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Theory and Practice of Reactivation in the Standard Oral Lesson

Dumery Noe Serge

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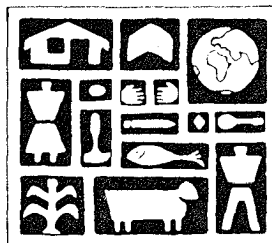
Theory and Practice of Reactivation in the Standard Oral Lesson

A Master's Project
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Theory and Practice of Reactivation in
the Standard Oral Lesson

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Introduction

In this Master's project I would like to propose a technique that will enable school learners of English as a Foreign Language to become more conversant with some structures which are seldom used in the students' active repertoire. By the time they reach "Seconde" (10th grade), learners have been introduced to most intermediate and a good number of advanced structures of the English language. However, some of these structures are used by the students only passively, that is they are recognized only in reading or when they are heard. To reinforce the structures which they recognize as they read or as they are being spoken to, Krashen would recommend that the teacher continue exposing students to natural language for acquisition to occur. Personal experience, however, has shown that while some pupils can spontaneously become expert users of various grammar structures by simply being exposed to language, others need more scaffolding provided by the teacher for a longer period of time.

In this paper, I will begin by analyzing five language approaches and methods. These are the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method, Total Physical Response and the Natural Approach. To make a thorough analysis of each of these methods and approaches, I will make use of Richards and Rodgers (1986) model of investigation. We will then see how each of these approaches has influenced the Standard Oral Lesson, the most commonly used method in the Cote d'Ivoire.

I feel a need to analyze the Standard Oral Lesson not so much because of the status it has been given in the Ivorian English language classes, but also because it is one lesson type that provides an opportunity for reactivation. At a later stage, I will try to perceive some limits of the reactivation technique. Subsequently, to this step I will attempt to provide some solutions to those limits.

The Grammar Translation Method -- The Traditional Approach

As can be assumed from the title, this method focuses on the teaching of the target language grammar. It aims at translating from and into the target language.

Background

The Grammar-Translation Method has been in existence prior to all other methods of language instruction (Kelly 1969). It started becoming popular in the mid 18th century in Europe. It also used to be referred to as the "classical method" since it was used to in the teaching of classical languages, namely Latin and Greek.

In a nutshell, this method consisted of teaching a grammar point deductively, followed by listing relevant vocabulary items. The learners were then given a text that they were supposed to translate accurately.

The Grammar-Translation Method lost popularity in the 1940s as it became the object of attacks from followers of alternative methods who claimed that it did not promote oral fluency and that an oral/aural approach could not help develop writing skills (Johnson 1989). However, the Grammar-Translation method is still in use in various settings. Unlike other methods, it has no literature to justify its legitimacy in educational theory or psycho-linguistics.

Theoretical Assumptions

In the Grammar-Translation method, the first language constitutes the students' frame of reference and is supposed to be of paramount importance in the acquisition of the target language. The learners are committed to learning and memorizing deductive explanations of grammar rules as well as lists of vocabulary words and expressions.

Objectives

The Grammar-Translation method serves as a tool to study literary texts written in the target language. It imposes on the learner a detailed knowledge of the grammar that has to be committed to memory, so as to accurately translate texts into the L¹ (first language) or L² (second language). Because of such foci, "writing" (that is, copying and word for word translation) and reading are the only skills used; no room is left for speaking and listening. Beyond learning the grammar of the foreign language, the learner is expected to gain more insight into his/her own first language grammar, and hence, be able to communicate better in writing and speaking in his/her own language (Larsen-Freeman 1986). The Grammar-Translation method is furthermore considered to be a form of mental exercise that will subsequently help learners develop memory and learning skills that they could extend to other subjects (Larsen-Freeman 1986; Richard 1986; Stern 1983).

Teaching and Learning Techniques

Learning occurs deductively as the teacher explains the grammatical point(s) or rule(s), which may also be present in the textbook the class is using. The teacher does not refrain from using the grammar terminology. The subsequent drills and exercises consist of translating printed materials of various length, ranging from simple words to entire texts depending on the level of the learner. Since the learner is supposed to have some insight into both L¹ and L², translation from and into both languages ("Theme et Version") is the rule.

Teacher's Role

The teacher assumes a very central role in such a setting. S/He is the absolute depository of knowledge and reigns as the master. Because of the nature of the method, s/he is supposed to be more skillful at explaining the grammar with the appropriate terminology than at speaking the language. The teacher has total control over the syllabus as the grammar structures are graded according to their difficulty. The teacher's role is seen as predominant as s/he is to provide feedback after almost every faulty utterance, unless s/he decides the student herself/himself or his/her peers should do so.

Learner's Role

In such a teacher-centered classroom, the learner becomes a very dependent on the former. During any activity, the student's level of anxiety rises rather sharply, as any mistakes are thought to be a breach of the grammar rule. High levels of achievement are expected of learners, as Howatt explains, because of "the high priority attached to meticulous standards of accuracy which, as well as having intrinsic moral value, was a prerequisite for passing the increasing number of formal written examinations that grew up during the 20th century" (1984, p. 132).

The Role of Instructional Materials

In the Grammar-Translation method, most materials consist of text-books stuffed with passages of varied lengths, written in either L¹ (first language) or L² (second language). After each passage, explicit grammatical statements are made (in the L¹) so that they serve the students as crutches in the understanding of both their first and second language. Grammar committed to memory is supposed to ease the process of translation. Most books (if not all of the books) written for this method contain an exhaustive word list at the end of the passage to be translated or, better, at the end of the book for general referral. Students are advised to work with bilingual dictionaries because no matter how exhaustive, such word-lists are limited. Little attention, if any, is paid to pronunciation. The use of materials related to the Grammar-Translation method presupposes the constant presence of the teacher as s/he is supposed to monitor activities at all times.

Conclusion

The Grammar-Translation method consistently uses the first language as the "reference system" (Stern 1983, p. 455). A detailed knowledge of the L² grammar and a thorough knowledge of the list of words which are learned individually by rote in both languages (e.g. book -- *livre*, tree -- *arbre*, . . .) are deemed necessary for access to the 2nd language.

At the time the Grammar-Translation method was in favor, language was considered only as a set of grammatical rules to be committed to memory and to be applied by translating passages/texts into or from a target language. The Grammar-Translation method was stigmatized because of this; this later gave rise to the "Reform Movement" that was to produce the "Direct Method" which we will now discuss.

The Direct Method

The Direct Method soon became the venerable alternative in foreign language teaching as it consistently distinguished itself from the Grammar-Translation method. Its proponents contended that the use of the first language was unnecessary to access the target language even though the translation process enabled intellectual insight into the target language. As the term "direct" in Direct Approach suggests, the medium of instruction is the target language.

Background

The Direct Method originated as a counter movement to the Grammar-Translation method in the 19th century. The need to *speak* foreign languages was felt to be crucial as new means of transportation brought people of different horizons together and as international trade developed.

Gouin's "L'Art d'Enseigner les Langues" (1880), also known as Gouin's series (Richard 1986) provided the theoretical framework for a new era in foreign language teaching. Other contributors such as Ollendorf and Prendergast also participated in the "reform movement." However, though their ideas showed radical alternatives, they did not take hold because none of them belonged to strong academic circles where their ideas could be turned into practice. If we consider that professional journals, conferences and articles contribute to the spread of ideas, we can understand one more reason why this new radical trend failed to take hold quickly.

Later on, members of the prominent academic circle like Vietor and Sweet, took over from their predecessors and brought their ideas to public knowledge in both national and international circles. This reform movement greatly influenced the new trend in foreign language teaching and gave birth to the Direct Method in the late 19th century.

Theoretical Assumptions

Vietor's work (1882) gave an account of the importance of phonetics in the process of foreign language learning. Because second language acquisition was similar to first language acquisition, he followed the associationist theory, believing that learners needed to associate

language production (sounds) to the environment. In this view, grammatical rules assumed less importance than they had before. (Rulcher 1969). Diller states:

Knowing a rule and being able to act on it is quite independent of being able to formulate the rule adequately. The rule can be psychologically real without any formulation of it. . . Rules for action are best learned in conjunction with demonstration and practice of the action. (1971, p. 27)

Objectives

The most prevalent feature of the Direct Method is speech, as can be seen in Titone's main recommendations (1968). His thirteen guidelines make obvious the differences between the Direct Method and the Grammar-Translation Method:

Never translate	--	Demonstrate
Never explain	--	Act
Never make a speech	--	Ask questions
Never imitate mistakes	--	Correct
Never speak with single words	--	Use sentences
Never speak too much	--	Make students speak much
Never use your book	--	Use your lesson plan
Never jump around	--	Follow your plan
Never go too fast	--	Keep the pace of the student
Never speak too slowly	--	Speak normally
Never speak too quickly	--	Speak naturally
Never speak too loudly	--	Speak naturally
Never be impatient	--	Take it easy

(1968, p. 100-101)

The broad guidelines of the Direct Method are also present in the 1st, 4th and 5th articles of the I.P.A. (International Phonetic Alphabet):

Article 1 Foreign language study should begin with the spoken language of every day life, and not with the relatively archaic language of literature.

Article 4 In the early stages, grammar should be taught inductively, complementing and generalizing language facts observed during reading. A more systematic study of grammar should be postponed to the advanced stages of the course.

Article 5 As far as possible expressions in the foreign language should be related by the teacher directly to ideas and other expressions in the language, and not to the native language. The teacher should take every opportunity to replace

translation with reference to real objects or pictures or with explanations given in the foreign language (Stern 1983, p. 89).

As can be observed, however, the I.P.A. makes some room for "crosslingual" learning at very advanced stages. The direct method, it is obvious, made no such concession.

Teaching and Learning Techniques

Frank (1884) as mentioned by Richard (1986), gives an account of the theoretical reason for this monolingual approach to language teaching. In the early stages of language learning, no textbook is used until the learner has acquired the basics of pronunciation and sentence construction. However, grammar is acquired deductively (i.e., learners infer rules on their own as they are exposed to natural language use), though Krashen questions the genuineness of such interactions:

- T:** Fait-il beau aujourd'hui?
S: Non, il ne fait pas beau aujourd'hui.
T: Irez-vous cependant a la plage le week-end?
S: Oui, j'irai cependant a la plage le week-end.
T: Irez-vous a la plage bien qu'il ne fasse pas beau?
S: Oui, j'irai a la plage bien qu'il ne.... (1980)

Vocabulary is demonstrated concretely by showing students real objects or by other visual support. Abstract concepts are taught by association of ideas (Richard 1986). Stevick (1982) uses a well known example of a Direct-Method lesson at the most elementary level of language learning:

- I am closing the door.
I am walking to the desk.
I am picking up a book.
I am opening the book. (p. 84)

Verb tenses can be demonstrated in the same way:

- I closed the door.
I walked to the desk.
I picked up the book.
I opened the book.

Rivers (1978) gives another set of examples that may well exemplify Gouin's suggestions for an alternative method to the Grammar-Translation Method:

- Student A:** What am I doing?
Student B: You're opening the door.

- Students A & B:** We're writing on the blackboard.
Teacher: What are they doing?
Student C: They're writing on the blackboard.
- Students A & B:** What are we doing?
Student C: You're writing on the blackboard.
- Teacher:** What were they doing?
Student C: They were writing on the blackboard.
- Student A:** Guess what I am going to do next week? (miming action)
Student B: You are going to pack your suitcase.

In a different kind of activity, learners are given an order to carry out an action by the teacher or their peers. As they enact it, they must say what they are doing, and later, what they did.

As we will see in a later section, this method heavily influenced Total Physical Response that combines physical action and learning. The proponents of both these methods advocate contextual practice of vocabulary and grammatical structures. Only once the grammar has been introduced inductively can the teacher show students a table that will help them understand the newly presented grammar structures (Stevick 1982). The following is an example of such a table:

I	am	clo	ing	the	door	I	clo	ed	the	door		
<hr/>												
I	am	walk	ing	to	the	desk	I	walk	ed	to	the	desk

At a higher level, texts often constitute visual support and provide material for language use. Again, vocabulary and idioms are presented intralingually by means of the same techniques mentioned above. Context is made explicit to facilitate understanding. The text is read aloud as the teacher consistently monitors pronunciation. Then a series of questions is asked whereby the teacher is able to perceive language needs and subsequently to introduce exercises using "transpositions, substitutions, dictation, narrative, and free composition" (Stern 1983), while avoiding the use of abstract grammatical terminology. In an alternative framework, Gouin recommended 'peer teaching', as he believed that learners do not only learn from the teachers, but also from their peers (1880).

Teacher's Role

The teacher still assumes a central role in this new method; however, a concession is made for some amount of learning from peers. The teacher remains responsible for planning the course or adapting the text-book. S/He also acts as a model for learning and sees to it that mistakes are avoided from the beginning.

Learner's Role

In the Direct method, the learner is still dependent on the teacher for the learning process. S/He is expected to infer or guess meaning from context as the teacher acts out the meaning of verbs and refers to real life objects or pictures instead of translating words into either language. The learners mime or carry out actions as they say what they are doing.

The Role of Instructional Materials

In the Direct Method, books and materials are written exclusively in the target language. Phonetic and grammatical components are part of the material, but are supposed to be used only after the teacher's presentation. This was supposed to lead to the "inductive learning" of the structure specified in the syllabus. Both teacher and learners were highly dependent on a specified syllabus that was very much like its predecessor's, that is, grammatically based. Because of the nature of the method, the activities contained in the material favor "interaction" between the teacher and the learners and among the learners in the target language.

The instructional materials in the Direct Method try to make the conversation appealing to the students. As such, the syllabus is devised around student-centered topics. As students advance, they begin to tackle topics related to their immediate or broader environment.

Conclusion

The Direct Method grew out of the reform movement which postulated that for learners to become fluent in the target language (as the turn of the 20th century required), they had to abandon their L¹ as the frame of reference, so as to learn how to think in the target language. However, like its predecessor, the Direct Method was criticized on the grounds that it sometimes complicated the learning unnecessarily. Instead of a lengthy, verbose and confusing explanation of an abstract word, for example, both teacher and learners could benefit much from an efficient shortcut stated in the L¹. The new method was also reproached for "overemphasizing and distorting the similarities between naturalistic first language learning and classroom foreign language. . ." (Richard 1986, p. 10; Brown 1973).

Unlike the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method requires teachers who are native speakers of the target language or who have reached near native fluency, considering the emphasis that this method lays on both pronunciation and grammar accuracy. Stern (1983) also mentions that another limitation of the Direct Method is that it does not provide much help in the teaching of advanced learners.

After the limitations of the Direct Method were recognized by Henry Sweet, principles that had been agreed on by the reform movement were systematized by theorists in the 1920s and 30s. These sound and through principles were later to give birth to the Audio-Lingual Method.

The Audio-Lingual Method

The Audio-Lingual method emerged in the United States during World-War II as a result of the interest in foreign languages shown by the military (Larsen-Freeman 1986). According to Richards (1986), the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) was set up in 1942 to provide the U.S. Government with personnel able to work as interpreters, code-room assistants, and translators. A year later, the ASTP had closed down, but fifty-five American Universities were still involved in the program. The interest in foreign languages was increased when in 1957, the first Russian satellite was launched. The National Defense Education Act (1958) therefore provided the funds to help improve the teaching of foreign languages in universities and colleges.

In addition to learning languages for defense purposes, it was also felt that Americans should have access to the scientific discoveries made by other countries (Brown 1986; Grittner 1969).

The Audio-Lingual method, as its name suggests, focuses less on graphic skills (writing and reading) and more on the phonic ones (speaking and listening). It makes exhaustive use of techniques such as mimicry, memorization and pattern drills. It has also been the first method that has required the use of technology (language laboratories) for the purpose of learning foreign languages.

Background

The Audio-Lingual Method was greatly influenced by structural linguistics. The American linguists Bloomfield (at Yale University) and Fries (at the University of Michigan) wrote exhaustively on the subject of structural linguistics from the 1930s to the 1950s and their writings, combined with behaviorist theory, were to influence the shift in language teaching methods (Bolinger 1975). As we will see, the Audio-Lingual Method drew largely from psycholinguistic theories.

Theoretical Assumptions

The Audio-Lingual Method drew upon theories in structural linguistics, which "stresses the importance of language as a system and investigates the place that linguistic units such as sounds, words, sentences have within this system" (Richards 1985, p. 276). Structural linguists analyze how elements in a language are linearly related in a pre-determined way and how phonemic systems led to morphemic systems which in their turn led to higher systems, i.e. phrases, clauses and sentences (Richard 1986). Based on these discoveries, structural linguists maintained that language learning consisted of mastering the rules by which these linguistic

elements (phoneme, morpheme, word, clause, phrase, sentence) are combined to produce language.

Audio-Linguists also drew on behaviorist principles to account for language learning, as experiments carried out by behaviorists showed that the human being is capable of a wide range of behaviors. Skinner (1957) wrote extensively on this account and identified three basic steps in any learning that occurs within the behaviorist framework. The first step is the *stimulus* that produces a reaction or a *response*. If the response is appropriate, it is followed by positive reinforcement which will supposedly result in the creation of good habits. If on the other hand, the response to the stimulus is inappropriate, it will be followed by negative reinforcement which will result in the "extinction" of the habit (Watson 1924). To justify how this model of learning could be applicable in language learning, Skinner wrote, "We have no reason to assume. . .that verbal behavior differs in any fundamental respect from non-verbal behavior, or that any new principle must be involved to account for it" (1947, p. 10).

This general theory of learning was, therefore, extended to language learning. In the field of language learning, the stimulus represents what is taught and expected of the foreign language learner or the organism. The behavior is more often than not represented by a verbal response; in Total Physical Response (TPR) the response will be almost exclusively physical. The reinforcement is meant to encourage subsequent error-free productions on similar tested items by positive feedback and praise from the teacher.

Objectives

The Audio-Lingual Method emphasizes the most predominant skills used in social interaction, i.e., speaking and listening. As such, they are given precedence over the other two skills (writing and reading). The Audio-Lingual Method advocates the exclusive use of the target language since the learners are to build oral proficiency. It is believed that conversational proficiency will be reached if language features like pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and listening comprehension are taught in a way for the learner to accurately perceive the phonological and structural features of the target language (Richards 1986).

Teaching and Learning Techniques

Brooks (1964) summarizes the techniques of the Audio-Lingual Method as follows:

- The modelling of all examples by the teacher.
- The subordination of the mother tongue to the second language by rendering the first language inactive while the new language is being learned.
- The early and continued training of the ear and tongue without recourse to graphic symbols.

- The learning of structures through the practice of patterns of sounds, order and form, rather than by explanation.
- The gradual substitution of graphic symbols for sounds after sounds are thoroughly known.
- The summarizing of the main principles of structure for the student's use when the structures are already familiar, especially when they differ from the mother tongue.
- The shortening of the time span between a performance and the pronouncement of its rightness or wrongness, without interrupting the response. This enhances the factor of reinforcement in learning.
- The minimizing of vocabulary until all common structures have been learned.
- The study of vocabulary only in context.
- Sustained practice in the use of the language only in the molecular form of speaker-hearer situation.
- Practice in translation only as a literary exercise at an advanced level(p. 142).

This set of guidelines will help us understand the techniques used in the Audio-Lingual method as we analyze them more closely.

As stated earlier, the target language is used exclusively as its system is different from the one of the first language. Thus, interference is avoided (Larsen-Freeman 1986).

A lesson using the audiolingual method usually starts with a dialogue that contains the grammar structure and the vocabulary items that are to be learned (Stevick 1986; Stern 1983; Larsen-Freeman 1986; Krashen 1987). Lado (1964) recommends that the dialogue used as a support include "useful" language, and that it be appropriate to the learners' age. Krashen (1987), however, notices that "most dialogues fall far short of the mark of true interest and relevance." (p. 130) The students listen to the teacher as s/he reads the dialogue or as it is played by a tape recorder. Then the students repeat each line of the dialogue after the model without any visual support. As students repeat individually and chorally, the teacher corrects pronunciation, intonation and rhythm. In case the sentence is too long and the students stumble through it, the teacher uses a backward build up, which consists of reading the last part of the sentence before the student does so, then reading a little more of the end of the sentence so that the students can finally say the whole sentence without any hesitation. Students are expected to memorize the dialogue as they repeat it ("mim-mem", or "mimicry-memorization") until they are finally able to speak spontaneously (Krashen 1987; Richard 1986; Stevick 1986).

The Audio-Lingual Method does not advocate the ". . .intellectual, problem-solving approach. . ." (Stern 1983, p. 464). Its intention is to render language learning effortless by means of frequent practice and repetition so as to make foreign language accessible to learners deprived of strong academic training (Stern 1983). Audiolinguists, therefore, develop "structure drills" or "pattern practice" that will help learners develop and build good language habits, i.e. error free and fluent speech. Only constant drilling can help strengthen language habits and trigger "automation" which proves helpful when the learner faces a true situation of communication.

Among the categories of drills, Rivers (1978) lists conversion, combination, restatement, repetition, rejoinders, completion, deletion, substitution and translation drills. Richards (1986) lists repetition, contraction, inflection, replacement, restatement, completion, transformation, transposition, expansion, integration, rejoinder and restoration drills. (p. 54-5) However, we will limit ourselves to the analysis of the three (3) types of drills most currently used (Richards 1985). They are repetition, substitution and transformation drills.

Repetition Drill The learners are expected to accurately repeat the teacher's utterances without looking at printed material. For example:

T: How are you?

L: How are you?

The teacher pays attention to sound as well as form.

Substitution Drill The teacher provides a structure, then s/he throws in verbal or visual cues that are used to replace specific items in the model provided by the teacher. Example:

T: I have never visited this museum.

T: She...

L: She has never visited this museum.

T: Odienne...

L: She has never visited Odienne.

For such activities the teacher generally has a battery of cues that s/he fires after every satisfactory answer. Here is an example of such a battery of cues:

Model Sentence: Where can I buy the magazines?

Cues: When may they look at books
must she sell medicine

This type of substitution drill is referred to as "single-slot," as the cue has only one item. A substitution drill can use many slots as there are cues to substitute items at different points in a sentence:

T: They / often / go to

L: They have often gone to Odienne.

Transformation Drill The teacher provides the basic structure, while learners are expected to transform it into a particular form: interrogative, negative or declarative, passive or active, future, present or past. For example:

T: I used to like *fishing* a lot.

T: Question.

L: What did you use to like?

The teacher helps the learners focus on a particular structure or pattern by drawing the students a specific part of the model sentence. In the example above, the teacher avoids supplying students cues as questions, such as "Who used to ...?" "What did you...?" "How much did you use to like...?" in that particular instance. The cue in transformation drills is put in the imperative form "Transform"

Most structural drills are based on contrastive analyses of the learner's first language and his/her target language (Lado 1957).

In his evaluation of the language teaching movement between the post-World War II period and the 1960s, Ellis (1985) remarks that there was a strong inclination to believe that where there was a difference of structure between the first language and the target language, the learner needed intensive practice. Such practice helped the student avoid negative language transfer or pro-active inhibition. Therefore, teachers were exhorted to pay more attention to the areas of differences or ". . . areas of difficulty created by negative transfer", (Ellis 1985, p.7) so that old habits would not get into the way of new habits (prevention of interference). One such example is the minimal pairs /o/ and /f/ which, often leads to confusion. In this particular case, learners will be drilled through a series of words that contain these phonemes: (*For example*)

thought	/	fought
than	/	fan
thus	/	fuss . . .

In the Audio-Lingual Method, as in the Direct Method, grammar is taught inductively. Learners must figure out the rules of the target language as they are exposed to examples and drills and are not provided with explicit grammar rules. Though the Audio-Lingual Method makes no use of translation in the initial stages of instruction, it makes some use of it at an advanced stage. As River (1978) notices, "Translation of continuous passages from the native language into the language being learned was, however, considered an advanced exercise in this approach also"(p. 325).

Learner's Role

Learners assume a passive role in both the process and the content of the learning. They must depend on external stimuli that are produced by the teacher so that they can

produce them in turn. The student-to-student interaction is limited so as to avoid students learning mistakes from each other. When student-to-student interaction occurs, it is teacher prescribed and highly structured. Most essentially, it consists of assigning roles to students to play in dialogue (Larsen-Freeman 1986).

Stevick (1982) reports the feelings of a group of students with whom the Audio-Lingual Approach was often used. Surprisingly enough, many of them seemed to welcome drills as they thought that they learned a lot from them. To Stevick, such an approach was appealing to students because in the first place, they had been brainwashed by their teachers to believe in memorization. Second, they ended up preferring this dependency on the teacher who preferred a non-demanding technique that did not challenge the learners' "ingenuity" and "imagination". Stevick goes further to mention that students like this approach because of the emotional security that it provides. To Arendt (1979) and Krashen (1987) however, most students' feelings towards the approach were negative. They strongly disliked rote memorization and were "bored by the endless pattern drills"(Arendt, p. 187).

Teacher's Role

As opposed to the learner's passive role in this method, the teacher plays a very "active" role. Larsen-Freeman says, "The teacher is like an orchestra leader, directing and controlling the language behavior of her student"(p. 43). As such, s/he stands as a central character who makes every decision as to the learning content and procedure. S/he provides the model since the students are expected to learn from him/her, more often than from a tape-recorder (if one is available at all). S/he sees to it that no error is left unattended to avoid bad habits which can be prevented by intensive practice that is supposed to lead to perfection. S/he can limit the areas of possible mistakes by using contrastive analysis. S/he also provides positive reinforcement by congratulating students when correct. Richards (1986) also qualifies the Audio-Lingual method as a "teacher-dominated" one.

The Role of Instructional Material

The teacher is advised to have a tape-recorder in case s/he is not a native speaker of the target language and does not want his/her students to "mimic" non-native pronunciation. Taped materials also provide exercises on which students can work on their own. Such materials are often called four phase drills. A four-phase drill contains four parts chronologically presented as follows:

- (a) A stimulus on the tape.
- (b) A space for the student's response.
- (c) The correct response.
- (d) A space for the student to repeat the correct response. (Richards 1985, p.111)

The teacher's book contains model dialogues, grammar structures/rules and drills. Beyond their communicative value, dialogues are also used so as to contextualize vocabulary items and grammar structures. Students are not provided with books at first, since this is a primarily listening-repeating method. Learners are presented with books once they are assumed to have mastered the basic structures of the target language. Writing is taught once students have sufficiently mastered enough language items that they need for accurate writing.

Conclusion

Proponents of the Audio-Lingual Method criticized the Direct Method for its lack of linguistic foundations and built their own method on Behaviorism. Despite its well honed theory, the Audio-Lingual approach was to suffer virulent attacks on several bases.

In 1966 Chomsky argued that the Audio-Lingual Method was incorrect in its claims that language is nothing more than a set of habits. He stated that language calls for innovation and creativity that a stimulus-response pattern could not help achieve. He further stated that the human mind is equipped with a language acquisition device that enables human beings to make general rules about languages (competence).

In the same year, Carrol and Anisfeld also called the Audio-Lingual Method into question. Carrol called for a revision that would take into consideration "the better elements of the cognitive-code learning theory"(1966, p. 105). This theory stipulated that when learning a language, the human mind is involved in an "active mental process" instead of "simply forming habits"(Richards 1985).

Anisfeld (1966) called for a double approach to language teaching and stated that language is partly habits (such is the case for acquisition of word meaning), and partly general rules. He further goes on to state that to be able to infer general rules, the human mind has to be actively involved in the learning process (the cognitive-code approach). As the human mind is actively engaged in the process, it forms hypotheses about the language that are confirmed or rejected as it gathers more data about the language.

Stevick (1982) condemns the associationist theory (stimulus-response) of learning on the basis of its dullness for the learner's mind, saying that it is ". . . a source of unproductive fatigue and a drag against motivation"(p. 51). To him, it made no sense that meaning should be related to forms at the onset of learning, since it could only result in boredom and a decrease in motivation. Oller (1983) expresses the same concern as he states, "For the non-native speaker there is little possibility of comprehending drills which permit structures without regard for meaning, and even less motivation to do so"(p. 18). Carrol (1960) expresses a similar concern when stating that teacher expectations of "error-free production" and "correct form" result in learners dropping out.

Furthermore, in research carried out by Dulay and Burt (1973; 1974), it was discovered that a very large proportion of errors and mistakes were made without any correlation to their first language. This called into question the importance accorded to contrastive analysis and grammar based curriculum in language teaching.

A third attack was raised against the Audio-Lingual Method by Rivers because of its failure to teach language in its sociocultural context. Too much emphasis on practice of linguistic forms prevented learning at the expense of the sociocultural parameter. She states that "language communication involves a relationship between individuals and not merely the memorization and repetition of phrases and the practicing of structures" (as quoted by Stern, 1983, p. 326).

Oller makes the same kind of remark when he states that:

Inspection of language textbooks designed by linguists reveal an increasing emphasis in recent years on structural drills in which pieces of language are isolated from the linguistic and social contexts which make them meaningful and useful to the learner.(p. 51)

Grittner (1969), Oller (1983) and Richards (1986) have also noted that though learners trained in the Audio-Lingual Method often have near-native pronunciation, they are not able to transfer the skills acquired through this method to real life communication outside the classroom. Hence, they are also unable to negotiate meaning since they have learned to be dependent on stimuli.

Chomsky's, Carrol's and Anisfeld's series of attacks on the Audio-Lingual Method in 1966 made vague claims about a cognitive-approach to language teaching as an alternative. To Carrol this new theory was a "modified, up-to-date, Grammar-Translation theory" and to Hester and Diller, it was a "modified, up-to-date, Direct Method approach" (as quoted by Stern 1983, p. 469) since the Cognitive-Code learning, like both the Grammar-Translation Method and the Direct Method, called for a cognitive process in language learning.

Though the Cognitive-Code theory provided steady grounds from which to attack the Audio-Lingual Method, it was never put into practice in the classroom and failed to offer practical techniques (Halliday, McIntosh and Stevens (1964) as reported by Stern (1983)).

Richard (1986) writes that, " no clear-cut methodological guidelines emerged, nor did any particular method incorporating this view of learning"(p. 60). If it did produce any techniques, their novelty in the field of language teaching is questioned by Stern (1983) as he states that, "the practice techniques that this method has yielded have hardly introduced much that is new"(p. 469).

Though Cognitive-Code learning never became popular, it did act as a liberating force and helped loosen the grip of the Audio-Lingual Method on the field of language teaching. Stern says on this account:

As a negative force, freeing language theory from the weight of behaviorism in psychology and structuralism in linguistics, transformational generative grammar exercised a liberating impact. It created an intellectual upheaval the like of which language pedagogy had not previously experienced.(p. 169)

After the Cognitive Code learning opened the field, new approaches came into existence based on contemporary theories of language and second language acquisition. These are the Natural Approach and Communicative Language Teaching. On the other hand, there are other methods that "have been developed independently of current linguistic and second language acquisition theory"(Richards 1986, p. 60). These are Total Physical Response (TPR), Silent Way and Counseling Learning. Of the three, we will investigate Total Physical Response as it is the method used predominantly in Cote d'Ivoire. After studying the TPR we will investigate the Direct Method and Communicative Language Teaching.

Total Physical Response

In Total Physical Response, items are presented in the target language in the form of "orders, commands and instructions". Learners are to act out the commands that they are given to show their understanding and comprehension of the teacher's utterances. This method has also been named the "Comprehension Approach" because of the emphasis it lays on listening before any attempt is made to speak the language (Winitz 1981). In this method, understanding the language should come before its production, followed by reading and writing. Asher (1977) claims that as a result of this method, learning is supposed to occur "meaningfully and effectively."

Background

Total Physical Response (TPR) was developed by James Asher, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University in California and was developed around the coordination of speech and physical action (motor activity).

The theory of learning by motor activity is related to the "trace theory" of memory which stipulates that retracing can be achieved verbally in combination with physical actions (Katona, 1940). This theory of learning was not new since Gouin had advocated the teaching of new items through a series of action verbs that were to be demonstrated. Palmer and Palmer echoed the idea when stating that:

No method of teaching foreign speech is likely to be economical or successful which does not include in the first period a very considerably proportion of that type of classroom work which consists of the carrying out by the pupil of orders issued by the teacher.(Palmer and Palmer, 1959, p. 39)

Beyond this, Asher stated that a theory of language learning for adults could be created by observing children acquire their first language. He noticed that children start learning their first language by physically carrying out commands and orders before they actually start producing verbal responses (Asher 1977). Asher believed that adult learners will benefit from the same "approach" if they were to learn second languages in the same way children acquire their first language.

Theoretical Assumptions

Asher elaborated the TPR on the basis of three learning hypotheses:

1. Existence of an innate bio-program for language learning.
2. Brain lateralization defining different learning functions in the right-brain hemisphere and left-brain hemisphere.
3. Stress that can interfere with the learning.

Let us analyze each of these specifically.

The Bio-program Here, Asher draws a parallel between first language acquisition and second language acquisition and therefore, teaching of the second language in the same perspective as teaching the first. He states that children develop listening competence before speaking skills. As such, at some point in their development they can comprehend complex utterances that they can not yet produce. This he called the "mapping" stage that will help them produce language later on. Children are exposed to their first language for a prolonged period of listening before they attempt to produce words and phrases (see also Frazer, Bellugi, Brown, 1966). According to a study carried out by Winitz and Reeds (1973), competence in comprehension precedes competence in production by about a year. Therefore, they conclude that this sequence of development, which is a natural characteristic of the human brain, should be respected in second language acquisition. Oller takes this theory a step further when he writes:

Theoretically, if the student can internalize listening comprehension of a second language, he can more gracefully make the transition to production, reading and writing. If this transition is attempted too abruptly or too prematurely, before the student is ready, learning difficulties can be expected. (1983, p.63)

In this view, physical responses are viewed as the first responses of the young child to his/her mother. Oller (1983), demonstrates this with an example borrowed from Harold and Palmer:

A baby will turn its head in the appropriate direction when the mother says "Look at that little cat in the garden". Later on, the mother will get her child to fetch things or pick things up or to put things in various places, and the baby performs all these actions so accurately and so naturally that one is almost tempted to believe that the child has an instinct for understanding his native language. (p. 60)

The classroom implication of this hypothesis is that students will benefit from a period when they are allowed to listen and to process language. As a subsequent task, they should be

given the opportunity to carry out commands that will speed up the process of acquisition. It is only when this step has been carried out that language production can evolve "naturally and effortlessly."

This hypothesis has been made explicit in the Comprehension Approach, whose main features are:

- a. Before learners are taught to speak, there should be a period of training in listening comprehension.
- b. Comprehension should focus on teaching learners to understand meaning in the second language.
- c. The learners' level of comprehension should always exceed their ability to produce language.
- d. Productive language skills will emerge more naturally when learners have developed comprehension skills (Richards 1985, p. 55).

Brain Lateralization Asher's second hypothesis deals with what he terms Brain Lateralization. The brain is made up of the right and left hemisphere; speech is developed in the left hemisphere and particularly in the Broca's area (named after its discoverer, physician Paul Broca). There is evidence this area is the speech center since when it is traumatized, the result is aphasia (Glass 1979; Richards 1985).

Non-verbal behaviors have their center in the right hemisphere, which according to Asher, is the part of the brain which is first associated with language learning in children (Richards 1986). This theory postulates that when children learn languages, they do so by motor activities, and that their memory is activated by their body's response. Asher consequently concludes that programs designed for adults should take this into consideration.

The third component of Asher's theory is the reduction of stress which we will now address.

Reduction of Stress A stressful environment can interfere with language acquisition. It is, therefore, essential that the environment be stress free and that learners experience as little anxiety as possible to facilitate learning.

The TPR method provides "pleasurable experiences" that come with first language learning since attention is focussed on meaning demonstrated through action rather than language forms studied in an abstract way. Certain commands call for actions that are fun and pleasurable and which help establish a positive mood in the learning environment.

Objective

The main point of the TPR method is for individuals to learn language in such a way that the mind is liberated from any stress and anxiety so as to be able to "devote its entire

energy to learning". By the end of a TPR program of instruction, learners are expected to communicate fluently.

Teaching and Learning Techniques

Because of its unconventional nature it is advised that the teacher using TPR discuss the theory and its rationale with the learners. This seems to be important not only because learners who are informed about the procedure are better prepared from the outset, but also because adult learners will be expected to learn the way children do. Asher (1971) suggests that participants be shown a documentary film on TPR.

Asher divides language into abstract and non-abstract terms. Non-abstract language refers to action verbs and concrete nouns whereas abstract items are words like "praise," "happiness," or "idea." To him, acquiring a "detailed cognitive map" of the target language is possible without reference to abstraction. He states that abstraction should be delayed until learners have a command of the non-abstract components of the target language. Only once this is achieved can the teacher start teaching abstract ideas in the target language (1977). Asher maintains that most grammatical structures and hundreds of vocabulary items can be taught by means of TPR techniques.

A typical TPR lesson starts with the instructor uttering commands and acting them out. S/he may want to start with two students. The teacher repeats the procedure (command & action) three or four times or until it becomes obvious that the two learners have understood. The teacher then has them act out the command and checks their comprehension by using the same action verbs in a different order than the one initially used to present the items. Later, the entire class is asked to participate; after which individual learners are asked to do so to insure long-term memory (Oller 1983). A first stage may include action verbs like: "stand up", "sit down", "walk", "stop", "jump", "turn around", "point", etc. . . (Larsen-Freeman 1986).

Blair (1982) suggests the teacher have a list of commands ready because a constant and even fast moving pace will not allow time for the instructor to "think on his/her feet". This will be all the more necessary as the instructor will have to make new combinations of words, for example, learners may have learned "put...on..." "nose" and "pen" in different contexts. The instructor could instruct "put your pen on your nose". Such playful and bizarre new commands bring an element of fun and surprise to the learning and keep motivation high (Asher 1977; Oller 1983; Larsen-Freeman 1986; Richards 1986). New combinations create motivation in several ways, one of which is their playful character. Secondly, they contribute to the students' intrinsic motivation, which is created by the satisfaction of being able to achieve something new. It stands to reason that learners must develop flexibility to process new combinations since they have not heard them in the presentation phase. During these activities, students learn by observing and playing.

In addition to simple commands, two part and expansion commands contain more than an action verb to be carried out. For example, the instructor may say, "Pick up your bag and go out." or "Close your eyes and touch your neighbor." Just as the teacher can give a two-part order, s/he can give a three-part order that follows the same principle. Another type of command is the action sequence in which the teacher taps the vast repertoire that the learner has acquired after a longer period of exposure. Larsen-Freeman (1986) gives as an example:

Take out a pen.
Take out a piece of paper.
Write a letter (imaginary).
Fold the letter.
Put it in an envelope.
Seal the envelope.
Write the address on the envelope.
Put a stamp on the envelope.
Mail the letter. (p. 120)

As lessons proceed, and only when the instructor is sure the students are ready for production, volunteers are called on to conduct the activity. Thus, the teacher becomes a participant and delegates his/her power to a learner. Students become more verbal and the teacher becomes less so.

One concern about this method is that since it is based on imperative drills, the classroom atmosphere may be stressful, given that commands are always given in an authoritative manner without the use of "please" or "would you". Asher (1977) says on this account that commands should be given with gentleness and pleasantness. "The kindness, compassion and consideration of the instructor will be signaled in the tone of voice, posture, and facial expressions. You are the student's ally, and they will sense this in the way you direct their behavior"(Asher, as cited in Blair 1982, p. 56).

Another source of concern is in the area of error correction. Asher recommends that teachers be tolerant of mistakes. Refinements should be postponed until students have shown some degree of proficiency. It is advised that the instructor attend only to serious mistakes and that s/he does so in a non-obstructive, non-critical manner. It is also suggested that when the teacher gives feedback s/he should follow the method used by parents with their children. At first they are tolerant, but they become less so as the child grows older. In a TPR lesson, the teacher should not stop students to correct them in order to keep their inhibitions low. Also, as Asher notes:

You begin with a wide tolerance for student speech errors, but as training progresses the tolerance narrows. . .Remember that as students progress in their training, more and more attention units are freed to process feedback from the instructor. In the beginning, almost no attention units are available to hear the

instructor's attempts to correct distortions in speech. All attention is directed to producing utterances. Therefore, the student cannot attend efficiently to the instructor's corrections. (1977, p. 27)

When correction pertains to motor activities, the teacher enacts the proper movement if no student is able to.

TPR lessons do not exclusively consist of imperative drills. When students reach an intermediate level, where they have sufficiently mapped the structures of target language, role plays are added to the teaching program. Such role plays revolve around every day situations, (the supermarket, the cinema), in which the learners are most liable to find themselves. Other activities include slide show projections which give the teacher the opportunity to narrate sequential events and ask the students comprehension questions. Conversational dialogues are integrated into the program after about 120 hours. Reading and writing activities are usually limited to the learners' utterances that the teacher writes on the blackboard (Oller 1983). Both reading and writing can also be used to consolidate vocabulary items and structures after oral imperative drills (Richard 1985).

Teacher's Role

In TPR, the teacher must speak the language well so that learners can acquire the basic structure of the language, thus forming their "cognitive map". S/he should see to it that language emerges naturally, without forcing production if learners are not ready for it.

At the beginning, the instructor plays a very central role as s/he gives orders and instructions. Asher says in this respect: "The instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors" (1977, p. 43). S/he decides on the materials and the whole teaching process. The instructor, however, has to be a facilitator of learning and hence, has to show support. Blair writes on this account, "If a student is baffled, do not press; but simply try the same command with another student or act it yourself" (1982, p. 60).

However, as time elapses, there are opportunities for role reversal as the instructor shifts functions with learners. At this point, the teacher can evaluate his/her own teaching by observing the students perform. Hence, s/he watches the class with on-going assessment to help make decisions as to whether to slow down or quicken the pace or to delay his/her own response so that students learn to depend on themselves. The instructor is advised not to show too much insistence on an item if students do not seem to pick it up. Instead, s/he is advised to reintroduce it some time later when they may be more ready for it.

Learner's Role

In TPR, the learners are listeners (as the method focusses on listening comprehension) and performers (as they demonstrate comprehension by body movement). They have no control

over the materials and content of learning. After about twenty hours or so, students will generally be ready to speak. Only at this time can they be encouraged to speak by being asked to give orders. As one student steps into the instructor's shoes, the instructor becomes a student and hardly needs to give feedback since the new "instructor" can monitor and evaluate his/her own learning.

The Role of Instructional Materials

TPR lessons generally start without written texts for learners since reading skill is not considered essential and can interfere with oral fluency, which is the method's goal. Instead, the teacher has the responsibility of presenting language skills through commands. Most objects presented to the students in the first sessions are classroom objects. As the program evolves, outside objects and pictures can be brought into the classroom.

A TPR syllabus is lexico-grammatical, with the grammar taught inductively. The taught structures are embedded in orders which come in "language chunks." However, meaning has precedence over form. Asher (1977) claims that 12 to 36 items can be learned in one classroom hour.

Reading and writing come only after a minimum of ten hours of instruction and generally consist of little more than copying from the blackboard.

Conclusion

TPR is associated with the theory of first language acquisition. Basing his theory on Piaget's work, Asher posited that languages are best learned through actions involving both hemispheres of the brain. Hence, learners are asked to carry out actions as instructed by the teacher.

Many authorities in the field of language teaching have claimed that TPR is superior to traditional methods, such as Grammar-Translation, Audio-Lingual (Krashen 1985, Wolfe and Jones 1982). This method has acquired popularity because of its emphasis on comprehensible input and its concern for a stress-free learning environment.

Nevertheless, TPR has undergone some criticism. Proponents of communicative language teaching have questioned the relevance of the sentences and utterances acquired during TPR lessons to real-life. Oller (1983) expresses his reservations when he writes: "Furthermore, it is questionable whether a unidimensional approach could be satisfying to students for an extended period of time." Though this concern is general, it seems to be particularly addressed to TPR given that this method falls short of expectation as students leave the program "with little or no contact with speaking, reading and writing"(Oller, p. 338). Asher himself makes it explicit that a TPR approach to language teaching should be used in combination with other methods. He writes on this account:

We are not advocating only one strategy of learning. Even if the imperative is the major or minor format of training, variety is critical for maintaining student interest. The imperative is a power facilitator of learning, but it should be used in combination with many other techniques. (1977, p. 42)

The Natural Approach, developed by Tracy Terrell, builds on TPR to make it more complete. Let us now look at this method.

The Natural Approach

The Natural Approach advocates a natural and "traditional" way of language learning. Traditional, here, does not refer to older approaches or methods such as the Grammar-Translation or the Audio-Lingual Method. Rather, it refers to the way languages are most naturally acquired in a "nonacademic context." The proponents of this approach strongly recommend that ". . .communicative competence be the goal of beginning language instruction" (Terrell, in Blair, 1982). As such, it lays emphasis on genuine and meaningful communication rather than on accuracy and perfection of forms and utterances.

Krashen and Terrell make the claim that grammatical structures do not require explanation for acquisition. For the pupils to acquire, rather than learn (we shall look at this difference in greater depth later), the teacher must provide activities that promote acquisition through comprehensible input. This approach, like TPR, advocates a paradigm shift in language teaching in that it looks at the classroom as a place where language is naturally acquired instead of learned. Terrell (in Blair, 1982) makes it clear that the Natural Approach is not new in all its components, as it has borrowed some aspects from the Direct Method and some from TPR. There are three stages in the Natural Approach: "Comprehension", "Early Speech Production" and "Full-fledged Speech Activities".

Background

The Natural Approach was created out of Terrell's experiences as a Spanish instructor. He was soon given support by Krashen (Richards 1986), who introduced him to his theory of second language acquisition. Both criticized older approaches to language teaching, saying that they did not serve the purpose of communication. Learners who are trained in these older approaches are unable to have meaningful conversations. Terrell says on this account:

For most students, approaches that do not normally result in the ability to communicate are Grammar-Translation, Audiolingual, and the various eclectic cognitive-based methods. They produce skills that match exactly what is taught. (in Oller, 1983, p. 252)

He goes even further when he states:

In my opinion teaching languages as an intellectual activity is, to a great extent, responsible for the failure of the educational establishment to impart even the most fundamental communication skills to normal students in foreign language classrooms. (in Oller, 1983, p. 270)

Observations of how people "have traditionally acquired" languages led Krashen to construct theories of second language acquisition.

Theoretical Assumptions

The key principle in the Natural Approach is based on how acquisition takes place in a communicative situation. First, the interchange is focused on the content of the message. Second, the learner must understand the message that is conveyed to him/her and third, the learner must be free of any anxiety. These principles serve as a basis for Krashen's theory of language acquisition which we shall now examine.

The Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis

According to the proponents of the Natural Approach, "acquiring" a language and "learning" a language are different things. Acquiring a language refers to the natural way a child acquires his/her first language. Acquiring a language does not require explicit attention to grammar, since acquisition is unconscious and the knowledge that results is implicit. In language acquisition, the learner is not aware of the rules of the grammar structures, but rather has a "feel" for what is correct and what is not.

In language "learning", on the other hand, students must use highly developed cognitive skills since conscious learning is necessary. Older methods and approaches favor the "learning" approach in classrooms. More recent methods (TPR, Natural Approach, Communicative Language Teaching. . .) strongly recommend the acquisition process for adults in the teaching of foreign languages, since researchers have found that both children and adults use similar strategies and process linguistic data in an almost identical manner (Bailey, et. al., 1974; Dulay and Burt, 1973).

Terrell and Krashen (1983) summarize the acquisition/learning dichotomy in the following table:

ACQUISITION	LEARNING
similar to first language	formal knowledge of language
picking up a language	"knowing about" a language
subconscious	conscious
implicit knowledge	explicit knowledge
formal teaching does not help	formal teaching helps

The Monitor Hypothesis

To Krashen, acquiring a language results in the ability to communicate fluently without conscious effort, whereas learning a language requires a conscious "monitor", or an editor system whenever one speaks or writes (Terrell and Krashen, 1983). In traditional language classrooms, Krashen and Terrell (1983) state that learning is brought in "only as a kind of after thought to make alterations and corrections" (p. 18). However, they assert that three conditions have to be met whenever the monitor is used in communication. First, the speaker must be concerned about accuracy. Second, s/he must have a conscious knowledge of grammar rules. Third, time factors have to be taken into consideration. Krashen and Terrell do not favor use of the "monitor" as it gets in the way of information transmission and is very time consuming. Krashen (1985) gives an account of the studies carried out by Hulstign and Hulstign (1984) which reported that adult subjects who focused on form spent more time to transmit less of information than subjects who were not overly concerned with the form and correctness of their language.

Krashen and Terrell's believed that monitoring language utterances resulted in the disruption of conversations (hesitation, constant editing. . .). They stated that when one speaks fluently, one is more concerned about the content of the message (the "what") rather than the form of the message (the "how"). To them, the "how" can be satisfactorily addressed in written exercises rather than in oral production because the former provides sufficient time for editing, whereas when one speaks, the constant flow of ideas does not make room for constant monitoring. Monitoring proves useful when one takes exams or prepares speeches, so as to give the piece of writing a more "polished" and "educated" appearance.

Krashen describes three types of learners who make use of the speech monitor: the underuser, the overuser and the optimal user. The underuser refers to those who make little use of their learned system and those who have a low learned system. If underusers correct themselves, they do so by means of their acquired system (Krashen & Terrell 1983). Overusers are those who are so conscious of their learned system that they constantly correct themselves as they speak, which interferes with their communication. Overusers fall in the category of those who "learned" language rather than acquired it. The optimal user refers to those who

are able to monitor their utterances in a way that does not affect communication. Such students also make use of their learned system in providing accurate, meaningful pieces of writing. Terrell (in Oller, 1983) describes a fourth category defined by Carlos Yorio at the 1978 TESOL Convention in Mexico City. These are the superusers who are mostly language instructors. The superusers are able to apply their conscious rules in such a way that it passes unnoticed to the listener.

The Natural Hypothesis Order

Similar to Corder's hypothesis (1967), the Natural Hypothesis Order postulates that a natural order of acquisition exists in both first and second language acquisition. This has been observed in several groups as different "acquirers" acquired language structures in approximately the same order regardless of their first language. Such an order is also discussed by Dulay and Burt (Bailey et al. 1974).

To Krashen and Terrell, such findings rule out the appropriateness of teaching grammar rules and focussing on structures. To them, errors are but signs of a developmental process.

The Input Hypothesis

The Input Hypothesis claims that we acquire language by understanding input that is slightly beyond our current level of competence (Krashen et al. 1983; Krashen 1985; Richards 1986). This hypothesis is summarized in the formula $i + 1$ where i describes our current level of competence and where $i + 1$ stands as our next level of competence along some natural order. According to their theory, the next level of competence will be reached only if the "acquirer" is able to understand the message that is conveyed to him/her. A structure can thus be acquired if context and extra-linguistic information are such that the message is made clear, even though the newly used structure(s) are not part of the acquirer's level of competence. The theory states that if there is sufficient comprehensible input, $i+1$ will automatically occur (Krashen 1981; 1985).

In children's first language acquisition, context and extra-linguistic information are provided by "caretakers", who limit their utterances to the "here and now". Language teachers provide context by using visual aids, teacher talk and simplified speech. As caretakers and teachers use new structures that are a bit beyond the learners' level of understanding "roughly tuned input" by making sure that context and extra-linguistic information make the structures meaningful, they "cast a net" of structures around the learner. "Finely-tuned input" or the use of only one structure at a time, is not required in this method since the teacher does not know at which level the learner is and since different learners in the classroom may be at different levels of competence (Richards 1986; Krashen et al. 1983). Krashen (1983) adds, ". . .with roughly-tuned input, we are assured that $i+1$ will be covered. With roughly-tuned input, we

are assured of constant recycling and review"(p. 35). He goes on to state that roughly-tuned input is almost always "more interesting than an exercise that focuses just on one grammatical point"(p. 35).

Comprehensible input is necessary for acquisition, but it is not sufficient by itself. Krashen identifies one last variable for acquisition to take place. This is the one we will now address.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis

The Affective Filter is an attitudinal and emotional variable. It is made up of three elements which are: motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. A highly motivated student is most likely to be an achieving one if s/he has a good self-image and does not experience anxiety. Optimum conditions for acquisition are met when the affective filter is low. Thus, the teacher should create a learning environment that will lower the learners' affective filter.

Objectives

The objectives of the Natural Approach are made clear by Krashen and Terrell (1983) when they state:

We expect that they will be able to function adequately in the target situation. They will understand the speaker of the target language (perhaps with requests for clarification) and will be able to convey (in a non-insulting manner) their requests and ideas. They need not know every word in a particular semantic domain, nor is it necessary that the syntax and morphology be flawless -- but their production does need to be understood. They should be able to make the meaning clear but necessarily be accurate in all details of grammar.(p. 71)

The Natural Approach looks at language as a tool for communication. In devising a curriculum, teachers are advised to take students' needs into consideration in order to help students deal with topics, functions and situations that they are most likely to face in their real life (Terrell and Krashen 1983). For example, if students are given the opportunity to talk about plans, obligations and careers, the following topics and situations could be covered:

Topics:

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Immediate future plans | 5. Careers and professionals |
| 2. General future activities | 6. Place of work |
| 3. Obligations | 7. Work activities |
| 4. Hopes and desires | 8. Salary and money |

Situations:

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Job interview | 2. Talking on the job |
|------------------|-----------------------|

(1982 p. 68)

To Krashen and Terrell such activities will help develop basic communication skills (1983). As such, no attention whatsoever is paid to grammar unless it gets in the way of comprehension. If it does, the correction should still focus on meaning and not on form. Terrell (in Blair, 1982) states that the concern for grammatical correctness is useless given that only language teachers worry about such things. He writes:

The preoccupation with grammatical correctness in early stages of L² teaching is essentially a felt need of language teachers and is not an expectation of either language learners or most native speakers of L², who with few notable exceptions are usually quite happy to deal with foreigners making any sort of effort to speak their language. (p. 161)

The stated goal of the Natural Approach is for learners to become optimal users of the monitor; that is they should be able to monitor their utterances by means of their acquired system in a way that does not affect communication. Krashen and Terrell claim that in the long run, students will succeed in speaking accurately if the emphasis of the language activities is placed on communication and content, and if the teacher constantly makes sure that students receive comprehensible input.

Krashen and Terrell recommend that students be told the relevance of the communicative activities to real life. They further recommend that learners be informed of what they will be able to achieve and what they will not be able to achieve after a given period of time.

Teaching and Learning Techniques

The Natural Approach appears to be "highly flexible" in its use of activities. As such, it draws on TPR, Communicative Language Teaching and the Direct Method (Terrell and Krashen 1983). Lessons generally start with the teacher telling the learners that they will hear L² utterances and that the meaning will be made clear to them through context and extra linguistic information. Some native language words may even be used occasionally (Terrell in Blair, 1982).

Students are not required to speak until they have been sufficiently exposed to the language and are ready to produce. The first sessions of a Natural Approach course involve students physically instead of verbally. In this first stage, the teacher centers the learning activities around TPR activities. Students generally acquire words that are of importance to them. Parts of the body and action verbs are acquired through direct reference and mimicry, as are names of objects. Given the importance of vocabulary in language production, teachers are advised to provide students with as many words as they can acquire. Terrell (in Oller 1983) reports that secondary students naturally begin speaking after about a month or so; this stage is called the emergence stage. To keep the affective filter low, students are not required to speak before they are ready. When students show a readiness to speak, the teacher provides ample response, progressing from yes/no questions to either/or questions and questions

requiring single-word answers. Terrell and Krashen make room for L¹ use in response to questions; they state that this does not retard L² acquisition. They strongly recommend that students not be asked to give long answers. To the question, "Where did you go last Sunday?", the answer "To the beach" should be welcome as it is a response used in real life communication.

Since communication is the goal of the Natural Language Approach, many activities involving simple responses are provided. Terrell writes:

If communication is more important, then it follows that most if not all classroom activities should be designed to evoke real communication. In fact, unless the students live in an area in which L² is spoken, it is only in the classroom that the student will have a chance to exercise any natural ability to acquire the language. (Terrell in Blair 1982, p. 166)

At the speech emergence level, Krashen and Terrell suggests four sorts of activities that by virtue of their intrinsic interest and focus on message rather than form will promote communicative competence. These are games and reaction activities, content, humanistic-affective activities and information and problem-solving activities centered around group work (Terrell in Oller, 1983; Richards 1986).

How Grouping is Organized

As well as providing comprehensible input, the instructor has the task of organizing students in groups so that they participate in language interaction with peers, as peers constitute good sources of input and give plenty of opportunity to build up communication skills. As students build such skills, they are able to participate in more conversations with the instructor and other speakers and, in turn, get more comprehensible input.

Like proponents of Communicative Language Teaching, Krashen and Terrell recommend group work as a way to maximize student participation. If a class which lasted one hour contained 20 pupils, each would have a chance to speak with the teacher for only three minutes. But if students were organized in groups of four, for example, their speaking time will be as much as five times more. For such grouping paradigms, Krashen and Terrell suggest the following types: restructuring, one-centered, unified group, dyads, small groups and large groups. Let us examine each briefly:

Restructuring

Students move about freely in the classroom for a specific purpose. They can be assigned tasks such as to line up "according to alphabetical order of your last names, the time you went to bed last night, the amount of money you have in your pocket now" (1983, p. 125).

One-centered

In such activities, a student volunteer leads his/her classmates in making guesses at something positive that happened to them.

Unified Group

The class can make one single group or divide up into different groups. They are asked to imagine a story made up of as many sentences as there are group members. They then each have to commit to memory one sentence and tell the story (each one saying his/her part according to the appropriate chronology) in front of the class.

Dyads

Dyads, or pairs, are the smallest units in organizing learners for interaction. Dyads provide a good basis for interpersonal communication just as time is used to its fullest extent for every student.

Small and Large Groups

The number of participants in small groups vary from 3-7 while large groups number 7 to 15. The larger the group, the fewer opportunities and time there are for individual students to interact. Groups work with all sorts of activities, including information - gap, games and problem-solving tasks.

Now let us analyze the learner's and the instructor's individual roles. As learners participate in language production, they are liable to make mistakes. How do the proponents of this approach view error correction? They first state that error correction does not play an important role in view of the monitor hypothesis. In case the error gets in the way of comprehension, the teacher can ask questions for more clarification as happens in real-life communication, (and which is the way parents interact with their children). In case the error is only localized, the instructor corrects it by simple reformulation so that the learner is not made to feel self-conscious. The appropriate form could also be reached by means of sentence expansion or more conversation.

Still, Krashen and Terrell have some reservations about the usefulness of such a device, for students will not immediately attend to the correct form. To Krashen and Terrell, the usefulness of such a device is that it provides more comprehensible input that will, in turn, result in faster language acquisition. They recommend that exercises and drills take place outside class activities if they are to happen. Drills can be adapted to have a communicative function. For example:

You want to visit the museum. Ask if s/he wants to visit it with you.

Pattern: Do you want to visit the museum with me?

Cues: Town - new book shop - park. . .

If the worst came to the worst and the teacher had to explain a grammar point, the students would benefit more if it were done in the L¹, so as to provide comprehensible input.

Learner's Role

The learner is basically seen as a "processor of comprehensible input" as s/he is provided with input that is slightly beyond his/her current level of competence (Richard 1986). The learner goes through three stages of acquisition (pre-production, early production and speech emergence) during which s/he graduates from processing information and language to participating in highly communicative activities. At the early-production level, the learner has to take the initiative to start speaking since the teacher should not put anybody on the spot.

Teacher's Role

In the Natural Approach, the teachers provides comprehensible input that will not be far beyond the learners' level of competence. S/he facilitates a positive, stress-free classroom atmosphere which will help to reduce feelings of anxiety in the learners.

Error correction, to Krashen and Terrell, has the potential to negatively affect motivation since it can create embarrassment. Both authors report that at an intermediate level, students who study a foreign language by means of the Natural Approach do not make any more mistakes than other students who learn the same foreign language by means of grammar and cognitive-based methods. To devise judicious and exciting activities, the teacher has to take into consideration the learners' needs and interests, which will serve as a basis for developing teaching activities and materials that will promote language acquisition. The instructor will also maximize time use by developing group activities that will help students build communicative skills. This leads us to consider the role of instructional materials.

The Role of Instructional Material

Because of the diversity of needs and interests of the students, the teacher may want or attempt to create his/her own materials rather than adopt ready-made materials that may not fully address the learners' needs. All materials used in a Natural Approach activity should provide comprehensible input. They should be as varied as possible and range from realia to games. Most, if not all, will augment a communicative rather than grammatical syllabus. Grammar will be dealt with outside the class, so as not to consume the time that should be devoted to activities that will help foster genuine communication skills. Comprehensible input will assure that grammar is appropriately covered.

What is the Place of Reading and Writing in the Natural Approach?

Though the Natural Approach focuses on oral communication, it makes some room for reading and writing. Reading is viewed as an extra source of comprehensible input, provided the books (readers) are selected with this view and are appropriate to the learners' level. Thanks to the emphasis on vocabulary in the Natural Approach the student should be able to

read "simple prose" very early on and can even start writing provided s/he is not judged by the accuracy of the structures s/he uses (Terrell, in Blair, 1982).

According to Terrell and Krashen (1983), appropriate selection and choice combine three elements: vocabulary, syntax and content. Though it is obvious that an appropriate amount of new work and structures can be made comprehensible, too many of them can become undigestible to the reader. The third variable, content, can be a powerful motivator provided the topic is of interest to the learner-reader. Terrell and Krashen agree on this account: "It has been widely observed informally that if readers are genuinely interested in content, this interest can outweigh other factors to a large extent"(1983, p. 134). Reading and writing also represent sources of comprehensible input as they can provide opportunities for discussion, and hence, added comprehensible input(Terrell, in Blair, 1982).

Audio-Visual Materials

The Natural Approach recommends the use of audio visual materials, i.e. music, television, slides, and radios. Their use is deemed essential because of the opportunity they give students to focus on the message rather than on the form of the language used. According to Terrell and Krashen (1983) such devices have not often been used because for many teachers, they are symbols of "entertainment" and may not be conducive to serious "learning. However, language specialists assert that acquisition of languages occurs when the learner's attention is successfully drawn to the content of the message being transmitted (1983).

Conclusion

The Natural Approach makes a fundamental distinction between "acquisition" and "learning." It refers to learning as the by-product of a cognitive approach, typical of the Audio-Lingual and Grammar-Translation Methods. The Natural Approach postulates that language acquisition occurs when the teaching is focused on comprehensible input in a stress-free environment. It does not advocate a structural approach, nor does it advocate error correction, since fluency is more important than accuracy. However, accuracy will develop as the learner is exposed to more comprehensible input. Class activities should be centered around communication with focus on content. The Natural Approach shares many features with the Direct Method. It is, as Krashen and Terrell state, the "...Direct Method rediscovered," (p. 17); just as it is similar to the Communicative Language Approach.

Now, we will analyze how a standard oral lesson is taught and see how the various approaches we have examined intertwine within this type of lesson.

An Analysis of the Standard Oral Lesson

We will now analyze the Standard Oral Lesson which is a model widely used in the Ivorian setting. After analyzing the Standard Oral Lesson, we will look at how it has been influenced by the different learning theories which we have previously discussed. We will then present a model of the Standard Oral Lesson.

The Standard Oral Lesson contains seven sections: warm-up, review, vocabulary, grammar, reading, exploitation and note-taking. The lesson is taught around a text or a set of cartoons over a class period of 55 minutes. The material selected (a reading passage or cartoons) are chosen according to the interest they are likely to raise in the students. As such, they could deal with the students' political, social and cultural life, as well as with international issues.

Warm Up The Warm-up consists of tuning the learners into the foreign language as their minds have been focused on other subjects in another language before they enter the classroom. First, students are asked to write the date on the board. They may be asked questions pertaining to their personal lives (academic, familial. . .) and/or may also be asked about the cultural, social or political life of their country and/or current affairs around the world. The learners' level determine the types of questions asked of them.

Review The review consists of asking a few questions that deal with the text or passage studied during the previous class to insure that students have understood the passage and can still use the vocabulary and grammar structure taught during that session.

Vocabulary A selection of 5 - 7 vocabulary items to be taught that day is made by the teacher. S/He generally chooses items which are neither cognates nor words whose meanings are made explicit by the context. Preferably, the selected items should be words which occur in general, everyday conversation. The teacher can also decide to teach words which are not contained in the text but which may be needed by the students to express certain ideas about the passage. The next step consists of teaching each item using three steps:

- 1) Presentation
- 2) Practice
- 3) Performance

Presentation In the presentation phase, the teacher introduces the new word (verb, noun, affective, pronoun) to the learners. S/He does so by use of mime, actions, realia, pictures or any other means that is not likely to cause confusion. After s/he has finished presenting the word, s/he pronounces it once or twice so that the students can listen to the pronunciation of the word. The teacher then writes the phonetic transcription of the word on the board.

Practice The teacher asks the learners to repeat the newly presented item and has them reuse it in controlled settings.

Performance At this stage, students are expected to use the new item freely to demonstrate their understanding of it. However, there is still some guidance as the teacher provides "scaffolding." The learners do not use the new item by themselves unless a learner volunteers to do so and the teacher knows that the student has the ability to make appropriate sentences.

Grammar Structure Unlike the vocabulary items, the grammar structure is pre-selected in the syllabus. However, the teacher still has some control over what s/he wants to teach since s/he is in a better position to know his/her students' level. If the choice is made by the teacher, s/he takes into consideration how often the structure is used in general conversation. If the structure has much in common with the L¹ structure, it is not given precedence over other structures. The grammar structure is taught using the same three steps used in the teaching of vocabulary items, i.e., Presentation, Practice, and Performance.

Presentation The teacher generally begins by using other structures which make the new structure clear and explicit. Once the meaning has been grasped, the teacher writes a sentence containing the new structure on the board.

Practice Practice contains two parts. First, it consists of getting the students to read the pattern sentence from the blackboard. They do so chorally and individually as the teacher corrects the learners' pronunciation and intonation. Second, the learners are drilled through a battery of cues.

Performance In the performance phase, the teacher asks questions related to the model sentence so that the learners arrive at the new structure. As the teacher works on the teaching of the vocabulary items and on the grammar structure, s/he should see to it that transition from one item to another occurs smoothly.

Reading The performance phase of grammar is followed by the reading of a passage. The students are asked to read the passage silently, after which the teacher asks questions. This is the exploitation stage.

Exploitation At this stage, questions are asked by the teacher so that:

- a) The learners can demonstrate their understanding of the passage and/or be helped to understand it.
- b) They can use the newly taught items in connection with the text as well as to express personal experience.
- c) They can express their feelings about the issues raised in the passage.
- d) They can discuss issues raised in the text at large. They have space/room to utilize the language to express their thoughts, ideas.

This is achieved by means of different types of questions represented in the following Table:

	Literal	Inferential	Personal	General
Yes/No				
Either/Or				
Why/Questions				

A typical list of questions is supposed to include all pairs of both horizontal and vertical types of questions.

Literal questions generally require the students to scan the text for an answer. They are encouraged not to read the information word for word unless there is no other way to put it.

Inferential questions involve reading between the lines to provide answers.

Personal questions involve use of the learners' personal experiences. They are used to reveal students' feelings about the text and to express personal viewpoints.

General questions use the text as a departure point for further discussion and exploration of issues.

In the exploitation phase, it is also suggested that teachers change the pattern of interaction and question asking in order to make the lesson more learner-centered. Here learners are given the opportunity to ask questions of both their peers and of the teacher.

Note-taking As each stage of performance is reached, the teacher writes the pupils' sentences that best illustrate the vocabulary items and the grammar structure being learned.

How much time is devoted to each of these stages? These figures indicate a rule of thumb.

Warm up	2-3 mn.
Review	4-6 mn.
Vocabulary	8-12 mn.
Grammar	4-6 mn.
Reading	4-6 mn.
Exploitation	18-20 mn.
Note-taking	4-5 mn.
TOTAL:	Not to exceed 55 minutes.

Let us now go through a sample of the Standard Oral Lesson that will illustrate the analysis we have made. This lesson is devised for students who are in their fifth year of English study.

Sample of a Standard Oral Lesson

(Based on a lesson taught by a colleague)

Text: *The Village Gossip* (see Appendix I).
Passage selected: From Line 1 to Line 24.
Vocabulary: to call on somebody; to run somebody down; to hiss; to frown; to complain.
Grammar: ought not have + P.P.

We start the class at the vocabulary teaching phase. From now on we will refer to presentation as P¹, to Practice as P² and to Performance as P³.

1. To hiss.

P¹: Who can imitate the sounds produced by cobras when they are attacked or when they want to attack?

P: (Imitation of hissing sound).

T: Yes, they hiss.

/his/ (word phonetically transcribed on the board)

P²: Choral repetition (2 to 3 times). Individual repetition (3 to 5 times at random).

T: What do cobras do when they are attacked?

S: They hiss.

T: Do you know of other animals that hiss? What noise do some people produce when they want to show anger, dissatisfaction . . . ?

S: (Produce a hissing sound).

T: What sound will a hot iron produce if you pour water on it?

S: It will hiss.

Illustrative sentence: (Sentence written on the board during the note taking process at the end of the lesson.)

Illustrative sentence: If you pour water on a hot iron, it will hiss.

2. To call on

P¹: Yesterday, I ironed my clothes, got dressed and paid a visit to my friend, Konan, or I called on Konan.

P²: (No use transcribing the idiom because each individual item is known) Choral repetition/individual repetition.

T: Who do you call on Sundays?

P³: What do you do when your friend is ill and at home?

S: When my friend is ill and stays at home, I call on him.

Illustrative sentence: I generally pay visits/call on my friends when they are ill.

3. To frown

P¹: Yesterday, I called on a friend who was ill. As he was lying on his bed, he expressed pain by pulling his eyebrows together in this way (teacher mimics); he frowned.

/fraun/ (word transcribed on the board)

- P²: Choral repetition/individual repetitions.
T: Why did my friend frown?
S: Because he was in pain.
P³: In what other circumstances do people frown?
S: People frown to express disagreement, surprise. . .

Illustrative sentence: When some people want to show disagreement, **they pull their eyebrows together**. They frown (the same strategy will be adopted for the other vocabulary items.)

Grammar structure: Ought not to have . . .
(supposing this structure is to be taught after frown)

- P¹: My friend Konan became ill because he had drunk and smoked too much at a party. When I saw him, I told him that he should not have smoked and drunk so much. I could have told him you ought not have smoked and drunk so much.
P²: Choral repetition/individual repetitions.

Cues for drilling:

Pattern:	You ought not to have	smoked and drunk so much.
	She	taken the book without permission.
	They	eaten that fish.
		run so fast.
		stayed out late.

- T: Why did Konan become ill?
S: He became ill . . .
T: What shouldn't he have done?
S: He shouldn't have . . .
T: Or? (to provide help if "ought not to" . . . is not used.)
S: He ought not to have smoked.
T: Why oughtn't he to have smoked and drunk so much?
S: He oughtn't to . . .because. . .
P³: What would you say to Frederic who got hit by a car?
S: Frederick ought not to have crossed the street without looking right and left.
T: What ought he to have done?
S: He ought to have been more careful.
T: What would you say about Abdoulaye who went to sleep late the day before his match and played a bad match?
S: Abdoulaye ought to have gone to sleep early before the match.
S: Abdoulaye oughtn't to have gone to sleep so late the day before the match.
T: What would you say to Stephane who got bitten by the dog?
S: You ought not to have run away from the dog.
S: You ought to have stayed calm in front of the dog.

T's reading: Provides the model.
S's silent reading.

Exploitation:

1. How many characters are there in the story?
2. Who are they?
3. What relation is Amende to Omirima?
4. Is it Amende who is paying a visit to Omirima?

5. What did Ogea say when she saw Amende?
6. What did she do?
7. Why did she frown?
8. Do you think Ogea likes Amede?
9. Can you justify your answer?
10. What did Omirima wonder as soon as she saw Amede?
11. Who became the first victim as a matter of fact?
12. What did Ogea do that was considered impolite in their culture?
13. How did Omirima deal with Ogea?
14. What did Omirima dare Ogea to do?
15. Could Ogea ask any questions?
16. Why not?
17. What ought/oughtn't she to have done not to deserve such treatment?
18. What did Amede say to calm Omirima down?
19. Did Omirima agree with her?
20. How do you know?
21. How do you find this statement?
22. Who was Omirima's next victim?
23. What did Omirima reproach her with/for?
24. What is Omirima's feeling about school?
25. Is her feeling justified?
26. Did Omirima's daughter-in-law have any reasons to sleep late?
27. What were these reasons?
28. Is the habit of sleeping till sunrise typical for African women?
29. Why do African women have to wake up early?
30. (Question addressed to the males of the class) Would you like to marry a woman like Omirima's daughter-in-law?
31. Why? / Why not?
32. (Question to the females of the class) Would you like to have a woman like Omirima as a mother-in-law?
33. Why? / Why not?

Now that we have gone through a sample of the S.O.L., let us see how it has been influenced by the different approaches and methods we have analyzed earlier.

Influence of the Different Approaches and Methods on the S.O.L.

Influence of the Grammar-Translation Method

The Grammar-Translation Method is used very little in the S.O.L. However, though it is not apparent here, some use of the students' L¹ can be used in case an abstract item is not clarified by the context of the text. If the presentation in English is time-consuming and confusing to students, teachers occasionally explain such items in French.

Influence of the Direct Method

The most important contribution of the Direct Method to the S.O.L. is the almost exclusive use of the L² during language lessons. Grammar is taught deductively as it is presented in context so that students can make meaning out of structure. Texts constitute visual

support for the study of the L². The teacher is responsible for the materials used and monitors the learning. Students are expected to reach near-native fluency. Correction occurs to help students achieve good pronunciation and accuracy.

Influence of Total Physical Response

Though not apparent in the example, the S.O.L. makes use of T.P.R. techniques (in the beginning stage) for acquisition of action verbs. Teachers are asked to create an atmosphere that is as relaxed as possible. In the beginning stage of the learning, non-abstract language is used until the learners are advanced enough to comprehend abstract language.

Influence of the Audio-Lingual Method

The influence of the Audio-Lingual Method is evident in the S. O. L. from the techniques and assumptions derived from the behaviorist theory of learning. As the teacher presents the model structure, s/he makes use of cues or call words so as to ensure mastery of the mechanics of the language. Use of the "backward build-up" is made in case students have difficulties repeating the new structure. Teachers provide feedback in the form of correction and/or congratulations to either discourage bad habits or reinforce good ones. In the S.O.L., however (like in the Audio-Lingual Method), no time is allowed for language to emerge as the teacher requires the students to mimic him/her.

Influence of the Natural Approach

The Natural Approach, (or the "Direct Method rediscovered") is seen in some of the techniques used in the S.O.L. In Standard Oral Lessons, teachers make sure that new vocabulary items and grammar structures are introduced as comprehensible input is provided. Teachers are asked to keep the affective filter low though they give students orders and correct their mistakes. Mistakes are to be corrected in a gentle and non-judgmental fashion. Recently, some methods have been suggested to make the S.O.L. more communicative by using group and pair work in order to increase the students' participation.

Conclusion

From the above analysis we can see that the Standard Oral Lesson draws from all the different methods and approaches that we have analyzed in the first part of this paper. Next, I would like to propose a technique that if added to the S. O. L. will make students conversant with the more difficult grammar structures that rarely make it into their active repertoire. This technique, called "reactivation," draws on much of the theory discussed earlier.

Reactivation

Definition Reactivation is the re-use of either structures or idioms in context. Its purpose is to make learners more conversant with those items. Reactivation is, therefore, synonymous with "recycling" or "re-entry." In more succinct terms, reactivation has been defined as the "re-use of active linguistic elements presented at the beginning of a class or in previous classes"(E.N.S. document, p. 37).

Purpose The fundamental purpose of reactivation is for learners to become more skillful at using different grammar structures and idioms so that they become more proficient and fluent in the L².

Goals Most grammar structures are taught within the framework of the Standard Oral Lesson described earlier. Given that the academic year extends over a period of approximately 30 weeks and that there are 3 sessions of English a week, the students are expected to encounter an average of 90 English structures per school year. By the time they enter the fifth form, they are supposed to be in possession of 360 structures. However, this number cannot be realistically reached for different reasons. Some structures become part of the students' active repertoire, others are passive and recognized by the student when s/he comes across them, and still others do not make it into either of these categories. It is obvious that if students were able to integrate more structures into their active repertoire, they would become more conversant and their active repertoire more varied.

Some language structures take more time to sink into the learners' active repertoire. When a grammar structure has been introduced in a previous lesson and is not re-used by the teacher or the learners, it becomes obsolete. Reactivation is the technique that sees to it that both the teacher and the learners use structures so that they enrich their linguistic competence and develop fluency. Rivers (1966) writes on the importance of re-entry of materials:

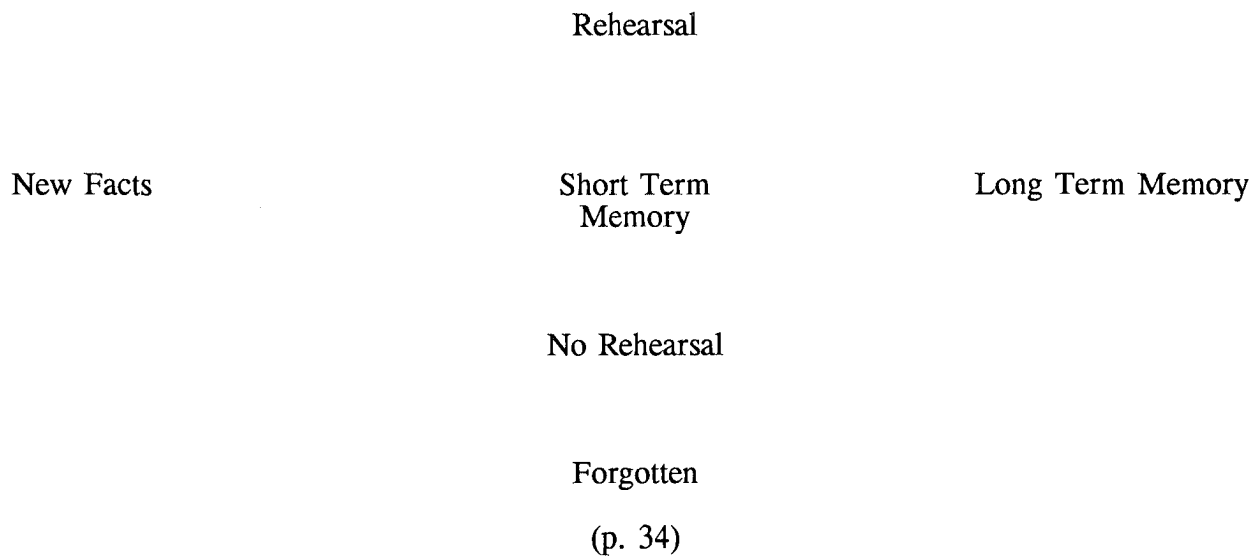
A few minutes of listening comprehension games at regular intervals, usually at the end of class lessons, will enable the teacher to reintroduce systematic material which is not currently being actively practiced. In this way, retention of material from earlier lessons will be constantly reinforced by active recapitulation without tedium.

Richard (1986) expresses the same idea as he writes: "Students are not expected to use a word actively until they have heard it many times"(p. 136). Hearing a particular grammar structure used many times allows for numerous opportunities for hypotheses testing. The learners are able to confirm and/or reject the hypothesis they may have formed earlier on a particular grammar structure. Prabhu (1976) also contends that a learner may have to hear a structure several times before s/he is able to pick up the form through abstraction. Thus, constant exposure has the merit of making the learner's hypothesis accurate and complete.

Re-use of an item enables students who may not have grasped a structure other opportunities to learn it. Krashen (1983), in his $i+1$ hypothesis, has stated that learners are never at the same stage at the same time. He writes that when "students miss a structure, they nearly always have to "wait until next year" to learn it; which is why he advocates roughly tuned input so that structures are constantly reactivated in communicative settings. Such is the first principle of reactivation.

The second principle of reactivation is that the teacher provides the necessary scaffolding for the learners to use such structures. This will enable learners to develop a flair for knowing when to use appropriate advanced structures rather than always falling back on easy and elementary structures.

Ellis (1985) and Stevick (1982) give evidence that the more structures are used by the teacher, the more likely they can be reused by the learners. In other words, the less time that elapses between the time learners are introduced to a structure and the time(s) it is reused the more spontaneity the learners will demonstrate in the use of that structure. Colin (1985) states that unless information is rehearsed, it is lost. She offers the following model of memory:



She further goes on to say that:

Numerous researchers have conducted experiments which indicate that information which is not rehearsed in the short term memory is rapidly forgotten. Conversely there seems to be a direct correlation between the amount of rehearsal and the probability of recalling a word that had been listened to for 2 seconds was almost twice the probability of recalling a word that had been listened to for 1 second. This is because the short term memory is the part of the memory that does the encoding, or registration, and the better the encoding the stronger the ultimate memory. (p. 35)

Stevick expresses something similar as he states:

A few writers on memory speak also of "tertiary" memory. Material in Long Term Memory (sometimes called "secondary memory") is gradually lost with the passage of time unless it is used occasionally. (1980, p. 277)

He further goes on to say that "a certain amount of meaningful practice (not rote repetition) may still be necessary to ensure fluency and permanence" (p. 41).

Techniques Used in Reactivation

Materials Material support used for reactivating structures is varied. The following materials can be used for this purpose: printed text, video, slides, radio, and cartoons. It is up to the teacher to select and find the appropriate material that will best help him/her achieve the goal. Some materials offer themselves more readily to the purpose of reactivation. Some are more appropriate for the re-use of specific structures.

Procedure - Reuse by the teacher The teacher uses structures s/he has presented to the students in earlier lessons in a natural way in normal conversation. This technique is similar to Krashen's $i + 1$ theory and will insure automatic review (in context) of previously presented structures. S/He may also use new structures that will be defined by their contexts. Constant reuse of the structures by the teacher, however, will increase the teacher's talking time at the expense of the learners. How do we get the learners to reuse structures which have previously been presented?

Reuse by the learners If the teacher naturally uses the structures in his/her everyday speech, supposedly they will eventually sink into the learners' mind. However, experience shows that some structures are so irreducible that they are not easily absorbed into every student's active repertoire. Furthermore, it has been stipulated by Krashen and Terrell (1983) that not all students are at the same level at the same time, which is the reason why they recommend a roughly-tuned input (our first stage of reactivation).

The second stage of reactivation involves both the teacher and the learners in a game-like fashion, similar to a table-tennis ball exchange. Prior to such activities, it is advised that the teacher keeps a list of any structure that s/he presents within the framework of the Standard Oral Lesson. This list can be referred to as a temperature sheet. A temperature grill will help the teacher monitor the acquisition and naturalness with which the students re-use the structures when they participate in communicative activities where they are left to manipulate the language structures as they would in real life conversation. Such a list would be as follows:

Academic
Year

Form: 1^{ère}

Date of
Reactivation

Neither . . . Nor . . .

None of . . .

Not only did she . . . but she also

. . . used to . . .

. . . were (are) used to + . . .ing

though/although . . .

In spite of/despite . . .

. . . could have been . . .

 might . . .

 must . . .

They wished they + Past Perfect (Tense and pronouns are, of course, adaptable)

This list of the structures which are taught or supposed to be known in 1^{ere} (Grade 12) is a limited one. As a matter of fact, by the time Ivorian pupils get to this level, they are supposed to know all intermediate structures and most of the advanced structures that appear in functional grammar books. However, they may not have mastered them as their use of such structures is limited.

As the teacher works on his/her preparations, and as s/he identifies pedagogic support (text, cartoons, images, films . . .) s/he looks for opportunities that will enable the reuse of the structures listed on the left hand side of the "temperature sheet". The teacher does not systematically manage to get the students to reuse every single grammar structure as a time factor comes into play.

The reason for the temperature sheet is for the teacher to address structures that necessitate more "care" than others. In the series of questions, the teacher prepares for the Standard Oral Lesson for example, the teacher can incorporate the grammar structure in his/her questions if possible. When students are conversant with the structure "be used to + ing", for example, the teacher can use it in his/her questions to make meaning out of the text or check comprehension. If, however, learners are not used to such a structure (or other structures), its (their) use in the questioning may confuse the learners, as they may not have had enough time or opportunity to test their hypotheses about that particular structure.

Not every structure on the sheet needs to receive equal attention and focus. The teacher makes decisions according to whether or not the learners have become conversant in the use of some structures. It is obvious that if the learners have reached a point where they naturally reuse a grammar structure in communicative activities, the teacher will not have to devote as much attention to it and can focus on other structures. Once a structure has been integrated in the students' active repertoire, ordinary fluency activities with teachers, among peers, and other activities (reading, film watching ...) will play a maintenance function. Thus, such structures will not become obsolete in the learners' repertoire. The teacher will have more time to devote to other structures by means of the reactivation technique.

The vertical columns serve the purpose of maintaining a record of the date and the number of times a structure has been reactivated by the pupils by means of the scaffolding provided by the teacher. The frequency of use of a structure by the teacher influences the frequency of use by the learners. If learners are provided with the scaffolding so that they can make use of the structures themselves, their acquisition process will be speeded up. Empirical evidence demonstrates that the more a structure is used, shown by a check in the right hand box, the more independent learners will become in the use of this particular structure. It is obvious that the teacher will need a large piece of double folded paper to maintain this record given the number of times s/he meets with the learners (on average of 90 times per academic year).

The scaffolding provided by the teacher for reuse by the learner is similar to Socrates' technique to elicit answers from learners. After the teacher has identified the structures s/he wants the learners to reuse, s/he has to remember how the structure was presented to the students the first time (within the framework of the Standard Oral Lesson). The ease of reactivation will depend on the effectiveness and clarity with which the structure was first been presented. As the teacher re-introduces a structure, s/he attaches further meaning of the structure to its form. As an example of this, let us use the presentation sequence of two structures that can be potentially used in the text "The Village Gossip". These structures are:

- 1) Subj. + had hardly + Past participle + when + subj. + verb (past)
- 2) If + subj. + had + past participle...subject + would not have + PP.

Let us bear in mind that the presentation procedure is the one used in the Standard Oral Lesson.

Structure 1

Subj + had hardly + Past Participle + when + subj. + verb (past). . . could be taught according to this procedure:

- T: What did you do as soon as you got home yesterday?
P: (As soon as I got home yesterday) I went out to play football.

T: We could also say, I had hardly got home than I went out to play football.
(The teacher then goes on for practice and performance.)

Procedure to Introduce Structure 2

If + Subj. + had + Past Participle + Subject + would (not) have + Past Participle...

T: Why did Konan get bitten by the dog?

P: Because he tried to run away from it.

T: Did he know the dog would bite him if he ran away?

P: No, he didn't.

T: (That's right.) If he had known the dog would bite him, he would not have run away.

The teacher then proceeds on for practice and performance.

As we have been able to observe, the teacher uses a realistic context to introduce a structure. Such a structure is arrived at by means of another structure or series of structures that serve as a scaffolding. Those transitory structures are well known by the learners and help them to arrive at a higher level. Such scaffolding will help the teacher elicit unmastered structures from the learners as the teacher asks questions for the exploitation stage of the Standard Oral Lesson.

As we have said earlier, these two structures can be used to express ideas about the text, "The Village Gossip". Let us see which ideas they are, and how we can help the learners reuse the supposedly unmastered structures.

Structure 1

T: What did Ogea say as soon as she heard Omirima?

P: She said the gossip was coming.

T: Did she say that a long time after she heard Omirima's voice?

P: No, she said that as soon as she heard her.

T: How can you say that differently?

P: Ogea had hardly heard Omirima than she said the gossip was coming.

T: Why did Omirima abuse Ogea?

P: She abused Ogea because Ogea answered without looking up.

T: Did Ogea know Omirima would abuse her if she did not look up?

P: No, she didn't

T: In which condition would Omirima have looked up?

P: If she had known Omirima would have abused her, she would have looked up.

These steps are negotiated by the teacher and the learners as the teacher tries to find the best way to lead the learners to the use of an unmastered structure.

For the sake of practice, let us list some more structures that can be reused by the learners by means of appropriate scaffolding. Such structures are:

She was so + adjective + that . . .

She'd better have + past participle . . .

She'd rather she had + past participle . . .

She was the laziest woman they had ever heard about.

It stands to reason that these structures will be integrated into the series of questions asked during the exploitation of the text, "The Village Gossip".

T: How did Omirima feel when Ogea did not look up?

P: She felt angry.

T: How angry did she feel?

P: She felt very angry.

T: Since she felt very angry, what did she do?

P: Since she felt very angry she abused Ogea.

T: How can you say that differently?

P: She felt so angry that she abused Ogea.

T: What would have been better for Ogea to do as she answered?

P: It would have been better for her to look up.

T: Or?

P: She'd better have looked up.

T: What would Omirima have preferred Ogea to do as she answered?

P: She would have preferred her to look up.

T: How could you put that differently?

P: She'd rather Ogea had looked up as she answered.

T: What was Omirima's daughter-in-law like according to her?

P: She was (very) lazy.

T: Had she ever seen a woman lazier than her daughter-in-law?

P: Her daughter-in-law was the laziest woman she had ever seen.

T: Would you say she was the laziest woman she had possibly or certainly seen?

P: She was the laziest woman she had probably ever seen.

T: How could you say that differently?

P: She was the laziest woman she might have ever seen. (In case the learner responded with "certainly") She was the laziest she must have ever seen.

It is obvious that the teacher has to adapt his/her questioning to the students answers if the answers make sense in the context. Even though the teacher has a list of questions, s/he has to demonstrate flexibility so as to make room for unexpected but sensible answers.

Should Scaffolding Remain Constant and Permanent?

Just as in building, scaffoldings serve their purpose by letting people reach heights and are then withdrawn, so the scaffolding used in reactivation will have to be withdrawn at some point. When the teacher receives signals from the pupils to remove the scaffolding s/he will not need to ask questions like: "How can/could you say it more appropriately" or "What's another way to say that?" . . .By the time students have reached this stage, they are able to make strong associations between structures and ideas and concepts, and are more spontaneous in the use of unprompted structures to express ideas. By now, the activity pattern shows the learners' ability to relate any given structure to an idea in the passage. Here is a list of structures that learners can reuse to express ideas about the cartoons in Appendix II:

- To be so . . .that. . .
- He'd better have . . .
- Had + subject + pp + subject wouldn't have . . .
- Subject + might have . . .
- Subject had no sooner . . . than . . .
- Only if + subject +wouldn't have . . .
- Subject + could have . . .
- Subject + ought not to . . .

Reactivation has some inconveniences. Getting to know them will help us find possible remedies. Let us identify them.

Problem #1: Reactivation is time consuming.

Suggested Solution for #1 Time is the price one must pay for reactivation. In the beginning, students fail to make associations between ideas and structures. In the long run though, learners are able to catch on and things will go on rather smoothly. When a structure is accessed by the students without too much control by the teacher or when the students begin to use such structures naturally, by themselves, the teacher can start devoting less time to it and will use such a structure in his/her everyday speech for the purpose of maintenance.

Problem #2: The teacher talks at least as much as the students do.

Suggested Solution for #2 Most communicative activities devote almost the entire time to pupil-to-pupil interaction. While reactivation requires the teacher to take up most of the time, however, appropriate activities could be devised so that students do without the constant interference of the teacher. For example, the teacher can give the students a text, a picture, or a series of cartoons accompanied by a list of structures which the students would be asked to use to express ideas. This kind of activity is very helpful when the students have a some mastery of the structure. Students make a choice as to where using the structure is most

appropriate. They are given time to decide for themselves where the use of the structure would make sense. Eventually, they can write a story around the cartoons or pictures with the structures that have been provided. If the teacher makes use of a film, s/he can give the learners a list of structures to express ideas or to relate events that occurred in the film.

Problem #3: As the reactivation process sounds ritualistic; it does not match natural communication.

Suggested Solution for #3 Reactivation does not match real life conversation, however, it can help improve the quality of one's conversation. After all, who would not like to speak a foreign language with the polished and refined forms that native speakers use as they write or speak? Reactivation provides the stepping stones to this end.

Problem #4: Mostly top students are able to upgrade their level as they are the ones who can process the teacher's question faster to both derive an answer from the text and guess the appropriate structure to "clothe" the idea expected by the teacher. As well, learning is not collaborative since activities are carried out in a lockstep pattern.

Suggested Solution for #4 The teacher can individualize reactivation activities so that every learner has the time and opportunity to work and receive feedback. Both written and group activities can be used. Conversations held during such activities will obviously take place in English. Teachers should organize groups in a way that will permit learners at slightly different levels to work together yet not allow stronger students to dominate the conversation. Some students may not deal with intermediate structures, let alone advanced ones. The teacher will then have to classify students according to their respective level when s/he devises such activities. Still, s/he may want to use the better students as resources. Such activities and collaborative atmosphere will lower the competitive atmosphere that prevails in the Standard Oral Lesson and in reactivation conducted in a lockstep fashion.

Problem #5: The students' affective filter may rise when they are given feedback on the inappropriateness of a structure.

Suggested Solution for #5 It is not simply because feedback is given on the inappropriateness of a structure which causes the affective filter to rise. Anxiety also relates to how feedback is given. Teachers are asked to take this variable into consideration. Students will be better prepared for such feedback if they are told about the objective of the technique. Here like anywhere else, the teacher will attempt to create, as Long (1987) proposes: ". . . a non-threatening atmosphere . . . in which people feel free to volunteer opinions and make guesses without fear of ridicule"(p. 242).

Problem #6: There is too much teacher control in the learning process and in the choice of the structures that are to be reactivated.

Suggested Solution for #6 As in suggested solution #4, learners become less dependent on the teacher by working on reactivation activities in groups. Also, as the teacher progressively withdraws the scaffolding by remodelling the reactivation process, s/he creates more independence for the learners. Such an activity might include the teacher making a list of structures that students are asked to use to express ideas or talk about events in the material. Better still, students individually or/and in groups could be asked to make a list of structures that seem a bit irreducible to them. They are then provided materials by the teacher so that they try to reuse such structures in context. Furthermore, with the help of their art teacher, students can develop their own cartoons or pictures around topics of their choice. The topic can make the reactivation process much more interesting if it is one that sparks the interest of the learners.

Instructional Materials

The instructional materials have to provide opportunities for reactivation. Materials used in the Cote d'Ivoire for E.F.L. largely lend themselves to these types of activities. Texts (like "The Village Gossip") and cartoons (see Appendix II) are readily available. Other visual materials can be brought into the classroom for the sake of reactivation. As in any other activity, the more varied the materials, the more enthusiasm will be demonstrated on the part of the learners.

Teacher's Role

The teacher plays a very central role in the first stage of the reactivation process. S/he is in charge of the choice of materials and decides in which structures s/he wants the students to be conversant. However, as time elapses, students gain more control of the learning process and content.

Learner's Role

In respect to the pedagogical axiom: "Tell me, I forget; Teach me, I remember; Involve me, I learn," the teacher has to look into ways to make the learners less dependent on him/her. The teacher must progressively give more control to the learners, who in turn assume more responsibility as the scaffolding provided by the teacher is removed. In this way, students can use the once irreducible structures more and more independently. The learners are also given responsibility for the creation of materials, dialogues, drawings and cartoons. When they get together for group work, students learn to rely on one another for mutual support. After the group work, it is advisable to have different groups discuss with the whole class what

sentences they have produced so as to receive feedback from the entire group. Devoting time for "de-briefing" will also help the teacher evaluate his/her teaching.

Conclusion

This section has been devoted to the reactivation process. As we have said before, reactivation can be entirely integrated into the Standard Oral Lesson which is a lesson model most often used in the Cote d'Ivoire. Though in the first type of reactivation activity, the use of cues to elicit structures from pupils (in relation to a context) may look like the "mim-mem" Audio-Lingual Method, in later stages it becomes evident that ability to understand the meaning of a structure in different contexts can lead to its command and creative use.

The basic assumption of reactivation is, as Rivers asserts:

The more meaningful connections that are established for the foreign language through active use in authentic contexts, both linguistic and cultural, the more readily will the necessary linguistic clothing become available to us as we need it for the expression of our personal intentions. (1966, p. 73)

It goes without saying that reactivation is one way to get learners to become skillful in the active use of irreducible structures. Just as the use of a variety of tasks and activities in reactivation is essential in maintaining students' interest, so varieties of techniques and approaches are important for the L². Furthermore, different pupils and different learning circumstances make it necessary for the teachers to resort to different techniques, methods and approaches.

Stern (1977) makes this clear when he states, ". . . no one approach has the monopoly of either success or failure." (p. 23). It is obvious, for example, that reactivation is concerned with language production at the single sentence level whereas normal communication goes beyond this language unit. Reactivation activities cannot replace communicative activities (information gap, problem-solving. . .) which provide the L² learners with the appropriate skills of normal communication.

In this project we have recommended the use of reactivation starting from Seconde (Grade 11), as students are in their fifth year of English studies and have had time to develop some fluency. Reactivation will provide them with the opportunity to become more fluent and they will develop more of a flair for once irreducible structures.

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Appendix I

THE VILLAGE GOSSIP

Omirima calls on her relative and friend, Amede, and begins complaining about her daughter-in-law's behaviour.

Omirima's voice was heard from a distance and Ogea frowned. "She is coming, the gossip," Ogea said under her breath. "She has never in her life said anything good about anybody. I wonder who is going to be her next victim. She is always running people down".

"Is Amede in ?" Omirima shouted a few yards away from the house.

"She is in", Ogea answered without looking up.

"You rude girl. Why do you talk to me like that. Look at me." She got hold of Ogea's face in both hands and looked at it intently. She hissed and left her.

"Who is your father anyway ?"

Ogea did not reply. "You go and ask questions," Omirima said.

"What's the matter ? Gilbert's mother asked from within.

"It's the daughter of Nwosu. That ignorant girl. But never mind I have dealt with her."

"Sit down, and don't worry. She is only a child.

"A child indeed. Does she not know when there is no salt in the soup ? Does she put food in her nose ?"

"Don't worry. Leave her. That how they all behave. Are your children well ?"

"They are very well, thank you. It's only my daughter-in-law. She went to school and so she thinks she knows everything. She is so lazy. Have you ever known a woman, brought up in our town who sleeps until the sun is up ?"

"No, impossible. Who sleeps until the sun is up ?" Amede asked unbelievably. "My daughter-in-law, Amede, my daughter-in-law. I have talked and talked, my son does not want to listen to me. Please help me to talk. Go there now, and you will be told by one of the numerous servants that she is in bed sleeping."

"This is bad. She is unlike our women. Where did she learn this foreign bad behaviour ? I thank God my daughter-in-law does not sleep till sun rise."

"She learnt it from the white women. That's what I told her. I said to her, you are not an idle white woman. Women of our town are very industrious. They rise when the cock crows. Husbands of white women are rich, so their wives can afford to be lazy. An idle woman is dangerous, so I told her to her face.

"Yes, an idle woman is dangerous. I pity these white women you know. How can one sit down in a big house all by oneself and do nothing ? It must be a difficult life," Amede said".

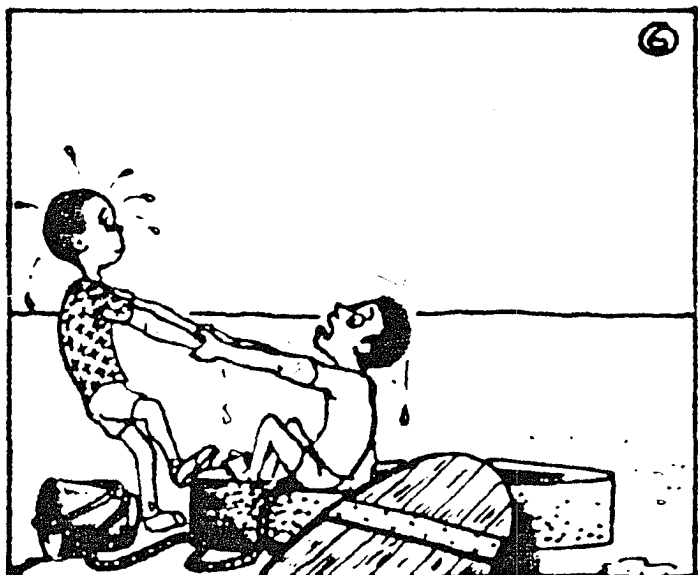
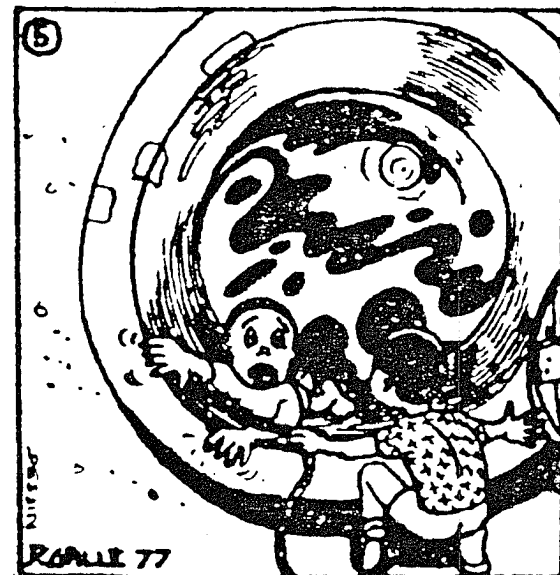
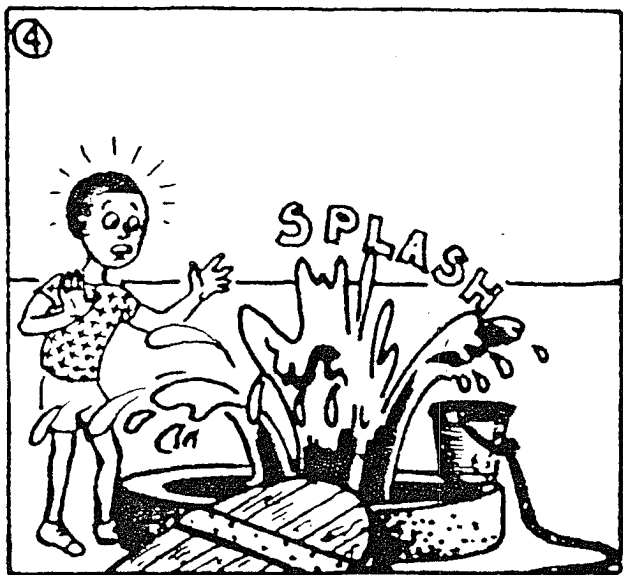
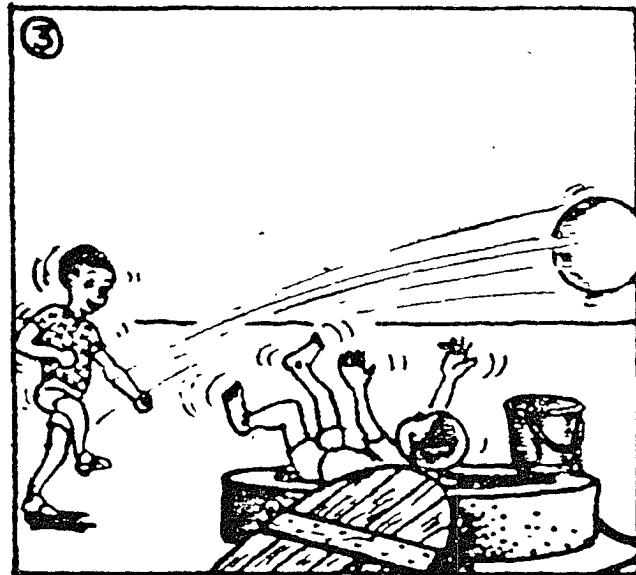
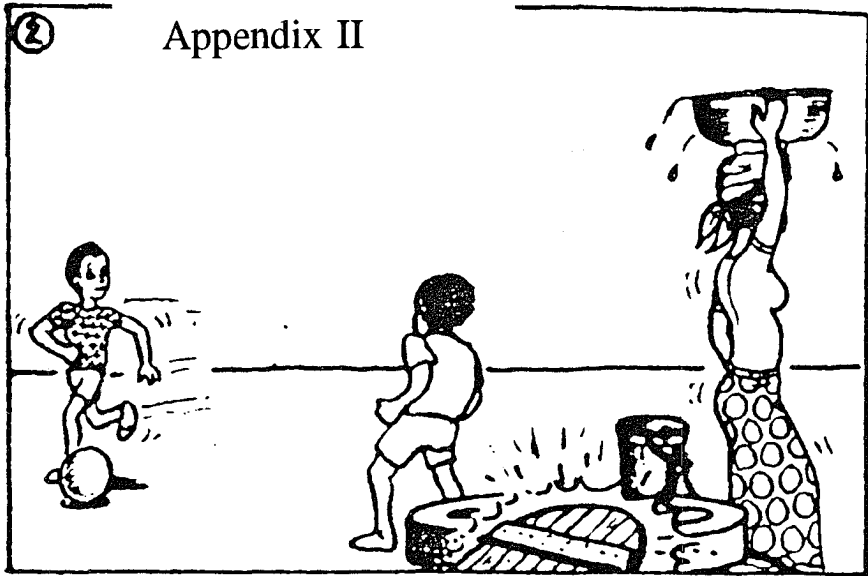
"My daughter-in-law enjoys it. She does not need your pity. What she does is to keep her children apart. My youngest daughter came back from her house yesterday in tears saying that she drove her away from her house because she has yaws. I went straight to her. You can trust me to go straight to her. I asked her why she drove back my daughter from her house. Did she not know that she was married to my son, and therefore must treat my children and me with respect ? Was my daughter suffering from leprosy to merit such a treatment ? She said she sent back my daughter because yaws was so contagious and so she did not want her children to suffer from it. She said she would allow my daughter to come to the house only when the yaws was cured. I laughed at her ignorance. What a fool she was, I told her. This is the time for your children to suffer from yaws. You don't want them to suffer from it when they grow up. This is the time. She laughed at me. She said that it was not inevitable."

"Leave her to fool around. She will regret it. These children get on my nerves. What exactly are they taught in that school of theirs that they mock at us and oppose us in nearly everything ?"

"That's it. The world is changing..."

Flora Nwapa (Nigeria), Efuru.

Appendix II



NITING

ROALE 77