the speaker can handle his language equally well, he can think in either language, and both languages are of native-like status and are controlled by the same neural area of pathways, while *compound or mixed bilingualism* is neurophysically coordinate or separated, i.e. for the speaker the first language is genuine, he thinks in his first language, about his second, treats it as ordinary learned data, and does not use the same neural equipment to handle the second language. (Houston,1972:219)

Houston's distinctions of child's and adult's second language acquisition, the recognition of differences in circumstances and the introduction of compound and coordinate bilingualism resemble Krashen's Monitor model of language acquisition, (Krashen,1981) and imply a very deep understanding of the complexity of second language acquisition and learning processes.

The most debated question of language teaching methodology, namely the goal of language teaching in the classroom is raised finally in Houston's survey.

> "The goal of modern foreign language teaching is to create, within a limited time, competence in a foreign language approaching that of the native language, or in other words, proficient coordinate bilingualism."

> "Since the topic of applied linguistic theory and methodology is open to discussion from a wide variety of viewpoints, the treatment here will concentrate on two main aspects of it, namely, whether it is in fact feasible to try to create true bilingualism in the classroom." (Houston,1972:215)

She finds the solution for achieving this goal in focussing on linguistic universals and positive transfer of the native language on second language, as well as the positive transfer of second language on third and further languages. She argues that adults *can* learn a foreign language and can even function in it, and this can only be achieved by teaching universal language behaviours "to expand the boundaries of the native language, as it were, and add a group of new elements to it, rather than trying to impart a new language system intact." (Houston,1972:220)

> "The goal of much language instruction is to induce students to form a series of linguistically coordinate systems of their foreign languages, so that each language learned would be a system in itself independent of other foreign languages controlled by the speaker and of his native language as well." (Houston,1972:223)

Instead of encouraging language learners to form a compound system of the second language and third language, with each foreign language referring to the native language, students should be encouraged to operate entirely in foreign languages, which means a new behaviour. This behaviour should be taught and students should learn as many new forms of behaviour as possible in order to be more adaptable to environmental changes. (Houston,1972:223-224)

The final conclusion of Houston's reasoning is deeply rooted in Chomsky's theory and — like so many methodological articles of the age — remains on a theoretical level, without giving any practical solution to the very well spotted problems of second language learning and teaching.

If we suggest — Houston claims — that there is a complicated underlying structure common to all languages, then this "suggests that the structure of the grammar internalized by the learner may be, to a presently quite unexpected degree, a reflection of the general character of his learning capacity rather than the particular course of his experience. It seems not unlikely that the organism brings, as its contribution to acquisition of a particular language, a highly restrictive characterization of a class of generative systems (potential theories) from which the grammar of its language is selected on the basis of the presented linguistic data." (Houston,1972:240)

2.2.3. Soviet Psycholinguists

To gain a complete picture of the state of psycholinguistic development of the age we have to include the important findings of the Soviet psycholinguists, who partly influenced by the achievements of the American linguists and psychologists, partly by criticizing them, contributed significantly to many aspects of theory and practice.

Houston refers to the learning theory of Vygotsky, (Vygotsky, 1962) which considerably influenced the work of Soviet psychologists. In Vygotsky's view thought and language spring from different roots and develop along different lines, but at a certain point thought and language become bound together. (Vygotsky,1962:33; cited in Houston, 1972:200).

Vygotsky's basic idea of language being one "special" act of intellectual activities of men does not differ from other learning theories of the age. He claims, that language and all the other intellectual activities have the same structure and they are closely linked with practice. Intellectual activities are internalized through active practicing and through generalization these activities become skills.

Active practising involves thinking and this is the point where Vygotsky's idea basically contradicts the behaviourist idea of stimulus-response.

B.V. Belyayev (Belyayev,1963) gives a profound analysis of what active practising in foreign language learning means. Belyayev's basic idea about the psychology of foreign language learning is the direct link between language and thought, where language belongs to the second signal system. The aim of foreign language teaching is to enable language learners to 'think' in the foreign language, which can be achieved through 'reasoning' in the foreign language, which is an active and consciously logical representation of thought and speech.

> "The third aspect of teaching, the active and creative mastery of assimilated knowledge and skills — presupposes the activity of reasoning. The teacher must have a good knowledge of the psychological properties of reasoning. As a generalized reflection of objective links and relations, directly connected with the use of language, reasoning is characterized by the following two basic psychological properties: *Firstly*, reasoning occurs only when one comes into collision with some

> new and unaccustomed situation to which it is difficult to adapt oneself adequately. In such a situation one sometimes begins to employ knowledge and skills previously acquired, but soon becomes convinced that the difficulty is not to be overcome by actions with which one has previously familiarized oneself. In other words, the activity of reasoning is always stimulated by a problem situation — i.e. by the presence of a question to which the pupil has no ready answer previously known and learned. *Secondly*, a characteristic of the activity of reasoning is free speculation. As a result of this a person finds the solution to his problems by inventing something new which keeps him to overcome the difficulty created by the presence of a new and unfamiliar situation." (Belyayev,1963:12-13)

With this very progressive idea of the impredictability of speech situation as well as with the recognition of the communicative aspect of language learning, Belyayev goes far ahead of his age. He writes:

> "..schoolchildren study a foreign language with the aim of mastering it in practice and with the aim of making practical use of the language as means of communication and exchanging ideas."

The ultimate aim of language teaching in Belyayev's view is to enable students to think in the foreign language, which cannot be achieved by mechanical repetition, only by 'active reproduction', as the best way of retaining material in the memory. This "requires independent solution of new problems, tasks and difficulties." (Belyayev,1963:190)

> "..the most important point is that students can only acquire a language as a means of communication when it is directly linked with their thinking. Only when the apprehension of speech is accompanied by an immediate understanding of its content, and when students are able at will to use the acquired words and grammatical constructions to express their own thoughts, may one say that they possess the true link between language and thought. To achieve this the language teacher must constantly strive to give a psychological foundation to the process of teaching as a whole, as well as to the individual methods of processing the teaching material." (Belyayev,1963:20)

Belyayev's distinction between the two stages of language learning as 'learning through a medium', and 'direct learning', when there is a direct link between language and thought throws light on many issues of foreign language teaching, like the role of negative transfer, and the qualitative differences in the ways of learning a foreign language.

> "If a person acquires a foreign language through an intermediary (i.e. through translation into the native language) this means that the forms of the foreign language are associated, not with concepts, but with the forms of the native language. In this case it follows that the forms of the foreign language are not secondary, but primary simuli. The foreign language is consequently divorced from thought and therefore loses its essential character, ceasing to be language as a means of communication and mutual understanding, and turning into a system of conventional signs subject to ratiocinative decipherment. The knowledge of a

> foreign language presupposes the formation of temporary nervous links and of a dynamic stereotype on the level of the second signal system, but when translation is used, new temporary links are formed only in the primary signal system, which makes the practical command of a language impossible." (Belyayev,1963:38)

Belyayev's distinction between speech and language and the recognition of the importance of sociocultural factors, the emphasis of the uniqueness of each speech situation are also very progressive ideas:

> "Speech habits do of course exist, but a person's speech is never subsumed by these habits, being always a conscious and creative activity. Speech is created in order to communicate thoughts, which first arise in connection with events and situations as they continually shape themselves in new ways. Using language in his speech a person is never an automaton, but always manifests *creativity of speech*. Speech can only be subdivided into individual *abilities* — the ability to listen, speak, read and write. For ability represents a form of ability which is carried out by a person *for the first time*, always taking into account an unrepeatable conjunction of circumstances and usually on the basis of acquired knowledge and skills. Speech habits are always merely components of speech abilities." (Belyayev,1963:29)

Belyayev's vague notion of the 'feeling of language as a specific intuition' which is present and operates actively does not involve any practical idea of how the language learner can reach the ideal language learning situation, i.e. when he can think in the foreign language. It resembles in many ways Chomsky's innate language acquisition device.

Belyayev's greatest contribution to the theory of foreign language learning process lies in the recognition of the importance of the active practising stage, which can lead to a command of the foreign language to an extent that it can be used effectively for communication. The practical proposition of imaginative, speculative, and problem solving activities — which involve the unpredictability of real speech situations — as being the best to stimulate 'reasoning' and thinking in the foreign language have great value for the language teachers of our days.

A.A. Leontyev applies the theoretical findings of Vygotsky and Belyayev to the practice of language teaching. He criticizes the behaviourist idea of language learning, but also points out the inadequacy of Chomsky's notion of performance. Following Belyayev's ideas, he emphasizes the importance of the 'hierarchy of different types of situations' (Leontyev,1973:35). His notion of 'speech acts' stresses that varieties of speech are caused not only by linguistic but also by other factors, like the given speech situation, the linguistic context, individual differences in speech habits, sociolinguistic factors, functional and stylistic factors, interpersonal relationships and affective-emotional factors. (Leontyev,1973:32)

> "..egy adott szituációból több lehetséges kiút van, azonban csak egy megoldás realizálódhat, vagyis az embernek az egyik megoldás valószínűségét kell 100%-sá, és az összes többi megoldásét nullával egyenlővé tenni. (Leontyev,1973:29)

The learning process itself takes place — according to Vygotsky's theory — through automatization, but not as a stimulus-response reaction:

> "..a múlt tapasztalat valószínűség strukturája ilyen értelmezésben nem valamely stimulus múltbeli gyakori megjelenésével, hanem a szervezet azon reakciójának gyakoriságával kapcsolatos, amelyek ezekre a stimulusokra válaszol." (Leontyev,1973:28)

Leontyev attributes great importance to the listening skill in a foreign language. His recognition is projected on the linguistic input hypothesis and acquisition theory of Krashen. (Krashen,1981)

> "Az idegen nyelvi beszéd hallgatásának éppen az a legfőbb rendeltetése, hogy egy adott beszédelem valószínűségének helyes, aktuális értékeléséhez a nélkülözhetetlen tapasztalat felhalmozódjék." (Leontyev,1973:29)

As to the practice of foreign language teaching Leontyev stresses the importance of 'active and communicative' speech, and the priority of conversation over other kinds of speech in teaching.

> "Az oktatást valószínűleg az aktív és kommunikativ beszéddel, mint a normális beszédszituációra legjellemzőbb beszédfajtával kell kezdeni, amelyből a továbbiakban le lehet vezetni a többi beszédfajtát."
> "Az érintkezési formák közül természetesen a szóbeli és a párbeszéd forma az elsődleges." (Leontyev,1973:20)

Although the theoretical work of Soviet psychologists and linguists had direct practical implications, the practical solutions proposed for the teachers did not spread. Except for a few experiments, the language classes continued to be controlled by the 'audio-visual method' as being a progressive method opposed to the grammar translation method, which

still was widely practised in language classes of the 60s and 70s. There were no textbooks, coursebooks and clear-cut ideas for teaching methods, and the use of electronic aids, i.e. tape recorder and projector was postulated as a modern 'method', irrespective of the fact that the proposed way of using these aids was basically rooted in a theory which had been bypassed both by psychologists and linguists.

2.2.4. *Theory and Method: Humanistic Approaches*

An attempt to establish a synthesis of the findings of psychology and second language acquisition reserach and to find a 'method' for teaching languages was made by Earl W. Stevick (Stevick,1976). By shifting stress on the psychological factors of the language learning process, Stevick summarizes the findings of the research and gives a profound analysis of verbal memory and motivation, as the most important psychological factors of second language learning.

The analysis of the numerous experiments carried out to test the memorization processes of items, relationships, 'chunking', the mechanism of retrieval in relation with short-term and long-term memory and in connection with the cognitive activity of the learner leads Stevick to the conclusion that not the nature of the language material but the way of their use should be changed. The involvement of the whole person and 'depth' are seen as the solution of language teaching, which have priority over the communicative value of activities.

> "If communication means 'making a difference,' then a single speech act may communicate on a number of different levels at once. Or the same utterance which on its 'fact-fict' surface is totally noncommunicative

> (e.g. a sentence in a substitution drill) may carry important meanings (i.e. make important differences to speaker and hearers) on deeper levels. The fact that both speaker and hearers may be unaware of these meanings does not alter the truth of this statement." (Stevick,1976:36)
> "My guess is that an increase in 'communicativeness' enhances retention and improves pedagogical effectiveness to the extent that it increases the average 'depth' of the experience, but only to that extent."

In defense of drill and traditional grammar exercises Stevick gives a long analysis of the nature of drills from a 'transactional point of view.' (Stevick,1976:65-80) Drills are

> "where there is at any time only one student response that will be accepted as entirely satisfactory, while an exercise may have two or more acceptable answers." (Stevick,1976:65)

With extending the possibilities of drills with an active and creative use Stevick believes in reaching 'conscious reasoning', similarly to Belyayev's idea.

Stevick's approach to the solution of the problems of language teaching starts in each case from the personality of the learner and that of the teacher, where the nature of relationship of the participants, i.e. learner and teacher, and the relationship of learner and language material are to be taken into account. The involvement of the whole person in the process of language teaching is the key to the success of language learning, and the methods proposed by him give way to a number of trends which have had great influence on language teaching and are usually covered under the headword 'humanistic approaches' to language teaching.

Lozanov's Suggestopaedia, Gattegno's Silent Way and Community Language Learning are all based on the ideal, i.e. very close and intimate relationship between teacher and learners, as well as on the relationship between the individual members of the learning group. This ideal relationship results in a highly motivated language learner, geared by his integrative motivation.

Caleb Gattegno's 'Silent Way' — with its misleading name — encourages language learners to think and say the appropriate sentences to accomapany actions performed under the guidance of the teacher. The 'silent spaces' between utterances are filled with the student's activity of thinking in the language. He is learning, as he mentally repeats and recalls words and phrases and puts them together to form appropriate sentences. Language learners follow the teacher's instructions as well as their fellow students' with keen attention, and strive to grasp the meaning as well as the form of utterances. (Stevick, 1976:145-147)

Community Language Learning consists of two basic steps: investment and reflection. In the investment phase, the learner commits himself, as much as he is able and willing, as he engages in a conversation with other members of the learning community. In the reflection phase, the learner stands back and looks at what he, as a part of the community, has done in the investment phase. As he does so, he remains a member of the community. (Stevick,1976:126)

Lozanov's Suggestopaedia aims basically at getting around the antisuggestive barriers and help the students to achieve the childlike openness, plasticity and creativity that are characteristics of 'infantilisation'. The principle material for suggestopaedia is conventional dialogue, but the atmosphere

of the learning process differs considerably from traditional language classes. Trust in the teacher and trust in one's own power form the basic concepts of this method. (Stevick,1976: 157-158)

In a later article (Stevick,1980) Stevick gives his reasons for preferring the Silent Way and Community Language Learning as the 'right methods' to others. With the strong emphasis on the learners' personality and psychological needs, Stevick claims that the need for "security, followed by needs for a feeling of belonging, for esteem and status, and for 'self-actualization' is the most basic need the language learner brings into the classroom." (Stevick,1980:57) The two methods he proposes accommodate these needs at a high level.

This strong stress on the psychological factors that influence the language learning process becomes a fundamental idea of later hypotheses and Stevick himself has had a considerable impact on the research and theory of second language acquisition. These 'humanistic' ideas also have had a great influence on the practical ideas of teaching and seem to have a pertaining importance in the methodology of our days.

3. INFLUENCE OF SOCIOLINGUISTICS ON SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODOLOGY

The adaptation of linguistic and psycholinguistic theories had enormous influence on the course of studies and experiments carried out in the field of second language acquisition research, but failed to result in a sidely accepted methodology accounting for the new findings.

On the other hand, the rapid growth of sociolinguistic studies, with particular interest in language as it is used for communication within a social group had a direct influence on teaching methodology, as well as on all fields of language study.

One of the basic issues of modern linguistics was the shift from the structural patterns of written language to those of spoken language. In traditional grammar written language was the basis for grammatical studies. The development of modern technology, the possibility of recording speech directed the linguist's attention towards the analysis of speech data. The divergence of oral communication from accepted patterns of written language was theoretically established by Ferdinand de Saussure who distinguished two aspects of language: *parole* and *langue*.

Parole is affected by the purpose of speakers, their emotions at the time when they are expressing themselves, or the circumstances of utterance. From samples of parole (spoken or written) can be abstracted the system of language habits of a whole social group "the social side of speech, outside the individual who can never create or modify it by himself." (Saussure,1959:14, cited in Rivers,1968)

Modern linguists account for this distinction and it becomes a vital point of later approaches.

3.1. Competence-Performance

One of the basic points of Chomsky's theory lies in a distinction of *'competence'* and *'performance'*:

> "We thus make a fundamental distinction between *Competence* (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and *performance*, the actual use of language in concrete situation." (Chomsky,1969c:13)

The sphere of performance is excluded from the linguistic analysis of generative-transformational grammar which "purports to be a description of the ideal speaker-hearer's intrinsic competence". (Chomsky,1969c:14)

> "To avoid what has been a continuing misunderstanding, it is perhaps worthwhile to reiterate that a generative grammar is not a model for a speaker-hearer. It attempts to characterize in the most neutral possible terms the knowledge of the language that provides the basis for actual use of language by a speaker-hearer. When we speak of grammar as generating a sentence with a certain structural description, we mean simply that the grammar assigns this structural descirption to the sentences. When we say that a sentence has a certain derivation with respect to a particular generative grammar, we say nothing about how the speaker-hearer might proceed, in some practical or efficient way, to construct such a derivation. These questions belong to the theory of language use — the theory of performance.
> No doubt, a reasonable model of language use will incorporate, as a basic component, the generative grammar that expresses the speaker-hearer's knowledge of the language, but this generative grammar does not, in itself, prescribe the character of functioning of a perceptual model or a model of speech production." (Chomsky,1969c:17)

> "To study actual linguistic performance, we must consider the interaction of a variety of factors, of which the underlying competence of the speaker-hearer is only one. In this respect, study of language is not different from empirical investigation of other complex phenomena." (Chomsky,1969c:13)

Chomsky formulates the scope of linguistics as it follows:

> "Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance." (Chomsky,1969c:13)

The distinction and the interaction between competence and performance in the Chomskian view has been debated and challenged by many linguists ever since its emergence, and the notions have undergone considerable changes in the course of studies. Leaving the study of performance almost untouched, Chomsky directed the focus of attention of other linguists both on the performance aspect of language and made them reconsider the notions of competence and performance. Neil Smith and Deidre Wilson in their survey of Chomsky's Revolution claim that

> "to say that there is a distinction between competence and performance is not to deny that there is an intimate connection between the two. Perceptual strategies are often based on rules of grammar, and, if they are used often enough, may themselves actually *become* rules of grammar." (Smith,1979:46)

They also argue that the possibility for considering the distinction between competence and performance as merely the distinction between less and more abstract rules of performance is open to scientists. However, they do not persue this 'reasonable alternative', as they

> "have never seen a fully coherent outline of theory based on a single notion of performance, which could account in an adequate way for the facts which can be accounted for in terms of the competence-performance distinction." (Smith,1979:48)

Robin Campbell and Roger Wales criticize Chomsky's statement of the doctrine of innate ideas. They argue that Chomsky and any of the psychologists influenced by him have failed to give sufficient attention to the environmental factors of language.

> "..it is our belief that no real theoretical understanding of the acquisition of syntax will be obtained unless, paradoxical as this may seem, the methodological distinction between *competence* and *performance* drawn by Chomsky (the man who, more than any other, has shown the shallowness, indeed the irrelevance of almost all behaviourist accounts of language acquisition) is drastically revised. We will now indicate how and why we think this distinction should be revised." (Campbell,1970:245)

They accept a 'weak sense of competence' contrasted to Chomsky's 'stronger notion of competence':

> "This is the sense in which competence in any sphere is identified with capacity or ability, as opposed to actual performance, which may only imperfectly reflect underlying capacity." (Campbell,1979:246)

Campbell and Wales distinguish between competence$_1$ as a weaker sense of linguistic competence, and competence$_2$, as a stronger sense of linguistic competence. Finding these two terms insufficient for their hypothesis, they introduce the notion of competence$_3$, "the ability to produce or understand utterances which are not so much grammatical, but more important, appropriate to the context in which they are made." (Campbell,1970:247)

Accepting the creative aspect of language use, they emphasize the importance of contextual factors in an adequate description of the psychology of language. The introduction of this rather social aspect into the study approached basically from the point of view of cognitive psychology is remarkable and foreshadows the ultimate reconciliation of the psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic approaches.

Campbell and Wales eventually introduce the terms 'grammatical competence' corresponding to competence$_2$ and 'communicative competence', corresponding to competence$_3$.

The questions of what grammar should be based on and what linguists should encounter in their studies is often raised by other linguists as one of the basic points of linguistic study. Halliday for example claims that

> "Linguistics is not as a rule concerned with the description of particular speech events on individual occasions (although it is possible to write a theoretical grammar of just one instance if the need arises: it usually does not). It is concerned rather with the description of speech acts, or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus. Here we shall not need to draw a

> distinction between an idealized knowledge of a language and its actualized use: between 'the code' and 'the use of the code' or between 'competence' and 'performance'. Such a dichotomy runs the risk of being either unnecessary or misleading: unnecessary if it is just another name for the distinction between what we have been able to describe in the grammar and what we have not, and misleading in any other interpretation." (Halliday,1970:145)

Halliday introduces the three grammatically relevant language functions, the 'ideational', the 'interpersonal' and the 'textual', which obviously include the performance aspect of language description.

3.2. Interlanguage Studies

First language acquisition researchers, with a strong interest in syntax, observed that young children seemed to pass through a series of *interim grammar* of increasing degrees of complexity, as they tested hypotheses about the form of the language they learnt. This approach influenced second language acquisition researchers, and the term *interlanguage* came into use to describe the kind of language a second language learner is using at a given time, i.e. his idea about the new language. This interlanguage is the product of hypotheses the second language learner is testing about the form of the grammar of the new language, which is deviated in certain ways from that of the native speaker. (Selinker,1972 cited in Rivers 1981:81)

> "Lack of comprehension on the part of the hearer, or inability to draw coherent meaning from a text, would, it seemed, lead the learner to reject one hypothesis and develop another, thus modifying the interim grammar which had produced the aberrant utterance or interpretation." (Rivers,1981:81)

This approach to the interim grammar of language learners manifested itself in the three main fields of research: analysis of positive and negative transfer, error analysis, and morpheme studies. All the three fields of research focussed on the establishment of similarities and differences between FLA, SLL and FLL processes. All fields have proved to be areas of controversy, where even results of experiments could maintain completely contradicting ideas. Most of the L_2 research concentrated on the acquisition of a second language by young children in informal setting, or in bilingual classes, with some investigation of adult second langauge learning. (Bailey,1974:236, cited in Rivers, 1981:80)

The dramatic change caused by this course of studies in the language classroom practice is that teachers slowly began to realize that errors in second language production are indicators of the progress; and interim grammars can be exploited as guides to the incorrect hypotheses their students had formed. The analysis of errors can help teachers and researchers to reveal the strategies the language learners use while learning the second language.

Up to that point language classroom situations had been mainly structured so that the students would not make errors. When errors become accepted as integrally involved in the learning process and the possibilities of error analysis for scientific investigations were recognized as invaluable, the role of language learners both in the learning-teaching process and in scientific experiments changed.

This recognition also resulted in a change in the language classroom: the introduction of 'situational' exercises in the FLL classrooms as the first radical step towards a non-

behaviourist teaching methodology allowed language learners more freedom than drills and accepted mistakes and errors in the language production.

3.3. Hymes's Notion of Communicative Competence

The recognition that the social aspect of language description is to be included into the theory of language acquisition is connected with the name of D.H. Hymes. The original form of his pioneer paper about 'communicative competence' was delivered at a conference on language development among disadvantaged children. In the first section of his paper Hymes claims that there is a discrepancy between theory and practice and emphasizes the need for the practical findings of pedagogy.

> "Practical work however, must have an eye on the current state of theory, for it can be guided or misguided, encouraged or discouraged by what it takes that state to be. Moreover, the language development of children has particular pertinence just now for theory. The fundamental theme of this paper is that the theoretical and the practical problems converge.
> It is not that there exists a body of linguistic theory that practical research can turn to and has only to apply. It is rather that work motivated by practical needs may help build the theory that we need." (Hymes,1971:5)

Hymes's main arguments are directed against Chomsky's view of the speech community as homogeneous. Hymes points out the limitations of a theory which cannot cope with the differential knowledge of the speaker-listeners:

> "The limitations of the perspective appear when the image of the unfolding, mastering, fluent child is set beside the real children in our schools. The theory must seem, if not irrelevant, then at best a doctrine of poignancy: poignant too, because the theory, so powerful in its own realm, cannot on its terms cope with the difference. To cope with the realities of children as communicating beings requires a theory within which sociocultural factors have an explicit and constitutive role: and neither is the case." (Hymes,1971:6)

Such a theory, Hymes claims, necessarily sees acquisition of competence as "essentially independent of sociocultural features, requiring only suitable speech in the environment of the child to develop." (Hymes,1971:7) Chomsky's theory of performance is one sector which might have a specific sociocultural content, but the Chomskian concept of performance is inadequate for making the sociocultural factors inherent within the theory. Chomsky's theory of performance is equated with a theory of language use, which is essentially concerned with sychological by-products of the analysis of grammar, and not with social interaction.

> "When the notion of performance is introduced as 'the actual use of language in concrete situations', it is immediately stated that only under the idealization quoted could performance directly reflect competence, and that in actual fact it obviously could not. ...While performance is something of a residual category for theory, clearly its most salient connotation is that of imperfect manifestation of underlying system." (Hymes, 1971:7)

Hymes argues that the failure to provide an explicit place for sociocultural features in Chomsky's theory is not accidental.

> "The restriction of competence to the notions of a homogeneous community, perfect knowledge, and independence of sociocultural factors does not seem just a simplifying assumption, the sort that any scientific theory must make. If that were so, then some remark to that effect might be made; the need to include a sociocultural dimension might be mentioned; the nature of such inclusion might even be suggested. Nor does the predominant association of performance with imperfection seem accidental. Certainly any stretch of speech is an imperfect indication of the knowledge that underlies it.
>
> For users that share the knowledge, the arrangement might be thought of as efficient. And if one uses one's intuition as to speech, as well as to grammar, one can see that what to grammar is imperfect, or unaccounted for, may be the artful accomplishment of a social act or the patterned spontaneous evidence of problem solving and conceptual thought. These things might be acknowledged, even if not taken up. (Hymes, 1971:7-8)
>
> ...It takes the absence of a place for sociocultural factors, and the linking of performance to imperfection, to disclose an ideological aspect to the theoretical standpoint. It is, if I may say so, rather a Garden of Eden view. Human life seems divided between grammatical competence, and ideal innately-derived sort of power, and performance, an exigency out into a fallen world. Of this world, where meanings may be won be the sweat of the brow, and communication achieved in labor little is said. The controlling image is of abstract,

> isolated individual, almost an unmotivated cognitive mechanism, not, except incidentally a person in a social world." (Hymes,1971:8)

After listing numerous examples for the exsitence of 'differential competence' within a 'heterogeneous speech community,' Hymes stresses the importance of the systematic analysis of actual speech events. He uses the linguistic data of Bloomfield, Labov and Cazden, but argues that neither the structuralist, nor the transformational-generative approach is adequate for a coherent language description. His own approach includes a social approach, where social context or speech events are also considered.

> "The linguist's own intuitions of underlying knowledge prove difficult to catch and to stabilize for use (and of course are not available for languages or varieties he does not himself know). If analysis is not to be reduced to explication of a corpus, or debauch into subjectivity, then the responses and judgements of members of the community whose language is analysed must be utilized — and not merely informally or *ad hoc*, but in some explicit, systematic way. In particular, since every response is made in some context, control of the dependence of judgements and abilities on context must be gained."
>
> "In sum, if one analyses the language of a community as if it should be homogeneous, its diversity trips one up around the edges. If one starts with analysis of the diversity, one can isolate the homogeneity that is truly there." (Hymes,1971:12)
>
> "Within the developmental matrix in which knowledge of the sentences of a language is acquired, children also acquire knowledge of a set of ways in which sentences are used. From a finite experience of speech acts and

> their interdependence with sociocultural features, they develop a general theory of the speaking appropriate in their community, which they employ, like other forms of tacit cultural knowledge (competence) in conducting and interpreting social life." (Hymes,1971:16)

He argues that the notions of competence and performance need redefinition, in which redefinition the contrast is between 'the actual' and 'the underlying'. This distinction offers a more general concept of competence compared to Chomsky's idea, which basically refers to grammatical competence.

> "I should take *competence* as the most general term for the capabilities of a person. (This choice is in the spirit, if at present against the latter, of the concern in linguistic theory for underlying capability.) Competence is dependent upon both (tacit) *knowledge* and (ability for) *use*. *Knowledge* is distinct, then, both from competence (as its part) and from systemic possibility (to which its relation is an empirical matter.) (Hymes,1971:19)
> "The specification of *ability for use* as part of competence allows for the role of noncognitive factors, such as motivation, as partly determining competence. In speaking of competence, it is especially important not to separate cognitive from affective, and volitive factors, so far as the impact of theory on educational practice is concerned: but also with regard to reserach design and explanation." (Hymes,1971:20)
> "The concept of 'performance' will take on great importance, insofar as the study of communicative competence is seen as an aspect of what from another angle may be called the ethnography of symbolic forms — the study of the variety of genres, narration, dance, drama, song, instrumental music, visual art, that interrelate

> with speech in the communicative life of a society, and in terms of which the relative importance and meaning of speech and language must be assessed." (Hymes,1971:21)

Hymes distinguishes four basic sectors of communicative competence of which grammatical competence is only one.

The four questions which arise in the description of language are:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally *possible;*
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is *feasible* in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is *appropriate* (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually *performed,* and what its doing entails. (Hymes,1971:19)

Hymes did not deal with the problems of second language learning but with introducing this new and broader concept of competence which includes both cognitive and affective factors he took a major step in the scientific development, as well as in the second language learning and teaching practice.

3.4. Language Teaching Objectives

As we have seen in Houston's survey, the main objective of second language learning was defined in the terms of linguistic competence by the psycholinguists of the 60s; i.e. the aim set for language-teachers was described as to enable language learners to achieve a competence similar to that of the native speakers. The process of language learning was characterized by the internalization of grammar rules, so that they can be applied rapidly and effortlessly.

On the level of grammaticality one basic step was taken, however; namely the inadequacy of drills based on the behaviourist idea of learning was recognized and the importance of the active practising phase in language learning, as well as the need for the link between language and thinking were accepted.

With Hymes's re-evaluation of the notion of competence and performance, with the introduction of the social aspect of language description, the course of studies both in the field of linguistics and in language acquisition research changed dramatically, which — unlike the psycholinguistic research — had direct and almost immediate impact on foreign language teaching methodology.

PART II: THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

1. NEW FIELDS OF STUDY AND RESEARCH

1.1. Theory and the Communicative Aspect of Language

Transformational-generative grammar shared one fundamental characteristic with structural linguistics: it is the importance given to the study of language structure. In Chomsky's model syntax remained central, and however much this model changed, the aim and techniques of linguistic study, i.e. the concern with syntactic structure remained. This is often claimed to be the reason for the fact that transformational-generative grammar, so revolutionary in linguistics, had such little effect on language teaching. The most it could offer was only alternative strategies for teaching grammar — new ways of teaching the same thing. (Brumfit,1979:3)

The reaction against the view of language as a set of structures manifested itself in a reaction towards a view of language as communication, and this immediately had wide ranging effects both on different fields of language study and on language teaching practice itself. The latter has crystallized in what is nowadays called the 'Communicative Approach' to language teaching, which embodies a complex trend in language-teaching methodology, including a wide range of varieties in basic ideas and interpretations.

As introduced in part one, language teaching, as a practical field of language studies draws on insights from many disciplines. In this part of our thesis we confine the discussion to the theoretical issues which are directly concerned with language teaching, with occasional reference to the relevant developments in the field of sociolinguistics, philosophy and linguistics. The major scope of investigation

in all fields has been centered around the 'double level of meaning', or 'use' and 'usage', distinguishing the rules of 'use' and the rules of 'communication'. Sociolinguistic research has been carried out in the fields of ethnography, of speaking, ethnomethodology and anthropology. (Hymes,1971, Gumperz,1970,1975)

In the area of philosophy the work of Austin and Searle has to be mentioned. (Austin,1962;Searle,1969) The indirect influence of Speech Act Theory on communicative language teaching has been considerable.

Halliday's Sociological Semantics (Halliday,1973) which placed emphasis on meaning and use from a linguistic point of view is a valuable contribution with a special influence on syllabus design. Directly relevant to language teaching is the work done in the field of discourse analysis. (Sinclair and Coulthard,1975)

Growing out of the basic findings of these research areas, theories of linguistic communication have been established and a new branch of linguistics, *pragmatics* has gained importance. The domain of this new area of linguistic research is still debated and the definition of what pragmatics involves in its investigations is still open to discussion. (Fraser,1983) The description of what pragmatics attempts to cover is formulated by Candlin (1983) as it follows:

> "Now pragmatics is a study which is relative to particular speakers in particular events, it is context-sensitive and must take account of the varying communicative values, more or less implicit, in what people say. It is, in short, a study which calls for principles rather than rules, at least in the categorical sense. This essential relativeness, this constraint by

> principle, invests pragmatics with the constant potential to be an *explanatory* rather than merely *descriptive* science. Any pragmatic account contains the possibility of explanation of how, in that society and that culture, in this or that speech event and activity type, participants value utterances in various ways and have their own utterances variously valued. In terms of a programme of research, therefore, we can record what people say and provide a linguistic or, as stressed here, a pragmatic description, or we can seek to offer an explanation of why they say what they say, why they mean X by uttering Y, by making a connection through an explanatory pragmatics, with participant ideologies, systems of values and beliefs." (Candlin,1983:IX)

To draw a convenient boundary in the vast literature of communicative language teaching (CLT) has been a problem. Even by excluding the detailed discussion of these valuable and primary contributions to the theory of communicative language teaching it has been difficult to select which of the constantly changing views have significance to the language teacher. The choice of points for discussion in this thesis does not intend to imply that CLT has been responsive to these areas only. The main areas this thesis focuses on, have, however, special practical implications for the language teacher, e.g. *syllabus design*, as the background to teaching, *interlanguage communication* as a new factor in designing both research work and classroom activities. Investigating the findings of these areas lead us finally to the discussion of one kind of teaching techniques and its potentials for CLT.

1.2. Communication as the Central Issue of Language Teaching

The urge of theoreticians to shift the communicative aspect of language into the centre of language teaching was paralleled with the demands of language teachers who recognized the new needs of language learners and attempted to meet the new requirements of language teaching.

The need for learning and knowing foreign languages has become an integral part of education of people all over the world, and the status of English in all fields of life, politics, economics, business, education and culture has become exceptional in the second half of our century. The need for courses that provide fast progress and immediate results has increased and as language teaching had become a business, language teachers and course designers have put a lot of effort into finding effective ways and methods for reaching these goals. Results, however, have proved to be less promising than hopes and the complexity of language learning has revealed more critical points than ever.

The world 'communicative' has become a fashionable key-word, and almost any new idea or contribution to language teaching, however small it might be, which entered methodology under this label arose interest until recently, when the overuse of the word 'communicative' might have unpleasant connotations both for language teachers and learners.

The new objective, explicitly expressed or just being hidden behind all contributions of communicative language teaching i.e. to teach language learners how to 'communicate' in a foreign language has inspired both researchers and language

teachers to develop new ways and methods for attaining the new goal, and the dramatic change in the practice of language teaching is an achievement which has been recognized even by scrutinizing experts.

1.2.1. Definition of the Term 'Communication'

Before going into details about the issues of CLT the term 'communication' and 'communicative' should be clarified. Canale, synthetizing the aspects of current discussions defines communication with the following characteristics:

a.) it is a form of social interaction, and is therefore normally acquired and used in social interaction;
b.) it involves a high degree of unpredictability and creativity in form and message;
c.) it takes place in discourse and sociocultural contexts which provides constraints on appropriate language use and also clues as to correct interpretations of utterances;
d.) it is carried out under limiting psychological and other conditions such as memory constraints, fatigue and distractions;
e.) it always has a purpose (for example, to establish social relations, to persuade, or to promise)
f.) it involves authentic, as opposed to textbook-contrived language;
g.) it is judged as successful or not on the basis of actual outcomes. (For example, communication could be judged successful in the case of a non-native English speaker who was trying to find the train station in Toronto, uttered 'How to go train' to a passer-by, and was given directions to the train station.) (Canale,1983:3-4)

"Communication is also understood as the exchange and negotiation of information between at least two individuals through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, oral and written/visual modes, and production and comprehension processes. Information is assumed to consist of conceptual, sociocultural, affective and other content. ... Furthermore, ... such information is never permanently worked out nor fixed but is constantly changing and qualified by such factors as further information, context of communication, choice of language forms, and non-verbal behaviour. In this sense communication involves the continuous evaluation and *negotiation* of meaning on the part of the participants. ... Finally, it is assumed ... that authentic communication involves a 'reduction of uncertainty' on behalf of the participants: for example, a speaker asking a (non-rhetorical) question will be uncertain as to the answer, but this uncertainty will be reduced when an answer is provided. Note that although such uncertainty can be reduced at a given level of information, it does not seem likely that uncertainty can be eliminated at all levels in any authentic communication. One may speculate that ease of communication increases to the extent that uncertainty is reduced at all levels of information." (Canale,1983:4)

1.2.2. Communicative Competence

Based on Hymes's reinterpretation of competence, Canale rephrases 'communicative competence', the basic concept of CLT:

"It is important to stress again that communicative competence refers to both knowledge and skill in using this knowledge when interacting in actual communication.

> Knowledge refers here to what one knows (consciously and unconsciously) about the language and about the aspects of communicative language use: skill refers to how well one can perform this knowledge in actual communication." (Canale,1983:5)

Canale classifies and describes four areas as components of communicative competence, relying his distinctions mainly on Hymes's findings: (Canale 1981,1983)

Grammatical competence, concerned with the mastery of the language code itself.

Sociolinguistic competence including sociocultural rules to the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purpose of the interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction

Discourse competence concerns mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different genres. By genre is meant the type of text: for example, oral and written narrative, an argumentative essay, a scientific report, a business letter, and a set of instructions — each representing a different genre. Unity of a text is achieved through *cohesion* in form and *coherence* in meaning.

Strategic competence is composed of mastery of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action for two main reasons: (a) to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to limiting conditions in actual communication (e.g. momentary inability to recall an idea or grammatical form) or to insufficient competence in one

or more of the other areas of communicative competence and (b) to enhance the effectiveness of communication (e.g. deliberately slow and soft speech for rhetorical effect). (Canale,1983:6-11)

1.3. The Language Learner

One of the crucial points of methodology is the aspect from which the language teaching process is seen. The focus on the communicative aspect of language resulted explicitly in the shift of emphasis from a preoccupation with *teaching* towards the study of *learning*, and an equally important shift from the *teacher* towards the *learner* of the language.

Early manifestation of this shift is expressed in the extensive psycholinguistic studies of second language acquisition and learning processes, the description of attitudes and motivation, speech and memory processes, and the investigation of other factors, like age and affective factors, which are concerned with the language learners' contribution to the language learning process.

The linguistic study concerned with second language acquisition and learning was directed on two main fields: (a) the linguistic input of language learners and (b) the linguistic output of language learners. Based on the theoretical findings of Speech Act Theory, Discourse Analysis, Pragmatics, and Sociological Semantics the investigation focused on the restructuring and new presentation of the language in coursebooks, and the design of language teaching materials and syllabuses. The language that the language learner is exposed to in the language classroom has also been analysed.

The main preoccupation of these studies was to reveal the differences between the language presented to language learners and that of real language situations. The new findings, like structuring the teaching material on discourse units instead of linguistic units, i.e. on utterances instead of sentences, the introduction of 'authentic' language material into coursebooks have reflected the strive for eliminating these differences. Studies in the linguistic output of learners have launched the extensive investigations in the field of interlanguages, as linguistic systems and as phases of the learning process, with special focus on interlanguage communication, the study of how language learners use their interlanguage systems in interaction. Grammatical morpheme studies and error analysis belong to the two first aspects of interlanguage studies, while revealing communication strategies and the analysis of their use during the language learning process reflect the central point of interest, namely how language learners can achieve the capability of communicating effectively in the target language.

2. BACKGROUND TO TEACHING

2.1. Discourse as Basis for Teaching Material

In the course of different trends of language teaching the sentence as the basic and self contained unit remained in the centre of teaching, even if the sentences appeared in context, strung together in dialogues and reading passages. The shift of emphasis from syntactic rules towards the rules of communication resulted in the necessary shift from sentence, as a syntactic unit to utterances as units of discourse.

To take discourse into account by planning coursebooks and designing syllabuses became a basic concept of communicative language teaching. Widdowson (1979) claims that language teachers have paid little attention to the way sentences are used in combination to form stretches of connected discourse.

> "Basically, the language teaching unit is the sentence as a formal linguistic object. The language teacher's view of what constitutes knowledge of a language is essentially the same as Chomsky's: knowledge of the syntactic structure of sentences, and of the transformational relations which hold between them. Sentences are seen as paradigmatically rather than syntagmatically related. Such a knowledge 'provides the basis for actual use of language by the speaker-hearer' (Chomsky,1965:9). The assumption that the language teacher appears to make is that once this basis is provided, then the learner will have no difficulty in dealing with the actual use of language: that is to say, that once the competence is acquired, performance will take care of itself." (Widdowson,1979:49)

Referring to the findings of Harris and Labov (Harris,1952, Labov,1970) Widdowson argues that the linguistic developments in discourse analysis - "investigations into the way sentences are put to communicative use in the performing of social actions" and in discourse, 'the use of sentences' (Widdowson,1979:52) have important implications for the language teacher.

Relying on Halliday's findings (Halliday,1970) Widdowson distinguishes 'grammatical cohesion' and 'rhetorical coherence' of utterances in the performance of acts of communication.

He offers two ways of looking at language beyond the limit of the sentence.

> "One way sees it as text, a collection of formal objects held together by patterns of equivalences or frequencies or by cohesive devices. The other way sees language as discourse, a use of sentences to perform acts of communication which cohere into larger communicative units, ultimately establishing a rhetorical pattern, which characterizes the piece of language as a whole, as a kind of communication. Both approaches to the description of language have their purposes, and if I have sometimes appeared to be recommending the latter at the expense of the former, this is only to restore the balance for language teaching, which should, in my view, be as much concerned with discourse as with text. What is important is that we should recognize the limitations of a particular approach to analysis, and not be too easily persuaded that it provides us with the only valid characterization of language in use." (Widdowson:1979:58)

In another article Widdowson deals with the direct implications of the use of discourse in language teaching. (Widdowson,1978) He critisizes the unnatural and irrealistic language used in the foreign language classroom and in coursebooks, which is not discourse, but 'language put on display'. The 'call words' which are used to manipulate sentence patterns serve as purpose, not as means, and the quality of real communication is lost. This kind of language knowledge does not lead to a knowledge of 'actual communication'.

> "It is likely to be easier to extend a knowledge of use into new situations and other kinds of discourse than it is to transfer a knowledge of usage, no matter how extensive, to an ability to use this knowledge in the actual business of communication." (Widdowson,1978:17)

> "The sense of appropriacy which enables us to distinguish coherence in discourse derives, then, from a knowledge of communicative conventions acquired as a natural and necessary concomitant of language learning." (Widdowson, 1978:53)

The knowledge of these conventions can be acquired by the 'learner's experience of language use.' Widdowson claims that

> "by focussing on usage, the language teacher directs the attention of the learner to those features of performance which normal use of language requires him to ignore." (Widdowson,1978:17)

The language teacher has to show language learners that language has a definite practical usefulness, and provide language learners with an immediate motivation instead of defining the aims of learning in terms of remote objectives. The solution for solving the problem of unnatural language and the dominance of usage is, in Widdowson's view, the recognition of the fact that school is reality too. Widdowson argues that the real experience of pupils derives from other subjects learned at school, and this experience should be exploited for the presentation of language. Tasks like map drawing, description of historical events and physical experiments are able to generate normal communication which operates at the level of use.

The issue whether we can create real communication in classroom environment has remained one of the crucial points of language teaching and numerous articles deal with the analysis of language used in the classroom (Coulthard,1975; Holmes,1983; Allwright,1980; Cooper,1982; Gaies,1983).

2.2. Coursebook and Syllabus Design

Widdowson's new requirement, i.e. to replace the manipulated text of coursebooks and classroom language with discourse and thus concentrate on language use instead of usage forced language teachers and coursebook writers to reconsider the structuring and linguistic content of coursebooks and set goals which are geared towards the new needs. A lot of effort in foreign language pedagogy has been devoted to designing syllabuses and coursebooks according to the new findings of theory thereby substituting the traditional 'grammatical' by 'pragmatic' selection and grading of teaching content.

The first important achievement was the recognition that distinct setting of the language teaching objectives for the target group in question is needed before the proposition of any kind of syllabus. Instead of the general goal set by psycholinguists, i.e. to enable language learners to achieve a nativelike competence in the target language, the new goals are determined in the terms of situations, social roles, psychological roles, settings, topics, language functions. (Trim,1979)

The basic concept of how syllabus design can help achieve communicative purposes is formulated by Wilkins. (Wilkins, 1979) Opposed to the traditional *grammatical* syllabus, where the content of language learning is thought of in terms of grammar, and *situational* syllabuses which are based upon the "predictions of the situations in which the learner is likely

to operate through the foreign language" (Wilkins,1979a) Wilkins offers the '*semantic*' or '*notional*' syllabus. While both grammatical and situational syllabuses are essential answers to different questions; the grammatical approach gives an answer to *how* the learner can express himself, the situational approach gives the answer *when* and *where* the language learner can express himself, the notional syllabus is intended to

> "provide the means by which a certain minimum level of communicative ability in the European languages can be set up. This minimum can then be taken for granted in the planning of the later, more situationally oriented material. It also provides the means of ensuring the inclusion in the syllabus of communicative functions, which have no unique grammatical realizations and no unique situational occurrence." (Wilkins,1979a:86)

The categories of notional syllabuses are grouped into two sections: the first might be called semantico-grammatical categories, the second set of notional categories can be broadly described as categories of communicative function. (Wilkins,1979a:86-88) Wilkins summarizes the merits of the proposed new approach as follows:

> "The value of the notional approach is that it forces one to consider the communicative value of everything that is taught. Items are not taught just because they are there. We aim progressively to expand the communicative competence of the learner. The set of categories just outlined provides us with a language for describing the communication needs of different sets of learners, whether their goal is a generalized or a specialized ability to use the language. Through this framework we can arrive at a set of learning priorities which is determined by the nature

> of the acts of communication in which the learner can be expected to participate. Information on the possible content of utterances will be of greater practical value than grammatical information and will be more complete than situational information. However, it will subsume both of these since each category has a particular set of grammatical realizations, and the aim of any syllabus would be, of course, to ensure that these were taught and situational language is just language in which particular notional categories occur with above-average frequency in association with defined physical situations. I believe that notional syllabuses will provide a path along which we can make new advances in defining the content of language curricula." (Wilkins, 1979a:90)

The clear argumentation of Wilkins, however, proved to fail in practice. There have been numerous examples of coursebooks written according to the concept of notional, later extended as functional-notional approach, but the overemphasis of the communicative aspect of language in designing coursebooks and syllabuses has not proved to be successful in solving the problem of how to teach communication effectively in the classroom. The most frequently debated point of functional-notional syllabuses has become its merit, i.e. the lack of grammar. In encountering this point Wilkins himself arrives at the re-evaluation of his own concept:

> "In fact it is generally the case that our knowledge of the linguistic realizations of the communicative categories that we propose is decidedly superficial and is rarely the product of any observational research. In short, we have established a field that deserves our attention, but we do not yet know enough about it to see precisely the role it will play in the practical business of teaching languages." (Wilkins,1979b:91)

He proposes the use of functional-notional syllabuses with restrictions, considering the stages of language learning and the teaching situation.

> "I would therefore be content if, for the present, notional and functional considerations were to be regarded as simply providing another dimension to the existing grammatical and situational parameters — a way of ensuring that general courses do not lose sight of the fact that linguistic forms provide a means to an end and that the end is communication. Greater concern should be given to seeing that what is learned has communicative value and that what has communicative value is learned, whether or not it occupies an important place in the grammatical system." (Wilkins,1979b:92)

His final proposition is to confine the use of functional-notional syllabuses to short duration intensive courses which are aimed at meeting the needs of courses of a 'high surrender value' i.e. courses which provide the language learners with a communicative ability as soon as possible. (Wilkins,1979b:93) Whether the need for crash courses is accepted as valid or not is a question to be decided, but to accept a concept for syllabus design which basically accounts only for this kind of course has proved to be a failure and led coursebook writers and teachers to the reconsideration of this approach.

It has also become obvious that the change in presentation and structuring of language material is only one aspect of the complicated process of language teaching and is itself unable to solve the problem of teaching communication. The starting point from which the teaching of communication can be approached has changed and the question whether we should teach language for communication or communication via language was put. (Allwright,1979:167)

As Allwright argues, linguistic competence is a part of communicative competence, which makes it obvious that teaching comprehensively for linguistic competence will necessarily leave a large area of communicative competence untouched, whereas teaching equally comprehensively for communicative competence will necessarily cater for all but a small part of linguistic competence. If this way of specifying the relationship is generally correct, then, if we really have communication as the major aim of our (language) teaching, we would be well advised to focus on communicative skills in the knowledge that this will necessarily involve developing most areas of linguistic competence as an essential part of the product rather than focus on linguistic skills and risk failing to deal with a major part of whatever constitutes communicative competence." (Allwright,1979:168)

Allwright urges the concentration of communication skills and the introduction of their teaching through practice. Language teachers have realized that the question of how to teach instead of what to teach should also be answered and the focus of interest has been directed on teaching techniques which can serve the communicative needs of language learning. Parallel with language teachers' interest in teaching techniques which facilitate communicative skills, theoreticians launched extensive studies to explore communicative strategies used by language learners.

3. COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

3.1. Interlanguage Studies: A New Dimension

Studies in second language learning have come to regard the investigation of learner-learner and learner-native speaker *interaction* in classroom and non-classroom setting as a prime source for data. Interlanguage studies launched by the re-

cognition of this potential source of knowledge represent two approaches, namely the description of interlanguages as a linguistic system (Corder,1967; Nemser,1971; Selinker,1972), and the description of interlanguages in terms of the learning process: studies aimed at the analysis of error-causes, the description of learners' developmental sequences and the description of the learning process in terms of strategies. (Hatch,1978a; Krashen,1978; Dulay and Burt,1975,1980)

As communication became the centre of linguistic studies, the communicative aspect was necessarily introduced into interlanguage research. Communicating in interlanguage refers to the ways the learner uses his interlanguage system in interaction. The description of communicative strategies has become an essential field of interlanguage studies with clear implications for second language teaching.

The experience of functional-notional syllabuses has proved that communicative competence in certain areas of interaction is largely dependent on the individual learner's capacity of extending his knowledge on other areas in a creative way. The analysis of how language learners can make the best use of the specific knowledge they have of an L2, in addition to their general communicative knowledge deriving from their first language, in cases where the L2 knowledge is insufficient for the attainment of a particular communicative goal has been stressed. (Knapp,1980)

Incorporating the learner's ability to handle communication strategies as an integral part of his general communicative competence has been first suggested by Canale and Swain (1980) who refer to this ability of using communication strategies as the learner's 'strategic competence'. (Canale,1983)

3.2. Communication Strategies Defined

As a new field of study, interlanguage communication has had to put up with unclear terminology and lack of clear definitions. We have chosen to insist on the definition of Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1983), because their approach seems to synthetize the aspects included in other contributions. Tarone, Cohen and Dumas use the term *communication strategy* instead of the earlier used term *production strategy* and define it as "a systematic attempt by the learner to express or decode meaning in the target language, in situations where the appropriate systematic target language rules have not been formed." (Tarone,1983:5)

They distinguish 11 different types of communication strategies and analyse them according to where they can be observed, in phonology, morphology, syntax or lexicon:

1. transfer from the native language - which refers to the type of negative transfer from the native language resulting in utterances that are not just inappropriate but actually incorrect by native standards.

2. overgeneralization - the application of a rule of the target language to inappropriate target language forms or contexts.

3. prefabricated pattern - as a 'regular patterned segment of speech' (Hakuta,1976) employed 'without knowledge of its underlying structure, but with the knowledge as to which particular situations call for what patterns.'

4. overelaboration - in which the learner, in an attempt to produce careful target language utterances, produces utterances which seem stilted and inordinately formal.

5. epenthesis - or vowel insertion, where the learner is unable to produce unfamiliar consonant clusters in the target language, and in attempts to produce them, he uses schwa vowels between consonants.

6. topic avoidance - is the attempt to totally evade communication about topics which require the use of target language rules or forms which the learner does not yet know very well.

7. semantic avoidance - when the learner evades the communication of content for which the appropriate target language rules and forms are not available, by talking about related concepts which may presuppose the desired content.

8. appeal to authority - occurs when the learner asks someone else to supply a form or lexical item, asks if a form or item is correct, or looks it up in a dictionary.

9. paraphrase - refers to the rewording of the message in an alternate acceptable, target language construction, in order to avoid a more difficult form or construction.

10. message abandonment - whereby communication on a topic is initiated but then cut short because the learner runs into difficulty with a target language form or rule.

11. language switch - when the learner transports a native word or expression, untranslated, into the interlanguage utterance.

This framework of communication strategies is not claimed to be complete by the authors, the multidimensional ways of operating these strategies makes defining communication strategies a 'troublesome issue'. (Tarone,1983:5-11)

The acceptance of the existence of communication strategies and their use by learning a second language has influenced classroom practice considerably. Instead of completely

manipulated and well prepared teaching materials tasks and activities have been introduced which rely on the creative use of the target language and include the unpredictability of real speech situation. Studies in the field of interlanguage communication, however, have so far restricted to stating the difficulties, like how to identify communicative strategies, the difficulty of detecting them and identifying the specific nature of these strategies on the basis of performance data. The few existing empirical data are focused on quantitative evaluation of the strategies used by language learners. There have been no studies which offer a qualitative evaluation of these strategies and decide or imply which of them are to be encouraged by teachers. Whether these strategies are evoked automatically once the language learner is exposed to a situation where real communication should take place, or whether there are special ways of activating this interlanguage knowledge is a question which has been debated ever since the term communication strategy was formulated.

4. APPLICATION OF THEORY TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

4.1. Guiding Principles of Communicative Language Teaching

It seems obvious that an elaborated framework of *what* should be included in the practice of teaching communication, and *how* it should be achieved (Finocchiaro,1977) is needed for language teachers. Among others Canale (1983) formulated the guiding principles of the communicative approach which are proposed to apply to second language teaching and testing. The five principles included are claimed to characterize a communicative approach which is interactive and in which "the main goal is to prepare and encourage

learners to exploit in an optimal way their limited communicative competence in the second language in order to participate in actual communication situations." (Canale, 1983:17)

The five principles are as follows:

a) coverage of competence areas - which are grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. As there is no evidence for the view that grammatical competence is any more or less crucial to successful communication than is sociolinguistic, discourse or strategic competence, the primary goal of a communicative approach must be to facilitate the *interaction* of the types of competence for the learner, an outcome that is not likely to result from over-emphasis of one area of competence over the others throughout a second language programme.

b) communication needs - A communicative approach must be based on and respond to the learner's (often changing) communication needs and interests. These must be specified with respect to grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. It is particularly important to base a communicative approach at least in part on the varieties of the second language that the learner is most likely to be in contact with, in genuine communicative situations, and on the minimum levels of competence that various groups of native speakers expect of the learner in such situations and that the majority of learners may be expected to attain.

c) meaningful and realistic interaction - The second language learner must have the opportunity to take part in meaningful communicative interaction with highly competent speakers of the language - that is, to respond to genuine communication needs and interests in realistic second language situations.

This principle is important not only with respect to classroom activities but testing as well.

d) the learner's native language skills - Particularly at the early stages of second language learning, optimal use must be made of those communications skills that the learner has developed through use of the native or dominant language and that are common to communication skills required in the second language.

e) Curriculum-wide approach - In addition to the primary objective of a communication oriented second langauge programme, i.e. to provide the learners with the information, practice and much of the experience needed to meet their communication needs in the second language, the learners should be taught about *language*, drawing as much as possible from the first language programme, and about the *second language culture*, drawing as much as possible from other subject areas. Such a curriculum-wide approach is thought to facilitate a natural integration of knowledge of the second language, knowledge of the second language culture and knowledge of language in general. (Canale,1983:18-19)

4.2. Knowledge Oriented and Skill Oriented Teaching

Canale distinguishes between communicative competence and actual communication and offers a further distinction within communicative competence, between knowledge and skill. These notions of knowledge and skill in using the knowledge have crucial relevance to foreign language teaching methodology. The assumption that knowledge about the foreign language — either about its linguistic or communicative aspects — is sufficient for its effective use in actual

speech situations has influenced foreign language pedagogy for years. Canale refers to this kind of approach to language teaching as *knowledge oriented.*

Practice has proved that such approaches are not sufficient for preparing learners to use the foreign language effectively in authentic situations, they fail to provide learners with experience in handling authentic communication situations. This recognition has led to the introduction of *skill-oriented* activities in the foreign language classroom.

Although the comparatively small body of empirical data referring to the effectivity of these activities has made this point of communicative language teaching vulnerable and topic of discussion, (Richards,1984) the proposed teaching techniques aiming at producing real communication situations have been used and become popular among language teachers and learners.

Even Swan, who strongly critisizes the theory behind the communicative approach, acknowledges the enormous beneficial influence of communicative language teaching on the development of challenging teaching material. (Swan,1985:11)

4.3. Teaching Techniques

In reaction to the theoretical requirements, the teaching techniques proposed by language teachers to attain the goals of communicative language teaching have focused on creating situations in the classroom which are able to generate *meaningful* interaction. What meaningful is, of course, depends on different environmental factors, like age, interests and level of learners and the learning situation itself, but

there is one common characteristic of these kinds of activities: they are all task oriented instead of being only language oriented, where language is used as a means of communication not as the goal of the activity. Communication tasks are usually based on an *information gap* which means that the participants of the interaction are provided with different, but related information. The goal of the information gap activities is to provide language learners with communication problems to solve, whereby language is used to bridge the gaps. (Wright, 1976; Byrnes, 1978, Allwright, 1979, Maley,1980)

The conventional classroom situation which primarily meant interaction between the teacher and only one student at a time have changed considerably, and pair-work and group-work as new forms of learner-centered teaching have been introduced into the language classroom. The role of the teacher has also changed and the teacher has become rather an organizer or instructor of these activities instead of having the whole class under his control.

The basic idea of communication tasks is to arm students with skills and strategies which enable them to cope with the unpredictable, which is the basic characteristic of real communication. They also set out to provide students with a variety of activities which activate a genuine exchange of information, this providing a framework for less controlled practice in class.

The motivating force of these kinds of communication tasks has been acknowledged by scrutinizing experts and even by opponents of the communicative approach, but their effectivity and reality nature, also their possible harmful effects, have also been questioned and debated, and this issue has become one of the crucial points of controversy.

4.4. Areas of Controversy

4.4.1. Theory and Practice

> "There is nothing so creative as dogmas. During the last few years, under the influence of the 'Communicative Approach', language teaching seems to have made great progress. Syllabus design has become a good deal more sophisticated, and we are to give our students a better and more complete picture than before of how language is used. In methodology, the change has been dramatic. The boring and mechanical exercise types which were so common ten or fifteen years ago have virtually disappeared, to be replaced by a splendid variety of exciting and engaging practice activities. All this is very positive, and it is not difficult to believe that such progress in course design has resulted in a real improvement in the speed and quality of language learning. ...
> Along with its many virtues, the Communicative Approach unfortunately has most of the typical vices of an intellectual revolution: it over-generalizes valid but limited insights until they become virtually meaningless; it makes exaggerated claims for the power and novelty of its doctrines; it misrepresents the currents of thought it has replaced: it is often characterized by serious intellectual confusion; it is choked with jargon." (Swan, 1985:2)

This is how Michael Swan starts his analyzing criticism of the Communicative Approach. The points under criticism are numerous in his article. His starting point is to question the *theory* behind the communicative approach. He argues that the distinctions between meaning and use, and consequently between rules of use and rules of communication are false and

have no relevance to langauge teaching. In Swan's view the concept about a 'second level of meaning' (Swan,1985:6) and the introduction of the concept of 'appropriacy' is nothing else than what he calls a 'new toy' effect, (Swan,1985:5) where a limited but valuable insight has been over-generalized, and presented as if it applied to the whole of language and all of language teaching. The problem of appropriacy derives from lack of vocabulary and Swan considers it as a simple lexical problem. (Swan,1985:7)

Another basic point of criticism is the claim that there are insufficient empirical data to verify the theoretical doctrines of the communicative approach. Swan claims that "Our research depends to an uncomfortable degree on faith." (Swan,1985:87) This point is also attacked by Richards:

> "Yet no studies have been undertaken by those promoting this to demonstrate that classrooms in which learners are encouraged to use the target language for problem solving, communicative tasks, information exchange, and meaningful interaction are indeed more conducive to successful language learning than classrooms in which the teacher dominates much of the teaching time, or where the primary focus of activities is on more controlled and less creative uses of language. Despite the intuitive appeal of claims for the value of natural communication in the classroom and the anecdotes used to support them, there is equally convincing anecdotal evidence to the contrary which suggests that such activities promote fossilization and pidginization by placing learners in situations where the demands on their performance soon outpace their grammatical competence." (Richards,1984:19)

Canale, representing a balanced view, claims that

> "both subjective and objective feedback can play important roles in research on a theory of communicative competence and its applications." (Canale,1983:20)

4.4.2. The Real-life Fallacy

The basic idea of communicative language teaching is to involve students in genuine exchange of information which are aimed at making classroom discourse correspond as closely as possible to real-life use of language. The tasks and communicative exercises are constructed so that they can imitate real communication situations. The strive for creating 'reality' in the classroom has been approached from different viewpoints. One basic standpoint is a linguistic one, when it is thought that reality depends on the nature of linguistic material presented in the classroom.

The functional-notional syllabus design and the coursebooks based on it have soon proved that re-organizing the linguistic material cannot in itself entail real communication in the classroom. Introducing 'real' discourse, either in the form of relying on the school setting, (Widdowson, 1978), or introducing literature, as the 'reality of fiction' (Widdowson, 1983, Mortimer,1980) or bringing in the outside world by using 'authentic language material' of the everyday life, like newspapers, brochures and magazines cannot themselves create 'reality'. As soon as they enter the classroom they become unreal in that setting. One can hardly doubt the suggestion that classroom language should be as lifelike as possible. The greatest achievement of the communicative approach has been the recognition that reality of speech does not entirely depend on linguistic aspects of language but involves social aspects as well.

The barrier between the outside world and the classroom exists, and it is better to accept it. The classroom *is* a reality, and what we can do is to make the gap between the 'protective classroom and the hurly-burly outside' smaller. (Pearse,1983:19) Instead of real situations the language teacher can only aim at creating 'realistic' situations, settings and frameworks which simulate or resemble reality and offer a fictitious setting within the classroom. They can be expected to evoke and stimulate realistic language in the sense that the language thus generated is inherently unpredictable and open to variations in the same sense as the language used in real life situations.

A special problem is offered in language classes where all the language learners have the same mother tongue, and the teacher is also a native speaker of their L1. Interaction in the target language between the members of this class, as well as between the language learners and the teacher remains basically artificial and 'unreal' in terms of communication. Teachers, however, cannot use this as an excuse and refuse teaching their students how to communicate. They have to find ways for mitigating the artificiality of this situation by constructing situations which have validity for using the target language.

4.4.3. The Information Gap

Another target of criticism — closely connected with the problem of reality — is the criticism of information-gap activities. Numerous articles have dealt with the potentials and construction of information-gap activities (Bowker,1984; Edge,1984) and teachers have come out with ingenious exercises based on this idea. We would agree with Swan who claims that

> "the information conveyed should ideally have some relevance and interest for the students."

His example of an unsuitable information-gap activity, when one student is given a paper containing the times of trains from Manchester to Liverpool purely so that he can pass on the information to another student who is not in Manchester and does not wish to go to Liverpool is some distance from genuine communication. (Swan,1985:84) This kind of information is imposed on the learner and makes the whole activity miss its goal.

We have found that it is not the content, but the framework of an information gap activity that carries the relevance for the students in a classroom setting.

The information-gap might be able to solve the problem of generating real communication, but its reality value depends on the nature of the framework in which it is presented.

The guiding principle for constructing information-gap activities should be the basic requirement that the language learner really has to do something with the information he has received.

4.4.4. Communication Strategies

The search for 'reality' in classroom situations is also inspired by the concept, equally basic to the Communicative Approach, that second language learners have to acquire the skills and strategies needed for proceeding communication in the second language. The overemphasis of teaching communication skills and strategies, which have already been acquired during first language acquisition, like predicting, negotia-

tion meaning, guessing etc. is another issue which is critisized by experts. Swan stresses the importance of the role of the native language in language learning. (Swan, 1985:8-9) In Swan's view this approach to teaching basic communication skills and strategies is false as "language learners already know, in general, how to negotiate meaning. They have been doing it all their lives. What they do not know is what words are used to do it in a foreign language." (Swan,1985:9)

Interlanguage studies also support the assumption that not so much the basic skills and strategies of communication should be taught, but the way how to cope with them, along with some specific interlanguage communication strategies of learning a foreign language. It seems obvious, however, that communication tasks and activities offer the best opportunity for activating and practise these — presumably existing — skills and strategies in target language situations.

4.4.5. How Much Communication?

However strong the claims of criticisms are, there is hardly any doubt about the importance of teaching communication in the foreign language classroom. The argument is rather about the amount of communicative practice at the expense of other activities. As pointed out in Richard's article (1984) many claim that communicative tasks which expose language learners to situations which demand linguistic solutions beyond their knowledge leads to inaccurate linguistic forms and fossilization of errors. This claim gets its validity when only communicative tasks are given during the whole process of language teaching. The introduction of the communicative aspect cannot lead to the overemphasis of communication and shifting the other — equally important — competence areas into the background. (Canale,1983:18)

Another issue related to the problem of finding the right balance is at what stage of language learning should communicative tasks be introduced. Some propose that these activities should be introduced right at the beginning of language teaching (Joiner,1977); some hold the view that absolute beginners cannot be expected to solve communication problems. (Allwright,1979)

Whatever the answer to these issues is, we would not share Swan's view that

> "The Communicative Approach, whatever its virtues, is not really in any sense a revolution. In retrospect, it is likely to be seen as little more than an interesting ripple on the surface of twentieth century language teaching." (Swan,1985:87)

We would rather approach the evaluation from another point of view: the virtues and merits of CLT are valuable and the change due to the implementation of the ideas of CLT has already proved to be a new and very positive contribution to language teaching methodology. As being a complex and heterogeneous trend instead of being one 'method', it is obviously full of controversies and issues which are open to debate. Similar to any other trend, taking the communicative approach to an extreme, can be dangerous. It is the task of the individual teacher to cope with the enormous set of practical propositions, select them and take advantage of the teaching techniques he evaluates as relevant to his own teaching situation.

5. THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH AS RELATED TO OTHER APPROACHES AND TO SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING THEORIES

5.1. The Humanistic Approach and the Communicative Approach

The 'humanistic approach' to language teaching which covers three main and numerous less-known and accepted approaches to teaching is rooted in the psycholinguistic development of language studies. Suggestopaedia, Community Language Learning and Counseling Teaching as the main tracks of this line have a very deep interest in the individuals' attitude and behaviour to learning and teaching during the learning-teaching process.

The plausibility of these thoughts is usually questioned by teachers and linguists only if they overemphasize the importance of the psychological factors and postulate their ways as methods with overall validity. The same happens, however, to the communicative approach at its extreme. If we look at the claims of both approaches without taking them into extremes and try to exploit the individual techniques these two entirely different endpoints of two different courses of studies offer we often witness a happy reconciliation in the classroom which obviously has a beneficial and fruitful influence on the teaching process itself.

The answer to how a balanced approach to teaching and an accurate selection of different techniques offered by spokesmen of the two different trends can work well in practice is quite simple. Communication, the exchange of information is a very humanistic need. It is also species-specific, as language itself. The motivating force of real communication in the classroom, i.e. talking, reading, writing about or

listening to relevant information is not only communicative but also highly humanistic. That is the point where we feel that the two main trends of language study of our age meet at the practical level. This leads us to the reconsideration of our attitude to theory.

5.2. A Need for Eclecticism

The internalization of these two approaches in teaching techniques and in the practical ideas of both practising teachers and theoreticians, prevailing often simultaneously in the language classroom, have resulted in a healthy *eclecticism.* This new concept of the attitude to new ideas has become more and more accepted in recent years as the ideal relation and attitude to theory.

While in the sixties and early seventies the acceptance of one dominant 'method' as 'up-to-date' characterized the methodological thinking of experts, in the late seventies and early eighties we rather witness the constant ferment and a lively exchange of new ideas which do not extinguish but often promote each other. The term 'method' is often substituted by the term 'approach', which obviously indicates that there is only a certain point of view in the teachers' mind from which they look at teaching. Unlike methods, approaches do not demand an overall plan for the whole teaching process 'no part of which contradicts ... the selected approach.' (Anthony,1963) The teachers are invited to choose from the different techniques offered and form their 'eclectic' way of teaching:

> "Eclecticists try to absorb the best techniques of all the well-known language-teaching methods into their classroom procedures, using them for the purpose for which they are most appropriate." (Rivers,1981:21)

Tony Deyes develops this idea of eclecticism and forms the concept of 'informed eclecticism' as the ideal attitude of language teachers to teaching and theory.

> "Firstly, eclecticism is not to be interpreted as an *ad hoc* use of techniques, simply because they are, for example, fun, or because they give clear right or wrong answers. What I am suggesting is that techniques need not derive from any one theory of language, of learning, or of education, but should be related to the overall nature and objectives of particular courses. Secondly, eclecticism should not be seen in any sense as 'an easy way out'; it is in fact, likely to be more demanding and time-consuming than using a 'method', since, if the choice is an informed one, the teacher will need to a) be familiar with, and understand, the range of linguistic and pedagogical considerations at his disposal; b) have some (implicit) reason for making a particular choice at a particular moment. Thus, in the same class, he may have one group doing dialogue work through free role-play, while others, for reasons of level or learning styles, work on a dialogue intensive-listening exercise: alternatively, he may teach one whole course inductively (e.g. for children) but another (for adults) using grammatical explanations." (Deyes,1982:17)

The above considerations suggest that teachers who can take advantage of an eclectic use of techniques will enjoy a greater flexibility due to their attitude.

If we accept 'informed eclecticism' as the ideal attitude of teachers, we also have to postulate a different attitude for linguists and arrive at a different interpretation of the relationship of theory and practice:

> "We do not take developments in linguistics and look for ways of applying them to language teaching. Instead, we face problems in language teaching, and, trying to solve them, look at evidence from linguistics." (Wilkins,1972:228)

A representation of this interrelation between theory and practise crystallizes in Krashen's theory about language learning, where the starting point of his investigations relies on findings in the language classroom. Establishing his hypothesis he also claims the importance of a new 'way' tailored to the model he has set up.

5.3. Attempts to Describe the Second Language Learning Process

Tracking down the developments of linguistic study, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics we could observe great changes in these fields, but all the findings we have discussed so far have adopted the Chomskian theory of language acquisition to second language learning. The new approaches failed to offer an overall and all-embracing language learning theory with specific considerations of SLL and FLL processes. As we could see, a direct adaptation of Chomsky's view to SLL and FLL failed, and the lack of a language learning theory which could involve all the new findings of interdisciplinary studies drew attention to the need for new theoretical observations.

A considerable amount of experiments carried out in the field of SLL has adopted the basic idea that FLA, SLL and FLL are basically the same procedures, taking place under different circumstances. There are, however, sporadic statements about the unique quality of SLL but a theory in its fully elaborated form which approaches the differences between FLA and SLL appears only in 1981. (Krashen,1981)

Vilem Fried (1968) claimed that

> "Learning one's mother tongue is a unique process which can never be repeated. This is also true of bilingualism which often develops similarly to the mother tongue but which is never the result of teaching or learning a second language in school; the classroom necessarily presents an artificial situation. The mother tongue will constantly exist in the mind of the foreign language learner particularly in environments which are alien to the target language. There will be a constant conflict between the language habits which the pupil is acquiring in the foreign language and the old language habits of his mother tongue." (Fried,1968:39)

Trying to establish a theory of SLL as compared to FLA Vivian J. Cook attempts to grasp the differences between FLA and SLL by drawing attention to the psychological attributes which are necessarily different, and are entailed by the situational differences between the two processes. (Cook,1977) He points out the inadequacy of applying experimental paradigms well tested on native children to foreign adults. His argumentation is centred around the differences between the cognitive activities children realize during learning language, and adults involve in learning a foreign language. While a "child who is learning his mother tongue is learning to mean", the second langauge learner knows the potential of language and can go straight on to discovering how that potential is realised in the second language. Adult second language learners have a greater memory capacity, they are at a more advanced stage of conceptual development which entails that they have a larger scale of communicative functions for which they want to use L2. Mainly based on his own experiments

(Cook,1977) where he investigates memory processes and cognitive factors in language learning Cook concludes that

> "Second language learning is like first language acquisition to the extent that mental processes other than those involving language are not concerned. In other words, the more learning depends on general psychological processes, the less similar first and second language learning will be." (Cook,1977;17)
> "The development of the second language learner reflects not just the differences between the first and second language or the progression of the native child, but also the complex interaction between language learning and mental processes." (Cook,1977:16)

Cook who accounted for the findings of the age attempted to establish a plausible explanation for how second language learning operates. Approaching the problem from one point of view, i.e. psychological factors, Cook obviously failed to give a description which adequately reflects the complexity of the process.

5.4. A New Hypothesis of Second Language Acquisition: Krashen's Theory

Stephen D. Krashen's Monitor Model and the theories accompanying this basic concept represent the first attempt to give an all embracing hypothesis of how second language learning in adult language learners takes place.

5.4.1. Krashen's Basic Hypotheses

Krashen's theory of second language acquisition is rooted in Chomsky's view of language acquisition, but it accounts for

new findings like *Morpheme Studies* (Krashen,1981:51-63), the problem of interference (Krashen,1981:64-69) and the current research of neurolinguistics, especially the issue of cerebral dominance, with a bearing on Lenneberg's hypothesis that child--adult differences in second language acquisition are due to the completion of the development of cerebral dominance. (Krashen,1981:70-82)

Krashen's theory in its ultimate and fully elaborated form consists of five basic hypotheses.

1. The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

This hypothesis is based on the distinction between *acquisition* and *learning*, as *acquisition* being similar to the child's first language acquisition, where 'picking up' a language is subconscious and involves an implicit knowledge of the language. In this process formal learning does not facilitate the acquisition. *Learning*, on the other hand, means a formal knowledge of the language, a conscious 'knowing about the language'. This knowledge is explicit and is helped by formal learning. (Krashen,1983:27)

2. The Natural Order Hypothesis

Based on Dulay's and Burt's findings (Dulay,1975) Krashen hypothetized that

> "there is a fairly stable order of acquisition of structures in language acquisition, that is, one can see clear similarities across acquirers as to which structures tend to be acquired early and which tend to be acquired late." (Krashen,1981; Krashen,1983:28)

With the *Natural Order Hypothesis* Krashen claims that

> "language acquisition is very similar to the process children use in acquiring first and second languages." (Krashen,1981:1)

He stresses the importance of "meaningful interaction in the target language i.e. natural communication, in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding." (Krashen, 1981:1)

The acceptance of this similarity, however, does not mean the ignorance of the differnces between FLA and SLL as many earlier studies claimed. Krashen states that the complex process of second language learning involves both *acquisition* with features similar to FLA and *learning* which is an entirely different process.

For describing this double quality of the language learning process Krashen uses the *Monitor Theory*, which hypothesizes that

> "adults have two independent systems for developing ability in second languages, subconscious language *acquisition*, and language *learning*, and that these systems are interrelated in a definite way: subconscious acquisition appears to be far more important." (Krashen,1981:1)

3. The Monitor Hypothesis

The *Monitor Hypothesis* is established on the concept of a monitor with the function of checking, editing, controlling. Krashen makes the distinction between acquired competence, gained through acquisition, and learned competence, gained through learning. The linguistic output of the language learner is basically the result of his acquired knowledge of the language, where his learned competence acts only as a *'Monitor'* to control and check up his utterances. This means that if the performer relies on his learned competence while speaking, he has to have enough time for constructing his utterance; the performer has to think about correctness and focus on form while

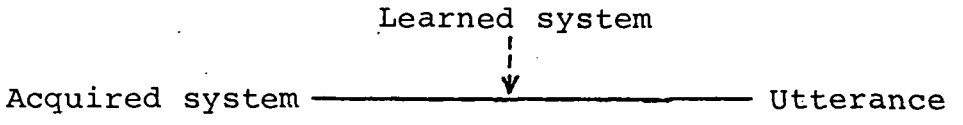
he is speaking and this may disrupt communication. All this presupposes the knowledge of linguistic rules. (Krashen, 1983:30)

This concept of language acquisition and learning, especially this rather simplified and rigid description of the complex process of second language learning has often been criticized, although Krashen himself stresses his own awareness of the complexity of these processes:

> "A very important point about the *Monitor Hypothesis* is that it does not say that acquisition is unavailable for self correction. We often self-correct, or edit, using acquisition, in both first and in second languages.
> What the *Monitor Hypothesis* claims is that conscious learning has only this function, and it is not used to initiate production in a second language." (Krashen,1983:31)

> "The fundamental claim of the *Monitor Theory* is that conscious learning is available to the performer only as a *Monitor*. In general, utterances are initiated by the acquired system - our fluency in production is based on what we have 'picked up' through active communication. Our 'formal' knowledge of the second language, our conscious learning, may be used to alter the output of the acquired system, sometimes before and sometimes after the utterance is produced. We make these changes to improve accuracy, and the use of the *Monitor* often has this effect."

Krashen's following figure illustrates the interaction of acquisition and learning in adult second language production:



(Krashen,1981:2)

4. The Input Hypothesis

> "This hypothesis states simply that we acquire (not learn) language by understanding input that is a little beyond our current level of (acquired) competence." (Krashen, 1983:32)

Owing to the experiments of second language acquisition research mainly carried out in the USA with immigrant children, Krashen draws parallels between caretaker speech and teacher's talk as a very important source of comprehensive input. He also attaches importance to the talk other langauge learners use during the language class, stimulated by activities which result in meaningful communication. Krashen points out that listening comprehension and reading are of primary importance in the language program, and that the ability to speak or write fluently in a second language will come on its own with time. Speaking fluency is thus not 'taught' directly: rather, speaking ability 'emerges' after the acquirer has built up competence through comprehending input. (Krashen,1983:32)

5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis

Including the psychological factors of language learning into his theory Krashen owes to the tradition of psycholinguistic research and alongside with his view of real communication and its role in acquisition he forms a hypothesis, thus involving both approaches to language study.

Accounting for Earl Stevick's work the *Affective Filter Hypothesis* stresses the importance of psychological factors. A *low affective filter* means that the performer is more 'open' to the input which then makes the input 'strike deeper.' The terminology for describing the psychologically ideal attitude towards the target language resembles Stevick's idea of *depth*, as a crucial point of successful language learning. (Stevick, 1976)

> "The affective filter acts to prevent input from being used for language acquisition. Acquirers with optimal attitudes are hypothetized to have a low affective filter. Classrooms that encourage low filters are those that promote low anxiety among students, that keep students off the defensive." (Krashen,1983:39)

After distinguishing between the *overusers* of the Monitor, performers, who feel they must 'know the rule' for everything and do not entirely trust their feel for grammaticality in the second language, and *underusers*, who appear to be entirely dependent on what they can 'pick up' of the second language, Krashen forms the hypothetic figure of the *'optimal user'* who uses learning as a real supplement to acquisition, monitoring when it is appropriate and when it does not get in the way of communication, (e.g. prepared speech and writing). (Krashen, 1981:5)

He claims that very good optimal users may, in fact, achieve the illusion of native speaker competence in written performance. They 'keep grammar in its place', using it to fill gaps in acquired competence when such monitoring does not get in the way of communication. (Krashen,1981:5)

He also discusses the concepts of *aptitude*, i.e. language aptitude measured by standard language aptitude tests and *attitude*, i.e. affective variables.

Krashen describes aptitude as directly related to conscious learning, while attitude refers to the acquirers' orientation towards speakers of the target language, as well as personality factors. These factors relate directly to acquisition and only indirectly to conscious learning.

> "...the right attitudinal factors produce two effects: they encourage useful input for language acquisition and they allow the acquirer to be 'open' to this input so it can be utilized for acquisition." (Krashen,1981:5)

The concept of Krashen's 'low affective filter' does not only emphasize the importance of integrative motivation, the language learner's attitude towards the target language and its speech community but also involves other aspects of motivation, i.e. the language learners' attitude towards the whole teaching-learning process which can be considerably influenced by the language teacher and the atmosphere of the language classroom.

5.4.2. *Implications for the Language Teacher and Critical Views*

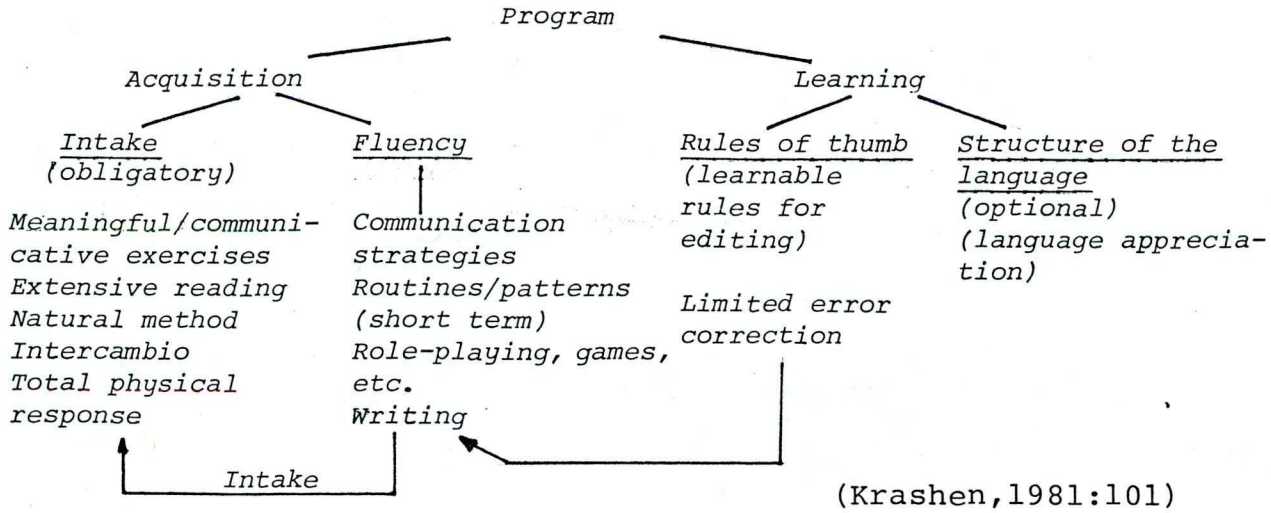
Krashen projects his theory to practice and attempts to give ideas on how to apply his theoretical findings to practice. The starting point of his practical ideas is based on the findings of a test which compared the acquired competence of adult language learners both in 'exposure-type' informal environments and 'intake-type' informal environments. (Krashen, 1981:47) The findings of this test support Krashen's idea according to which the "classroom can be of value, and in fact generally *is* of value, in language acquisition and in language learning." Krashen states that the "major function of the second language classroom is to provide intake for acquisition." (Krashen,1981:101) It is the task of applied linguistics to create materials and contexts that provide intake. '*Intake*' in Krashen's view is 'input that is *understood.*' He claims that

> "comprehension may be at the heart of the language acquisition process: perhaps we acquire by *understanding* language that is 'a little beyond' our current level of competence. (Krashen,1981:103)

Giving priority to motivational and attitudinal considerations over linguistic considerations, Krashen describes three distinct ways in which second language production may be performed.

a) where the performer simply utilizes his acquired system to initiate utterances,
b) when one uses prefabricated patterns and routines as well as sentences that are memorized as wholes, (Krashen admits that although they are entirely independent of 'normal' language acquisition, patterns and sentences have enormous practical value)
c) the third way of producing utterances in a second language is to rely on the surface structure of the first language, and to attempt to make changes and corrections using the conscious grammar, the *Monitor*. (Krashen,1981:111)

The teaching program he offers for achieving the goal of providing sufficient amount of intake for language learners during the language class, which is potentially the most useful framework for language learning, gives practical ideas about the nature of these activities:



(Krashen,1981:101)

He accounts for the novel ideas of practising teachers and involves their suggestions in his work: Newmark's investigations in the field of the extensive reading (Newmark,1971) and Asher's way of using the 'total physical response' in the language classes. (Asher,1966,1969)

Terrell's idea of the 'Natural Approach', in which class time essentially consists of communicative activities, with the speaker speaking only in the target language and the students responding in either the target language or their first language gives the basis for the 'Natural Approach' worked out by Krashen and Terrell (1983). Realizing the difficulty of the task, Krashen urges applied linguists and language teachers to invent activities which promote real communication and thus foster acquisition in the classroom.

Krashen, however, does not give any practical advice on how to construct 'meaningful' and 'communicative' exercises, neither presents any when he and Terrell describe the Natural Approach. Krashen again leaves langauge teachers in doubt about what to teach and how to teach it.

Fortunately there always have been inventive and creative teachers who, dependent on or independent of the theoretical findings, have tried to find new and more effective ways of teaching which work in the language teaching classroom. Their contribution, however minor they are, has helped considerably the work of theoreticians. The question whether we should teach communication in the classroom has been decided by language teachers and the answer is yes. When, at what stage of language learning, under which circumstances and how to do it are questions which are still open to debate.

Stephen Krashen's theory of second language acquisition has evoked argumentation and debate and has been the target of criticism ever since its emergence. The most challenged concept of his hypotheses is the Monitor Model, which is often held for rigid and inadequate for describing the complex procedures which take place in the human mind while learning and acquiring a second language. The strict distinction between acquisition and learning has also been criticized. Littlewood, e.g., refuses the distinction of acquisition and learning, as acquisition being a subconscious process, while learning a conscious process for internalizing a second language. He claims that

> "what is conscious and what is subconscious is too vague for us to use the distinction reliably." (Littlewood,1984:2)

Donald M. Morrison and Graham Low question the validity of Krashen's Monitor Model. They claim that the restricted model of the Monitor as linked mainly to the learning process is an inappropriate analogy, as we all 'monitor' both in first language and second language in a more general sense. They argue for a "*return* to a more comprehensive view of the monitoring function in respect to the situation of the L2 learner." (Morrison,1983:229) They claim that monitoring takes place on many levels and it is open to varying degrees of awareness and manipulation. It is also tied closely with other key learning strategies such as risk-taking and inferencing. (Morrison,1983:229)

They offer an expanded version of the Monitor Theory, where the Monitor as an acquisition device, as well as a learning device operates monitoring as a critical faculty, which is

> "essentially our awareness of language, and gives leash to the creative faculty, keeps it in check and possibly learns from it." (Morrison,1983:247)

The practical implications of Krashen's hypotheses do not lie in his practical suggestions for the language teacher, neither in the appropriateness or inappropriateness of his models, but in his attempt to grasp the complexity of the second language learning process and to incorporate the newest findings of the psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic developments in second language acquisition research in the form of one coherent set of assumptions.

Drawing attention to the fact that adult second language learners also undergo a 'silent period' of language learning, the recognition of the importance of meaningful and communicative tasks in the classroom, accepting the influence of affective factors on second language learners are all important issues which have helped both theoreticians and practising teachers to get closer to the understanding of second language acquisition and have opened up new fields of interest, which tend to direct themselves towards the language classroom as the ideal scene of second language acquisition.

The constant search for one best method has been by now replaced by a quest of new techniques with which the new goals of language teaching can be attained.

5.5. How to Create Comprehensible Input in the Second Language Classroom

5.5.1. Teacher's Talk

Introducing the analogy of caretaker's speech and teacher's talk, baby talk and language learners' speech and postulating teacher's talk as the basic issue of the Natural Approach, Krashen drew attention to the analyses which dealt with the

interaction taking place between teachers and students and student and student. Studies in Discourse Analysis have also taken discourse in the language classroom into their scope of studies.

The usual outcome of these investigations led to the conclusion that the language used by teachers during the language class is highly artificial both from the linguistic and from a discourse point of view. Coulthard (1975) states that teachers typically ask questions not to find out the answer but to find out if the pupils know the answer.

Gaies (1983) refers to some research which shows that more than half of teachers' questions analysed were of the 'display' type, i.e. intended to elicit information already known to the questioner, whereas outside the classroom referential questions predominate, and display questions hardly ever occur. With this statement Gaies claims that teacher's talk during the class, which is meant to offer important source of linguistic input, is unable to fulfill this function.

Referring to Piaget's findings Gaies also emphasizes the importance of peer interaction in the classroom.

Ellis (1980) does not accept the analogy between baby-talk and the language which takes place in the second language classroom. While the language between caretaker and the baby has three basic functions, a) a communicative function, b) a language teaching function, c) and a socialization function, the language used in the second language classroom often serves an almost entirely language teaching function:

> "The input is likely to be formally monitored not to ensure adequate communication but to provide a carefully

> graded introduction to the grammatical properties of the language." (Ellis,1980:72)

Comparing the linguistic input which the child gets from his parents, where pseudo questions serve as prompts and conversational guides and are adapted to the child's receptive capacity, Ellis claims that

> "second language learners are typically provided with a linguistic environment which consists of predominantly well-formed sentences, comparatively short utterances displaying a limited range of grammatical relations, plentiful imperatives and pseudo- questions and a langauge whose prosody has been turned to enhance the auditory prominence of particular features." (Ellis,1980:72)

The solution offered by Ellis is to introduce authentic language and teaching materials for everyday interaction which involve native L2 speakers.

Van Dijk (1981) points out the differences between caretaker speech and teacher's talk by stating that

> "parental corrections are not grammatically oriented but rather attempt to establish the truth value of the child's utterances." (Van Dijk,1981:73)

His solution relies on the cognitive approach to real communication:

> "...the semantics and pragmatics of instructional dialogue should be closely interacting with the cognitive processing and results which are our educational goals: what goes on in the classroom should not be analysed in isolation from what goes on in the heads of teachers and pupils." (Van Dijk,1981:12)

It is obvious for practising teachers that to change the nature of teacher's talk is only attainable through changing the basic activities which take place during the teaching process and instead of relying on teacher's talk as the only source of intake, we should take account of interaction between language learners themselves.

5.5.2. *Communication in the Classroom*

The question whether it is possible to create *real* communication in the language classroom or at least mitigate the artificiality of the discourse which characterizes interactions between teacher and students and students and students has become a basic issue of Methodology of our days.

As we could see earlier, the solution for making a language course communicative was thought for some considerable time to be in the presentation of the language, i.e. the functional-notional syllabus was claimed to be the key for teaching language learners to communicate. (Part II, 2.1., 2.2., 4.4.2) The failure of this approach became obvious soon after teachers finished their first courses entirely based on a functional-notional syllabus.

Although the coursebooks written according to the principles of the functional-notional syllabus have included numerous role-play activities, open dialogues and other semi-communicative tasks, language teachers soon realized that these exercises are not appropriate for teaching language learners how to communicate in the foreign language. Basically, open dialogues or role play exercises where both roles are familiar to all participants and the language content relies entirely on the coursebook text do not offer a task which is different from drills and traditional language exercises.

Creating situations for free and natural communication in the language classroom which are also meaningful, has proved to be a very difficult task.

There have been numerous attempts to grasp the principles and offer some guidelines for how to construct activities which stimulate real communication. These attempts involve the re-construction and re-organization of classroom strategies which then change group dynamics and turn-taking procedures. Teachers, either identifying themselves with the claims of the communicative approach, or under the influence of Krashen's theoretical assumptions, or taking psychological factors into consideration aim at designing activities which are motivating and are able to create a stress-free environment in which meaningful interaction can take place.

Di Pietro states that providing " diverse learner personalities with strategically oriented material," is an answer to the

> "need for learners to generalize from the conventions of language form and use presented within the constraints of the classroom to the free options and innovations needed by them in real life communication." (Di Pietro,1983:226-227)

Di Pietro claims that "the functional-notional syllabuses fail to distinguish adequately between language uses which are ritualized and those which are psychologically and culturally diverse." (Di Pietro,1983:227)

Proposing a taxonomy for role types, he draws attention to two basic dimensions behind the formal structure of discourse;

the *transactional* and the *interactional* dimension. The latter, in which the parties assume social, maturational and emotive roles is the one Di Pietro focuses on. Referring to Munby, Di Pietro defines role as a "set of norms and expectations applied to the incumbent of a particular position." (Munby, 1978:68)

Di Pietro states that roles do not exist in a communicational vacuum, but they are oppositional, e.g. to play the role of an adviser one needs someone willing to be advised. He captures this essential aspect of roles with the concept of *role reciprocation*. The strategic function of language exchanged between persons playing reciprocal roles is for the interactants to move forward a shared goal, which is perfectly understood by both parties. (Di Pietro,1983:228) Teachers should provide their students "with enough English (1) to recognize the roles of intentions of others, and (2) either to complement those roles or counter them with personally desired ones." (Di Pietro,1983:228) Di Pietro distinguishes between long-standing role relationships, i.e., (- episodic), which call for verbal strategies reflecting the players' familiarity with each other, and short-term interactions, i.e., (± episodic), where the players are not very much involved emotionally or psychologically. People often play more than one role at the same time in real-life situations.

Projecting his role taxonomy to the classroom situation, he argues that

> "interactional games may be played in which students work toward a personal solution of a clear-cut social problem. In such games, the teacher sets the scenario and then asks the students to decide what kind of solution would be most appropriate in their opinion and to create a dialogue in which the solution is realized via the English language." (Di Pietro,1983:231)

The actual teaching technique Di Pietro offers is the *open-ended scenario*

> "which was developed to expand the role-playing technique by introducing new information into a predetermined situation so as to force decisions and alter the direction of the action. In this way, students learn to make communicational choices and to develop verbal strategies with their own interactional styles." (Di Pietro,1983:233)

The two basic features of these open-ended scenarios are the time constraint imposed on the interactions and the relative unpredictability of the language thus generated.

Keith Morrow (1981), the author of many 'communicative' coursebooks and workbooks attempts to sum up the principles which might guide teachers in search of a communicative method. He means by method "some overall means of achieving the general objectives of a course, 'method as a set of procedures and techniques'. When discussing procedures he defines three basic processes which, if incorporated in the teaching procedures, either individually or together are supposed to make the procedures communicative: a) *Information gap*, b) *Choice*, c) *Feedback*.

The *Information gap* as the basis of communicative activities has already been described in this chapter (4.3.)

By *choice* Morrow means the crucial characteristic of communication "that the participants have choice, both in terms of what they will say and, more particularly, how they will say it. (Johnston,1981:62)

Feedback is in some extent implicit in the two other processes outlined above.

> "When two speakers take part in an interaction, there is normally an aim of some kind in their minds."
> "In real life it is the speaker's intention to express what he wants, e.g. what he wishes, e.g. to invite his partner, to complain to him, to threaten him or to reassure him, and this aim will be in the speaker's mind all the time he is speaking. In the classroom the aim of the interaction is the completion of a *task* they have to fulfill." (Johnston,1981:62)

Meeting these requirements of constructing communicative activities one has to bear in mind two other factors which we have found of crucial importance while using the activities of our own design.

a) the task which is set as the goal of the activity should be authentic in the sense that it *resembles* a real communicative situation, but not necessarily mirrors it.

b) the information available, as well as the information which is missing for one of the participants has to be *relevant* to all participants for the time of the activity. The relevance of the information derives from the aim of the task itself. A fictitious or imaginative goal which is not likely to be the target of any communication in life can often present a more valid and communicatively more authentic situation than e.g. activities which are quoted by Michael Swan (Part II. 4.4.3.)

In our own experience the reality of the task itself should be inherent in the reality of a made up framework, a fictitious setting which is valid for the time of the activity and not in 'real life' brought into the classroom. Not only linguistic features but also the task itself should be realistic.

In the following chapter of our thesis we would like to describe a few activities which we have used successfully and which we think can be called communicative in the sense that they stimulate real interaction between the participants.

III: LANGUAGE TEACHING GAMES AND COMMUNICATION

1. GAMES AND PLAY

To achieve the goals set by a communicative approach to language teaching which also integrates the findings of the humanistic approach to language teaching we have found that introducing *games* into the teaching process has proved successful. This is partly due to the acceptance of the general view that games can facilitate learning and to our own circumstances in which teaching took place.

To grasp the essence of games and play as an activity is difficult by giving a definition for what a game is. Even Palmer who lists a number of possible definitions of game claims that there is no generally agreed definition by which games are known. (Palmer,1983:3) Psychological analyses normally deal with games and play as activities in which children are involved during the period of their maturation and they all stress the significance of these activities in the child's mental and emotional development. (Millar,1968:21) How this universal sense for games and play remains in adults and what functions it has in the mental or emotional development of formation of the adult individual is a question which is hardly ever dealt with. The recognition, however, that games can be exploited for facilitating the learning process of different subjects, including second language learning is not a new one, although it seems to have its renaissance nowadays.

Palmer mentions three attempts to deal with the issue of defining games as representatives of a much broader range of such attempts. Sutton-Smith and Roberts (1979) define play, games, and sports as

> "types of voluntary behaviour which are integrative and innovative responses to persistent problems in the lives

> of the individuals or groups who practice them (and) further that the sphere of cultural reality occupied by the phenomena is from a functional point of view both consolidative and pre-adaptive." (cited in Palmer,1983:3)

As another extreme Palmer cites Ludwig Wittgenstein, the philosopher, who argues that defining games is impossible and that the best one can say is that games are what people use as games. (cited in Palmer,1983:3) For the purpose of his review, which is the best survey of the literature and experiments in language teaching games, Palmer accepts the characteristics Rodgers outlines: (Rodgers,1981, cited in Palmer,1983:3)

1. Gaming is *competitive*. Competition may be:
   a) Against another direct participant (e.g. chess)
   b) Against time (e.g. race heats)
   c) Against your own best performance (e.g. hammer throw)
   d) Against a specific goal (e.g. puzzle solving)
2. Gaming is *rule-governed.* There are a limited number of specific and well defined rules that all participants know about and understand. These rules cover every possible play, define play acceptability or non-acceptability, and grade plays in terms of some game values.
3. Gaming is *goal-defined.* There are a limited number of specific and well defined objectives for gaming which participants recognise and agree upon.
4. Gaming has *closure.* There is some pre-determined point at which a game is said to be finished, whether players have achieved the goals of the game or not.
5. Gaming is *engaging.* Gaming engages and challenges participants. Sometimes a game is fun, sometimes it is motivation, sometimes it is merely attention-focusing. But like an automative transmission, a game requires players to engage their mental and physical gears.

Sabrina Peck tackles the problem from a different point of view. She claims that the

> "term 'play' does not refer to a list of activities, but rather to a mode, a way, a manner of doing *any* activity. A statement that someone did something 'playfully' often expresses this consciousness that play is a mode, not an activity." (Peck,1980:154)

How play and games can facilitate learning is an issue which is also discussed from different points of view. Slobin (1964) states that both individual and social play supply a non-threatening atmosphere in which the child can learn more about himself and the world around him. Sutton Smith (1967) hypothesizes that as a result of playing, the child can adopt an 'as if' attitude with increasing ease.

Both of the above statements point out the importance of games in the child's learning process, but the factors they stress, especially the nonthreatening atmosphere is relevant to adult learning situations as well.

Palmer points out that teaching games fit in the cultural and historical development of game activites, whereby the 'intriguingly elusive issue of *fun*' (Palmer,1983:4) as the motivational character is considered a basic issue of applying games in the teaching process.

> "One of my strongest beliefs about second-language teaching is that the whole process of teaching and learning should be fun. This self-developing instruction can be enhanced by the use of games in the classroom." (Dorry, 1966, cited in Palmer,1983:4)

W.R. Lee states that

> "It is now generally accepted that language teaching not

> merely can be but should be enjoyable ... Games are enjoyable." (Lee,1979:1)

What fun is and what is enjoyable can be approached from different aspects. Dorry finds the competitive value as the source of enjoyment, while Lee points out the co-operative, socializing aspects of gaming. (Dorry,1966; Lee,1979:1, cited in Palmer,1983:5)

2. LANGUAGE TEACHING GAMES AND THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

As to the practical issues of language teaching almost all theoreticians dealing with the communicative approach to language teaching advise teachers to use games in the teaching process. (Canale, 1983:19) Krashen claims that

> "our position is that games can serve very well as the basis for important experience in the acquisition process. ... Games qualify as an acquisition activity since they can be used to give comprehensible input. Students are normally interested in the outcome of the game and in most cases the focus of attention is on the game itself and not the language form used to play the game." (Krashen,1983:121)

It is obvious that not each kind of game provides opportunity for communication. Palmer arrays language teaching games along a communicativity scale with examples taken from well-known language teaching games collections. (Palmer,1983:7)

The six-feature communication model presented by Palmer (1983:8-9) is a complex and clearly defined set of characteristics a good communication game has to possess. However elaborate the descriptions of 'good' communication games are,

the ultimate test of a game is whether it works or not in the classroom. It is however, extremely difficult to assess or measure the validity of these activities.

Almost no data are available regarding the instructional effectiveness of communicative language teaching games, Palmer claims, and so their potential effectiveness is only estimated. These potentials being highly positive and can serve a bridge to broader consideration of the use of communicative language games in second language teaching. (Palmer,1983:9-10)

The same claim is expressed by Richards (1984) where he urges the need for 'rigorous evaluation' of the language which results in communicative classrooms, through using interactive games and information gap activities.

Our own experience is that the lack of data in the research of effectiveness is not due to the lack of interest for these activities, rather the difficulty of assessment or measuring of any kind - of qualitative or of quantitative nature - . Isolated performance recording of linguistic data would exclude the basic issue of the success of a game, i.e. teacher-learners, learners-learners relationship and the general atmosphere during the teaching process, as well as in one particular language class. Numerous video recordings with a wide range of categories which also refer to paralinguistic aspects like non-verbal communication, gestures as well as turn-taking, communicative and discourse strategies would be able to give some kind of idea of what value these activities have. Even those experiments would exclude the evaluation of attitudes, motivation and even personality factors, where empirical demonstration is impossible. (Oller, 1981)

We have to be satisfied with intuitive and rather subjective estimations and inappropriate evaluation grids which measure only one or a few aspects of a very complex process.

The rather subjective impressions we have had during the recent years of experimenting with communicative language teaching games in the secondary school language classroom fall back on this difficulty of assessment, but they still might be a useful contribution to the set of aspects, factors and data which influence and modify the use of these activities.

3. PERSONAL EXPERIENCE

3.1. Special Factors Considered

The communication games which we are going to describe in the following chapter and numerous other activities included in the collection of our book (Matheidesz,1982) were tried out with secondary school children (age 14-18) who were learning English as a foreign language in special classes of English (i.e. 5 lessons a week). These learners had already had some affinity towards the English language, their integrative motivation lying in an increasing interest in the language itself, in English speaking countries and their culture.

The age of puberty, as the critical age for language acquisition, offered some special problems for consideration.

3.1.1. Age

Puberty is the most critical age from all aspects of man's mental development, including language learning.

According to Krashen's theory, children above 14 have already passed the critical age of language acquisition and they are considered adult language learners. These language learners are, however, no adults and their special sensitivity towards all fields of learning is well-known to teachers. Krashen and Terrell themselves acknowledge some differences between adult language learners and adolescents. During adolescence children develop an increased ability to think abstractly which then allows them to conceptualize other people's thoughts better than adults. They still possess the child-like openness, greed and willingness to learn about the world around them. On the other hand, teenagers become self-centered and preoccupied with their own appearance and behaviour which is paired with hyper-sensitivity and self-consciousness. These factors are contradicting and it is the teachers' task to cope with them and exploit them to the greatest extent.

Krashen and Terrell also state that the psychological difficulties of the age of puberty make this a period "where the affective filter gains strength significantly." (Krashen, 1983:46) They also claim, however, that adolescents have proved a higher speed of acquisition which is probably due to the fact that they may receive more comprehensive input. (Krashen,1983:46)

3.1.2. The Classroom Setting

The students we were teaching all learned English exclusively in the foreign language classroom. They had hardly any access to authentic language situations.

The secondary school setting in Hungary has special modifying factors:

1) The usual situation in a secondary school language class is that both the teachers and the language learners in the class have the same mother tongue. In this situation the teacher faces the special problems of a monolingual group, as well as the special problem of his own status in the language class. Even if we exclude the existing difficulty of this fact, i.e. that the teacher himself is not an authentic person and has his own problems of mastering the second language, and thus is constantly struggling with fear, inferiority complex and often realizes how inadequate his own fluency is compared to that of a native speaker, we are in an entirely different situation from what most theoreticians hold for ideal, i.e. the immersion class, a multi-lingual group, where the teacher is a native speaker and the only means of communication between the members of the class is the target language.

2) Games in education have hardly any tradition in Hungary, neither have simulation activities or drama teaching. The secondary school atmosphere - even today - presupposes 'hard work' and 'strict' teachers. The classroom is the place where pupils 'get' information and data and where learning takes place. Learning is an activity by which the learner gets information from the teacher and can leave the classroom with a definite set of data; in the case of a language class, with a certain number of words and phrases, sentence patterns, syntactic rules or grammar paradigms. Checking up on the knowledge thus gained is also an essential part of the language lesson; oral or written tests take up a considerable time of secondary school language teaching.

Here we have given a very rough description of the usual language teaching classroom ideas, but unfortunately these expectations are still prevailing in the language teaching scene.

The introduction of a language game in a Hungarian secondary school language class has positive and negative upshots. The positive aspect of the lack of tradition lies in the fact that a language game offers an entirely new situation, strikingly different from the routine of other classes. This already means success, and if the game really means fun, the goals are attained. The negative aspect of these factors were also often observed. Classes, where one or two domineering students have the idea that games are childish and beyond their interest could often cause the complete failure of these activities. The lack of tradition, however, manifested itself mostly in the failure of simulation and role-play activities which presuppose some basic performing abilities, body movements, exaggeration etc. Hungarian teenagers have hardly any opportunity to practise these abilities and one can rely entirely on the instinctive capabilities, usually still preserved in adolescents.

My overall experience, however, has been that the introduction of a well constructed game, especially one that needs argumentation, has always been enthusiastically welcomed by students of 17 and 18, while competitive games were extremely popular with the first and second class pupils (14-16 year olds).

4. THE DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITIES

We have collected games and activities which involve all the four basic skills - reading, writing, listening, speaking - but in this thesis we are presenting only activities which facilitate speaking, an area where the construction of these activities is the most difficult. Our classification covers both language functions and grammatical structures, as well as a broad category of 'communication games'

where the basic emphasis is laid on free oral communication. (Matheidesz,1982)

To demonstrate our idea of a communicative task in the special setting of a Hungarian secondary school language class we have chosen six activities all centred around one language function, i.e. describing people, and one board game which embraces all sorts of linguistic and communication tasks.

4.1. Describing with Purpose*

Teaching how to describe people and objects is thought to be an easy job: just stick a picture on the wall and let the students describe it either by asking them to speak about the picture or make them write sentences about it. As the task involves visual aids, and these — especially if they are colourful and interesting or funny and curious — always cause some excitement in the classroom, teachers hardly ever realize how absurd and how little authentic the task itself is: we hardly ever describe things, persons or a picture which everybody can see.

It is, however, very easy to find activities which provide a meaningful task if we try to give a twist to the basic idea of describing pictures. As there are classical information-gap activities like *Spot the differences, Find the missing parts,* etc. for describing objects, we shall describe some games and activities which have worked very well in our classes when we wanted to practise the language and ways of how to describe people.

Five of the six activities described below are played with the same set of picture cards which can be easily produced

* *M. Matheidesz: Practical English Teaching (in press)*

by the teachers. We used magazine pictures glued on cardboard. It is essential for the games that the cardboards on which we stick the pictures should be the same size. To make the activities more difficult from the language point of view, it is better to use black and white photos, as colours might make the task too easy.

The pack of cards contains portraits of different people which might include some famous personalities or photos of people the whole group knows. I have prepared a pack of 96 photos and photocopied each picture for another pack. This double-pack allows a number of variations for the different games. The number of cards needed varies in each game.

1. IDENTITY

The game is played in pairs.

The set: The two players of a pair play with two identical packs, with a minimum of six to a maximum of 16 cards. More cards make the game more difficult. Each pair needs two big cardboards or magnetic boards on which all the cards can be arranged. The boards will also serve as a *wall* between the two players.

Preparation: Draw or deal out 6 to 16 cards to one of the players of each pair who then selects the copies of the same portraits from the other pack. To save time, the teacher can also select the sets for each pair before the activity starts.

Procedure: The first player, i.e. the one who got the pictures first, arranges his/her cards as he/she pleases on the board, making sure that his/her partner cannot see the order of the pictures. The teacher can give a time limit for this activity. The second player can inspect the pictures in his/her hand during this time.

After the first player has finished arranging the picture cards on his/her board, the second player must try to attach his/her pictures in the same arrangement on the board, without seeing his/her partner's hand. To achieve this goal the players have to give accurate descriptions of the faces. They can do this by taking turns in asking questions or giving information about the pictures.

E.g.: *Is the first picture in the first row a man or a woman?*
Has he/she got glasses?
Has he got a moustache? etc.

or: *The picture next to the lady is the photo of a man. He is about 40. He has long, dark curly hair.*
etc.

The winner of the game is the pair whose second player manages to find the same arrangement of pictures in the shortest time. The basic rule of the game is that neither of the players is allowed to show his/her pictures to the other one. Thus, they are not allowed to ask: *Is this the picture that fits in the second place?* - by showing a picture. It should also be made clear at the beginning that the first player is not allowed to change his/her arrangement during the game, while the other player can freely re-arrange his/her pictures till he/she thinks that he/she has reached the final order.

The activity can be made more difficult if, instead of drawing the pictures from the pack or dealing them out, the teacher selects a set in which there are only portraits of men or women, or all the people have glasses, etc. In this case the descriptions have to cover all the delicate details to get to the identifications.

Variation 1.: If we want to focus on asking for information about the portraits, we can advise the first player to give very short answers to his/her partner to make it hard for him/her to get all the information he/she needs. In this game the two players of one pair work against each other, so the winner is the one who manages to keep back his/her partner from finding the right order. We have to warn players at the beginning that they are not allowed to give false information or lie.

Variation 2.: The same game can be played with a slight modification to make it more interesting. After arranging the portraits, the first player picks one picture which he puts face down on his/her desk. The second player has to aim at finding this picture and its place on the board. The first player is not allowed to give any information about the picture he/she put aside, so the second player has to find all the other pictures and put them in the right place to be able to identify the portrait on the desk. The winner of the game is the pair whose second player finds the chosen picture first.

2. *SUSPECTS*

A game for 4 to 20 players.

The set: The number of cards for one game varies according to the number of players: each player should have four cards + one card. E.g.: 6 players will need 25 cards. (6 x 4 = 24 + 1 = 25)

Preparation: Put all the cards face up on the table to allow the players to examine them for a couple of minutes. Deal out 4 cards to each player. Put the card which remains in the dealer's hand face down in the middle of the table, making sure that nobody can see it.

Procedure: The dealer starts the game by putting a question to any of the other players in order to get some information about the cards in the other player's hand. E.g.: *Have you got the woman with long fair hair?* The player must give a true answer and then it is his/her turn to ask any of the other players. Each player can ask one question at a time but they are not allowed to give false information or lie. The task of the players is to identify the card on the table without looking at it and at each other's cards. The game is based on good memory: the more faces you can recall, the more chance you have to infer which picture lies on the table. If a player thinks that he wants to make a guess, he/she has to give a very accurate description of the person whose picture he thinks in on the table. If nobody recognizes the face in their hands, the player can turn up the card. If his/her description matches the picture, he/she is the winner of the game. If somebody recognizes the picture which the player who guesses is describing, he/she has to identify it by asking about or naming some details. E.g.: *Has he/she got very short hair, because I have a woman with extremely short hair. etc.* Each correct guess scores one point for the player, but each wrong guess scores minus one point! After the picture has been turned up, a new game starts. Use a different set of portraits or change at least some of the portraits in the pack for each new game!

3. *FIND THE PAIR*

A game for 4 to 20 players.

The set: The number of cards in the set depends on the number of players. Each player should get at least 6 cards of a pack which consists of two copies of each photo.

Preparation: Deal out 6 or more cards to each player. Each player inspects his/her cards and if they find one or more pairs, they put them out in front of them on the table.

Procedure: The dealer starts the game by giving an accurate description of any of the pictures in his/her hand. If one of the players recognizes the pair of the described picture, he/she gets the card and puts the pair out in front of him/her on the table. It is his/her turn now to describe one of his/her pictures. The aim of the game is to find the pair of each picture. If somebody has wrongly identified a face, he/she has to keep the picture in his/her hand and he/she loses the chance of describing a second portrait. The player who gave the description has another chance for identifying another pair. The winner of the game is the player who ends up with the greatest number of pairs.

4. *FIND THE CAHRACTERS*

The game is played in groups of 3 to 6 players.

The set: 6 to 10 portraits for each group.

Preparation: For this activity you will also need a listening material of any kind, i.e. dialogues, short stories, etc.

Preparation: Work through the listening material according to the needs of the group and their standard of English. Divide the class into as many groups as many characters you have in the listening material.

Procedure: Give 6 to 10 portraits to each group. Ask them to discuss which of the pictures they think would match one

of the characters in the conversation or story they have listened to. After they have come to an agreement, they have to give their pictures to another group and choose another character from another set of pictures.

After each group has found their characters from the different picture sets, collect all the pictures and shuffle them. Put all the portraits face up on the table and ask one of the groups to describe the characters they have chosen. The other students have to identify the characters and they can also discuss their choices. E.g.: *I think one of the speakers was this man. He had a smooth, gentlemanlike voice and sounded very intelligent. He also sounded a bit sarcastic sometimes. This man's face is very calm but he looks as if can be very sarcastic. etc.*

After all the groups have described their chosen characters and they all have been identified, the groups can act out a conversation between their chosen characters, referring back to the original listening material. If it was a conversation, they have to make up a conversation about the same topic in the same situation. If it was a story, they have to pick one possible situation from the story line and make up a conversation between the characters in this situation. They should try to build up the fictitious characters according to their pictures and try to use gestures, phrases and intonation the way they imagine the person.

5. *COMPUTER DATING*

The game is played in groups of 3 to 6.

The set: 4 to 6 portraits for each group. For this game you will need newspaper ads cut out of the Lonely Hearts Column.

Preparation: Give some small ads and some pictures to each group. (Use at least the same number of ads as pictures, but the game is more interesting with more ads.) The groups in this game represent computer dating agencies which try to find ideal partners for the people whose data or portraits they have.

Procedure: First the groups have to check if they might find some ideal pairs of one person who advertised and one who has sent his/her picture to the agency among their own pictures and ads. For those people who remained without partners they have to find one from the pictures or ads of the other groups. The agencies, i.e. the groups are not allowed to show their pictures to each other, neither can they read out the advertisements. They have to give a brief description of the person for whom they are trying to find a partner, or a summary of what the person who advertised wants. Any matching between one ad and one picture is acceptable as long as the group can give reasons for their choice. The other groups act as judges who decide whether they accept the other groups' choices. All the groups have to aim at finding an ideal partner for all their pictures.

This activity involves quite a lot of discussion, argumentation and giving reasons as well as the language of describing.

Variation for two groups: If we want to divide the class into two groups only, we can give all the advertisements to one group and the pictures to the other one. The procedure of the game is basically the same, but here only the group with the pictures will give descriptions.

Follow-up activity: After each person in the pictures has a partner, a student with a picture and a student with the

matching advertisement act out a conversation between the two persons in a pub or restaurant at their first meeting.

6. *HEADS AND TAILS*

The game can be played in pairs or in two groups of 3 to 10.

The set: Magazine pictures of people with the whole body, cut in halves so that the heads and the bodies get on separate cards of the same size. The number of cards you use in a set is not fixed. The more cards you use, the more difficult the game is. If played in groups, you need a minimum of one card for each player. If played in pairs, you need at least 3 pictures for each pair.

Preparation: Give all the cards with the heads to one player or to one group, and the cards with the bodies to the other.

Procedure: The players take turns in describing their pictures. The player or players of the group with heads in their hands start the game by describing the face of the person in the picture. The other player or players of the group try to match up the bodies in their hands with the face. The aim of the game is to match up all the heads with the bodies. As the players are not allowed to see each other's picture cards, they can reach this goal by taking turns in asking questions about the other's pictures or giving accurate descriptions of their own pictures.

E.g.: Players with heads in their hands can ask:

Is it a man or a woman whose body you have in your hand?
Is he young?
Does he wear a tie?
Is he/she dressed smartly? etc.

or they can give some information about their pictures:

I have got the portrait of a young man who looks very modern.
He has a fashionable haircut. etc.

If we cut the pictures with a bit of the clothing on the head card, e.g. part of the tie, pullover or shirt, we make the task easier. After a pair or the players of a group think they have managed to find the fitting cards they stick them on the blackboard. Misfits should also be kept together on the blackboard for fun!

4.2. Observations

The most striking difference between using these activities and a simple picture description was that students became entirely involved in the task. They were intrigued by the pictures and the aim of each activity seemed to capture them.

As to the communicative value of these activities we found it very important that language learners used description for what it is normally used for: identifying or visualizing the person, describing somebody to someone who doesn't know the person, or describe somebody for introducing him or her or try to fit him or her for a certain job , status etc.

The situations are fictitious — we can hardly think that our students will find their partners through English Computer Dating Agencies or work for these, neither can we assume that they will act as detectives, but the communicative situation is real: we exchange information about something we do not know, we want to get information for some definite purpose in order to achieve a goal. The framework of each activity becomes reality for the time of the game and gives meaning to the whole procedure.
Our classes had been 'trained' to these activities, but we still feel that the fact that they hardly ever attempted to

speak in their mother tongue during the games, means that they accepted it as game for English speaking. Their linguistic utterances were guided, as the games were used as the last step of practising the vocabulary and structures used for describing, but the actual utterances during the games were spontaneous and had to be adapted to constantly new and unpredictable situations. In some of the games the language of description was used together with other language functions. (Computer dating, Find the characters)

4.3. A Communication Board Game: Running Errands*

"Running errands" has been successfully used for consolidating the vocabulary of shopping and running errands as well as several functions of English, like greeting/thanking people, polite requests, asking for/giving information, describing objects, asking for objects etc. As a teaching game for use in the classroom, the game has been designed to allow a large number of players (up to 15) to participate. A minimum of 3 players is essential, but the game gets really interesting with 4 or more players.

The game requires three different activities from the players:

1. recognizing and understanding the names of shops, offices and facilities in a town,
2. selecting the places they need for completing their tasks and working out a strategy for moving on the board,
3. acting out meaningful conversations in order to move on the board.

The game can be played at all levels. The exchange of information can be very simple, follow a strict pattern or include all kinds of interaction without any limitations.

* *M. Matheidesz: Modern English Teacher 1985/3*

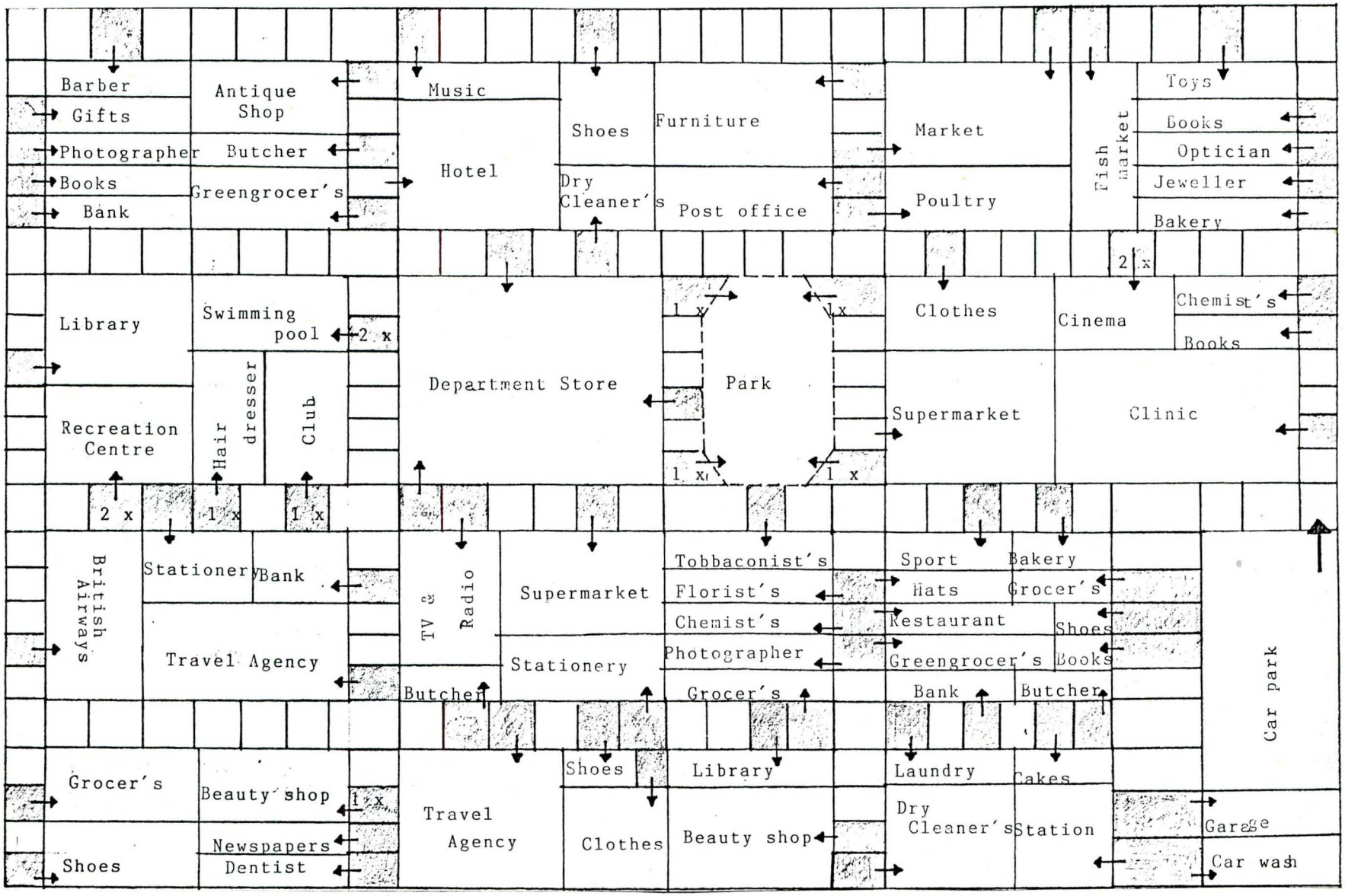
Introduction: The game presupposes some background knowledge. The players have to be familiar with shops and offices and what they are used for, where certain things can be bought or arranged in England. If the teacher feels it is not common knowledge, it should be discussed with the help of the board before the game starts. Then the rules of the game should be explained. The game is played in the anti-clockwise direction. The conversations take place between the player whose turn it is and the next player.

Equipment: one rectangular board (size approx.: 50 x 70 cm
(see p. 129)
a set of dice
counters (one for each player)
15 penalty cards
60 instruction cards

Five penalty cards indicate:	CLOSED Come back after 3 turns
Five penalty cards indicate:	BANKRUPT Find another place or Miss 2 turns
Five penalty cards indicate:	OUT OF STOCK Come back after 2 turns
Five penalty cards indicate:	NOT READY Miss 1 turn

The instruction cards indicate different errands:

E.g.: Take your suit or dress to the dry cleaner's
Reserve a table at a restaurant for tonight for 4 people
Fetch your glasses
Buy Women's Magazine
Go shopping: cheese
hamburger
1 lb mince
gift for Granny
Buy two cinema tickets


Barber
Gifts
Photographer
Books
Bank
Antique Shop
Butcher
Greengrocer's
Music
Hotel
Shoes
Dry Cleaner's
Furniture
Post office
Market
Poultry
Fish market
Toys
Books
Optician
Jeweller
Bakery
2 x
Library
Swimming pool
2 x
Hair dresser
Club
Department Store
1 x
Park
1 x
1 x
1 x
Clothes
Cinema
Chemist's
Books
Supermarket
Clinic
Recreation Centre
2 x
1 x
1 x
British Airways
Stationery
Bank
Travel Agency
TV & Radio
Supermarket
Stationery
Butcher
Tobbaconist's
Florist's
Chemist's
Photographer
Grocer's
Sport
Hats
Restaurant
Greengrocer's
Bank
Bakery
Grocer's
Shoes
Books
Butcher
Car park
Grocer's
Shoes
Beauty shop
1 x
Newspapers
Dentist
Travel Agency
Shoes
Clothes
Library
Beauty shop
Laundry
Dry Cleaner's
Cakes
Station
Garage
Car wash

Get some traveller's cheques
Post two letters
Send a telegram
Do your daily shopping: buy 5 different items
Get the newspaper or a magazin
Get some cigarettes
Buy some flowers for your friend's birthday
Book two flight tickets
Make enquiries about the departure/arrival of the London train
Collect your washing
Return three books to the local library
Get a Kodak colour film developed
Get your car washed
Get a photo taken of yourself
Get your hair cut
Arrange an appointment with your doctor
You need a pair of gym-shoes
a writing pad and a rubber
motor oil for your car
a hat
a warm pullover
some aspirin etc.
You have a strong pain in your chest, see your doctor
Your car has run out of petrol
Your tennis racket is broken, buy another one
Your glasses are broken
You have left your towel in the swimming pool, try to find it
You have saved up 50 pounds, go and spend it. Buy 2 items.

The list of instructions is open-ended. The selection of instructions offers a wide range of varieties of topics and

scenes and extends the adaptability of the game. As a variation, a list compiled by the teacher can be distributed to each player. The board itself can also be modified in many different ways: map of a village, a district in a big city, a shopping centre, a market etc.

How to play the game: Each player draws 1 penalty card and 6 instruction cards. (The number of instruction cards drawn can also vary according to the number of players or other considerations, like time.) The instruction cards go together to form a list of errands for the players. A few minutes are allowed now to the players to work out the most sensible route for running their errands.

The object of the game is to reach the black squares on the board where the tasks given on the instruction cards can be managed and then to get back to the car park as soon as possible. The winner of the game is the person who gets back first to the car park with all his instruction cards face down, i.e. with all his errands completed.

The first player throws the dice and moves in any direction on the board according to the number indicated on the dice. If he lands on a place he does not need for any of his errands, the next player throws the dice. The players take their turns at throwing the dice till one of the players reaches a square where he intends to arrange one of his errands. He then turns to the player on his right and they act out the conversation simulating the real situation.
E.g.: The player lands on the black square which leads to the optician and he has the instruction card "Fetch your glasses."
The player: *Good morning.*
His partner: *Good morning, Sir.*

1. *I wonder if my new glasses are ready.*
2. *Just a moment, Sir. I'll have a look. Can I have your name, please?*
1. *John White.*
2. *John White? Yes, here they are. Would you like to try them on?*

After the conversation has been acted out the player places his instruction card face down in front of himself. The player who has been involved in the conversation gets a bonus of two steps on the board and now it is his turn to throw the dice.

If the player involved in the conversation happens to have the penalty card "Not ready", he can use it to delay his partner. The conversation between the two players might sound like this:

The player: *Good morning.*
His partner: *Good morning, Sir.*
1. *I wonder if my new glasses are ready yet.*
2. *Just a moment, Sir, I'll have a look. What's your name, Sir?*
1. *John White.*
2. *John White? No, Sir. I'm afraid, they are not ready yet. Would you please come back on Tuesday.*

Each player can use his penalty card once during the whole game at any point where he acts as a partner in a conversation. Players, however, have to consider the limitations of the meaning of these cards.

If two players land on the same square — either white or black — they have to act out a conversation between two friends who meet in the street.

E.g.: 1. *Hello, Jane. Where are you off to?*
2. *Oh, just to the butcher to get some mince for dinner. And you?*

1. *I am just about to find a present for my aunt.*
2. *See you then.*
1. *Bye, bye.*

After the conversation has been finished both players get a bonus of 3 steps on the board.

There are some squares on the board where each player who lands on this square gets a penalty. They have to miss turns according to the number indicated on the square.
E.g.: Swimming pool: Miss 2 turns.

If a player does his shopping in a supermarket, he has to adapt his conversation to the situation. As all the goods are on the shelves in a supermarket, he has to find out where the things he wants can be found.

E.g.: *Excuse me, Miss. Where can I find almonds, please? etc.*

4.4. Observations

This simulation type game attempts to bridge the gap between real world and the reality of the language classroom. We often invite our students to act out simulations like the ones needed during the procedure of this game.

The basic difference between isolated simulations of this kind and this game is the framework, which, through giving a set of rules for how to act out the conversations and what and where to act them out defines the situation and offers a setting for the whole activity.

Instead of involving one pair, this game regulates a fairly systematic turn-taking process for each participant. As the

series of conversations have an ultimate aim, the reality of this board game is valid for the classroom, while any other conversation with the settings 'in a shop' or, 'at the optician' fails to simulate a real situation and generate real communication. As the players are not familiar with the task their fellow players have to carry out, and they themselves have some chance to interfere with the course of the game (penalty cards) the game stimulates conversations with real meaning.

CONCLUSION

1. Instead of owing to a purely linguistic aspect, the study of language learning of our age reflects the complexity of this process, and approaches the issue from different starting points. Both main trends of interdisciplinary studies, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics have enormous impact on the work of theoreticians, and these two new areas have opened up new fields of studies within the scope of linguistics.

2. The findings of the research in all areas of language cannot be directly adapted to the practice of second language teaching. The language teacher's best attitude is to keep pace with new developments and to attempt to integrate the new findings into practice through constant reconsideration and modification of the theory. Findings of the language classroom are to be considered as valuable contribution to theory.

3. The most important finding of sociolinguistics is the claim that not only linguistic forms but also communication should be taught during the second language learning process.

4. Psycholinguistics emphasizes the importance of psychological and affective factors in the second language learning process.

5. The new target Methodology sets as its goal is not to find one best method but to find procedures and techniques with which the new goals of language teaching can be attained.

6. We have to accept the fact that the language classroom is — if not always the only — but a very important scene where

language learners can encounter situations similar to real language situations. It is the task of teachers and theoreticians to find the ways with which language learners can be taught in the classroom to arm themselves with strategies both linguistic and communicative which then enable them to cope with real language situations.

7. These activities have to create a non-threatening atmosphere in which language learners feel free to behave as if they were carrying out the same task as in their own mother tongue.

8. Relying on motivation as an important factor of language learning teachers have to exploit the potentials of fun as a means of creating an ideal attitude to the learning process. This is especially important with children and adolescents.

9. A possible way for bridging the gap between reality of the outside world and that of the classroom is to construct activities and games which offer a fictitious framework or setting, thus giving an aim to the activity and making it meaningful.

10. The evaluation of these activities can rely on a very complex set of different criteria which include linguistic and paralinguistic factors and also owe to affectivity and other psychological considerations.

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