

Redefining Teaching Approach for Learning Communicative English.

Dr. Somali Gupta

Professor of English

Govt. V.Y.T.PG Autonomous College

Durg. Chhattisgarh, India

somaligupta@gmail.com

Introduction

Speaking is more than merely talking. It involves thinking, imagination, sensitiveness in listening and understanding. The communication process is completed only when the speaker gets a response by word, look, gesture, or even silence. This enables the speaker to judge the attitude of the listener and the degree of success or failure of the communication. The entire body is used in speaking. It uses the audible code – the sounds used by the speaker, and the visible code – the movements or gestures of the face, arms and other parts of the body that are used for emphasis. The primary function of the speech is to influence others.

Generally, language learning proceeds, from hearing and speaking to reading and writing. But in the case of second/ foreign language acquisition, this order is often violated. In India, especially with regard to English, learners begin with writing and reading and come to speech only towards the end of their learning. Very little curriculum time is given to teaching oral skills. It is therefore not unusual to find a large number of English users, who are fairly proficient in reading and writing, but cannot speak well. The confusion in the order of learning also seems responsible to a certain extent for errors in the performance of second language users.

This paper is based on the project that I had done in order to understand and develop an approach that would help the L2 learners acquire English language competence. (Students from the tribal or backward areas of Chhattisgarh(India) are usually intimidated by the thought of learning English which according to them is the language of the elite.) This project was based on qualitative analysis and was sponsored by the UGC.

Theories used for Classroom Approach and Curriculum Designing

1) Humanistic Teaching Approach for EFL.

This approach is based on Daniel Goleman's (1995) research on Emotional Intelligence (EQ); why it can matter more than IQ. Recently it has been noted that students who don't fair well in their examinations, also fair badly socially. There are also cases of very intelligent students who become social 'outcasts'. This is what Goleman terms as emotional illiteracy.

The cost of this type of illiteracy is very high – could be paid with lives (pp 265-274). Besides teaching language, the Affective Teaching Approach also includes (in Goleman's term) 'Schooling the Emotions'. Goleman states "the healthiest way to teach children is by motivating them from inside rather than by threat or promise or reward. We should use kids' positive states to draw them into learning in the domains where they can develop competencies" (pp 106-107).

The chapter 'Managing with heart' proves that emotional intelligence is cost-effective for any type of business including language education. There are many benefits for teacher as managers if they have the basic skills of emotional competence.

Redefining Humanistic Approach

The humanistic approaches were first introduced in the late sixties and early seventies. This requires an orientation towards 'holistic' education, which aims to promote growth in intrapersonal awareness and interpersonal sharing as well as intellectual development (Legutke & Thomas, 1991:36). This can be interpreted as teaching with affection, developing a learner's inner personality and self-confidence, interpersonal skills, as well as his intellectual skills, all at once.

One of the most cited early works on humanism is Moskowitz (1978) book, *Caring and Sharing in the Foreign language Classroom*. Her two major emphases are related to this paper: Firstly, "humanistic education takes into consideration that learning is affected by how students feel about themselves" (p. 12). It "is concerned with educating the whole person - intellectual and the emotional dimensions" (p.

11). Secondly each individual is unique and to be 'self-actualising' is to function to one's fullest capacity.

Quoting Stevick's (1975) work, Legutke & Thomas (1991) note the four forms of alienation that are possibly responsible for failure in modern language teaching; 1)the alienation of learners from the material, 2)from themselves 3)from the class and 4)from the teacher. This alienation is also the educational starting point of postponements of humanistic approach and the hidden agenda of many resource books offering communicative tasks (p.36). the topic of hidden agenda will be further explored in the section of this paper on Exploring Affective Teaching Approach.

With heavy schedules in set curricula for schools, most teachers are reluctant to undertake heavier burdens by including emotional literacy as another subject to be taught. This is not necessary so. According to Goleman, the idea is to blend lessons on feelings and relationship with other subjects. "Emotional lessons can emerge naturally into these subjects and infiltrate into the very fabric of school life. In fact these lessons should essentially be "an invisible emotional and social competence course" (p. 312). This approach equates incidental learning in grammar. This incidental learning is achieved with appropriate selection of teaching materials (for example reading passages for teaching emotional and social skills) and (re)training of teachers to discipline students who misbehave (explaining their mistake instead of reprimanding).

Affective Environment for Effective Teaching (Role of Teachers)

The success of any EFL program depends on many factors. These include the sound curricular, the different methodology or approaches, the management and the environment. However, a review of recent literature indicates insufficient discussion on environment as one of the crucial factors for effective learning of ESL to take place. Nunan (1995) agrees that "the context and environment of learning as well as the management of language classrooms, are relatively under-presented in the literature on language teaching methodology" (p.7). For the purpose of this paper environment is defined as the conducive, holistic atmosphere incorporating all the variables under the three categories of physical, mental and spiritual environment involved during the language learning process.

After receiving a few studies, Cray and Currie (1996), include one characteristic that teachers should have which is rather similar to the environment factor discussed in this paper.

Besides having knowledge in pedagogical content, instructional practice, critical thinking skills and problem solving abilities, a language teacher should also possess the ability to handle non-pedagogical factors including social and personal complexities. Studies have shown that in the 1990's the role of teachers of English as a second or foreign language has developed from merely as teachers' into autonomous experts with the knowledge, experience and intuitions to make informed decisions about what should happen in their classrooms.

Since then it has been realized that 'language classrooms are complex settings, composed of both pedagogical elements, and that teachers must be prepared to deal with their uniqueness' (pg. 113). To do that, teachers need to be well equipped with knowledge of the factors involved in order to be able to create the conducive, affective environment for effective language learning.

One such environment is within a learner-centered curriculum. Nunan (1988) believes that a curriculum that specifies planning equals teaching equals learning is naive. Research suggests that the equation is much more complex than this (pg.1) due to the obvious mismatch between the traditional curriculum and the demands of the classroom, Nunan embarks on researching a learner-centered curriculum. In this curriculum, while one major aim or sets of aims will relate to the development of learning skills. Such aims may include the following:

- To provide learners with efficient learning strategies.
- To assist learners identify their own preferred ways of learning
- To develop skills needed to negotiate the curriculum
- To encourage learners to set their own objectives
- To encourage learners to adopt realistic goals and time frames
- To develop learners' skills in self-evaluation.

Teachers who try to achieve some if not all of the above aims are on their way to setting the conducive environment for their students to learn the language. Some teachers assume that in a learner-centered classroom, teachers may lose their authority. This assumption is unfounded as pointed out by Widdowson (1987):

The increase in learner-centered activity and collaborative work in the classroom does not mean that the teacher becomes less authoritative. He or she to continue the enabling conditions for learning, has still to monitor and guide process (p. 87)

It is clear that a learner-centered curriculum paves the way for Affective Teaching. This is not easy, as there is an official curriculum with a set of learning objectives that teachers need to adhere to. But Nunan (1988) points out that this can be solved by looking at techniques and procedures for negotiation and procedures. He quotes Brindly (1984) saying it does not mean “teachers should give learners everything that they want- evidence from teachers suggests that some sort of compromise is usually possible, but only after there has been discussion concerning what both parties believe and want (p 6).

Exploring Affective Teaching Approach

Confluent Education, a pedagogic vehicle for humanistic thinking, is not a new education movement (Brown (1971), Rivers (1983). However, Legutke & Thomas’ (1991) model for this type of education will be the starting point in this section. This model illustrates the overlapping of the cognitive and the affective domains of the learners. Therefore, teachers should maximize on both the learners’ IQ and EQ.

With their intelligence, the learners should be provided with awareness of not only language education but also other types of education so as to activate their ability to respond and inculcate responsibility (in their learning), thus modulating a well-rounded person, intellectually and emotionally. Based on patterns in Confluent Education and Goleman’s theory of ‘ Schooling the Emotions’, a model for affective teaching approach incorporating the hidden curriculum was created.

Teachers can get the learners to be spontaneous in their learning and to be intrinsically motivated by making the learners understand what they are learning and what they are learning it for. As the focus has now shifted to the learners, understanding the factors affecting language learning is crucial. These factors under the two categories are presented in Figure 2. The line separates the intrinsic from the extrinsic factors.

A lot of research has been done on how these factors affect language learning. Wenden (1987) cites a few studies to show the importance of affective factors, the influence of social factors (EQ), and the importance of cognitive abilities (IQ) in the language learning process. Carrel, prince & Astika (1996) also cite recent studies that show the success of second language education caused by affective, motivational, personality and demographic factors. Lightbrown & Spada (1999) believe that learners have certain characteristics, which lead to more or less successful language learning.

By understanding the characteristics of a ‘good language learner’, teachers are able to help the learners deal with their weaknesses. Research on factors affecting language learning can be done using specific measurements, tests, surveys, questionnaire or observations.

The present study explores the Affective Teaching approach using questionnaires and observations, plus an analysis of the students’ profile, and the study also takes into consideration almost all the factors affecting language learning included in figure 2.

Task Based Curricular Design

Language instructors and curriculum designers have two broad categories of syllabuses available to choose from. The first, the synthetic syllabus, segments the target language into discrete linguistic items, such as points of grammar, lexical items, or functions. Users of this type of syllabus assume that learners will be capable of re-synthesizing these discrete pieces of language into coherent whole which can then be effectively utilized in communicative situations (White, 1988). The second type, the analytical syllabus, is a non-interventionist, experimental approach which aims to immerse learners in real-life communication. It provides learners with samples of the target language which are organised in terms of the purposes for which people use language. In this case, the assumption is that the learners’ analytic abilities will be equal to the task of coming to accurate conclusions about grammatical and lexical usage, since relatively little may be explicitly explained about the formal aspects of the language. Analytical syllabuses generally represent the educational value system espoused by progressivism, which stresses the growth and self-realization of the individual (White, 1988). This is a problem-posing type of education which emphasizes dialog between learners and teachers and between the learners themselves. The purpose of the dialogue is to stimulate new ideas, opinions, and perceptions rather than simply exchange them or regurgitate what others have said. White (1988) lists the most salient characteristics of analytic syllabus as follows: (a) they are primarily concerned with how materials are learned (processes oriented); (b) some degree of negotiation between learners and teachers occurs; (c) the content is fundamentally defined as what the subject means to the learner and what the learner brings to the subject in terms of knowledge and interest; (d) assessment is partially decided based on the learners’ own criteria of success, and; (e) the instructional situation is far more co-operative than in more traditional, teacher-fronted classrooms.

This last point has been referred to as maximizing learning opportunities (Kumaravadivelu, 1994) and is an essential aspect of what has been termed a learner-centered curriculum. Classroom discourse should be a cooperative venture in which discourse is created through the joint efforts of both the learners and instructor.

One type of analytic syllabus is the task-based syllabus (Crookes & Long, 1992). In addition to the above characteristics of analytic syllabuses, task-based syllabuses are largely derived from what is known about second language acquisition (SLA). For instance, SLA research supports a focus on form which uses pedagogic tasks to draw learners' attention to particular aspects of the language code which is naturally embedded in the tasks (Long & Robinson, 1988). The inclusion of some type of instruction on the formal aspects of the target language can be found in most recent formulations of task-based language instruction (e.g. Skehan, 1988; Willis, 1996). Tasks also provide input to learners and opportunities for meaningful language acquisition (Swain, 1995). Opportunities for production may force students to pay close attention to form and to the relationship between form and meaning. It is assumed that this combination of contextualized, meaningful input and output will engage learners' general cognitive processing capacities through which they will process and reshape the input. In other words, tasks will likely create a rich linguistic environment capable of activating the learners' intuitive heuristics (Kumaravadivelu, 1994), which are natural cognitive processes used both consciously and unconsciously for developing the somewhat separate rules systems that underlie language comprehension and production. In addition, form-function relationships, which are a critical aspect of SLA (MacWhinney, 1997), should be more readily perceived by the learners because of the highly contextualised and communicative nature of the tasks provided by a task-based syllabus.

The Project: Student-Generated Action Research

In this section I would like to briefly describe an extended task-based project which was implemented. The project, which I have called *student-generated action research*, required the entire twelve week semester to complete. However, as a part of the same course the learners were also engaged in other activities that were a part of direct approach to teaching speaking. In this approach, learners are explicitly instructed in some of the specific microskills, strategies and processes which are involved in conversation. These include phrases and strategies for turn-taking, interrupting, expressing agreement or disagreement, summarizing what another person has said and checking whether you have been understood. The knowledge of these 'formulaic frameworks' (Widdowson, 1989, pg. 135) form an essential part of communicative competence of native speakers of a language and act as usual linguistic knowledge which the learners can make use of as they use of as they move through the project.

In brief, the project requires the learners to work in groups of two to four persons and to choose a topic which they are interested in finding out more about. The general objectives of the project are to:

- Provide learners the opportunity to use English for authentic purposes for an extended period of time.
- Provide intrinsically motivating activities which take advantage of the learners' desire to improve their listening and speaking proficiency.
- Allow learners to take responsibility for their own English education by giving them the primary responsibility for topic structure and present data which they collect.
- Reinforce learners' ability to form grammatically and pragmatically collect questions;
- Enhance the learner's presentation skills.
- Demonstrate to students that the use of English can further enhance their own education and development, and;
- Provide opportunities for learners to work closely together with a partner or in a small group for an extended period.

The following is a more detailed look at how the project unfolds throughout the course of a semester.

Fundamental Problems with Tasks

Skehan (1988) lists five major problems which exist where task-based language teaching is concerned. First, although early empirical indications strongly support the use of task as an effective way to conceptualize language teaching, the amount of research is still insufficient. More worrisome is the fact that no task based program has been implemented and subjected to rigorous evaluation. Until this has been accomplished and any positive results replicated, the use of task-based courses will be open to doubts and criticisms. Moreover, assessing task-difficulty and sequencing tasks is problematic. Our understanding of many potential factors influencing task difficulty is quite limited; thus, teachers

must generally fall back on their intuitions about how well their particular learners can deal with specific tasks. Third, little is known about task 'finiteness'. For instance, if examined carefully, a task such as the creation of a questionnaire is composed of a large number of 'microtasks' which must be successfully accomplished in order to complete the larger task. There is probably no clearer explanation of this than in the work of Anderson and his colleagues in the area of production rules (e.g., Anderson, 1993; Anderson & Lebiere, 1988). They have shown how one relatively "simple" task, such as an addition problem, can only be complete if a large number of more basic production rules are known and accurately applied. When the task is the communicative use of language, the situation is far more complex. Skehan (1988) claims that task-based language teaching may be too structured and pre-planned and so slow down the rate of acquisition. However, this did not appear to be a problem with the learners in this program. Only further research on task-based teaching will provide answers to this question.

Frame work:

In the first stage of the survey 60 students were chosen who had to fill up a personal data questionnaire dealing with their Background, Education, Hobbies, Friends, Influences in life, Dreams and Vision. A workshop was held in which the students shared the same data amongst the group. This workshop also helped me to understand how these students tend to avoid learning the language while wanting to learn the language too because of the belief that it is an elitist language.

In the second stage a Motivation Workshop was organized for the students in which they were also required to understand their own personal needs. A lecture on Neuro- linguistic programming to understand blocks, was also delivered.

Often another group of students were involved in the workshop to draw a comparative analysis and a result. While the first primary group of students came from the backward classes or the rural areas the second group of students belonged to the urban area or from a reasonably affluent background, whose parents were also educated.

In another workshop, the students were allowed to interact with the students of other colleges which led to a strong database of the variety of problems that the students had that came in the way of their communication skills (communication not only in English but also in Hindi.) This was followed by another workshop on 'Attitudes'.

The next stage of the project involved the development of the four basic skills (Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking) in the students that are imperative in language learning.

Simultaneously grammar and phonetics were also taught. The students were also made aware of the various theories in language learning. In the activities that involved the development of Speaking Skills the Passive vocabulary of the students was also revived. Other activities like group discussions, role- playing, dramatics, debates were used as alternative methods to teach the skills. Error analysis involved a major part of the process as it helped to develop a clearer understanding of the mistakes that were being committed by the students and also by the teachers in playing their roles. Fluency and accuracy remained the focus of the tasks. A workshop on Body Language (Non verbal communication) was also organized. Role of the teacher in the classroom was also studied. Reasons for negative participation in the given classrooms were also studied.

Motivation

Motivation is the power which makes a learner struggle to achieve his goal. Human capabilities depend on the extent of motivation. The effect of motivation and its variables upon performance, are manifold. The manner and extent of these affects change in accordance with the task and situation. That is, difference in motivation may account for difference in performance of a learner.

"Motivation" is derived from the Latin word 'movere' which means 'to move' and it has been seen as a process which activates and directs behaviour (Young 1961). For Bigge (1971), motivation is when a person develops a state of tension resulting from an unsatisfied need. Most psychologists and applied linguists (Corder, 1973; Gardner 1979 and Gardner & Lambert, 1972) agree that motivation plays a very important role in language learning. Gardner (1979: 198) would expect motivation "to play a direct role in the formal training situation because it would serve to keep the student in the programme, influence his perception of the training situation, and serve as the basis for many reinforcements which might be obtained in the classroom."

Thus the survey of literature on motivation leads us to conclude that definitions are mainly based on three main components in a learning situation. These are: 'goals' of the learner towards learning, 'needs' of the learner and 'drive' of the learners towards a language.

Motivation is individual. That is, every learner has his/her own motives and means to learn in accordance with their ability and goals. There are four types of motivation which can be relevant to language learning. They are 'integrate vs. instructional' motivation and 'extrinsic vs. instinct' motivation.

Gardner and Lambert can be considered the pioneers of language learning motivation studies. In their earliest studies (1959) two distinctive types of motivation, namely integrative and instrumental were classified.

Integrative Motivation:

Integrative motivation is a willingness to become a member of another ethno-linguistic group. In other words, it refers to learning the language the target community in order to be integrated into the culture of that community.

Instrumental Motivation:

Instrumental motivation is the result of external need. They define instrumental motivation as a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through the knowledge of a second or foreign language. Learners who are instrumentally motivated hope to derive benefits from knowing the other language such as getting a better job or position.

However, one can argue that the relative importance of an integrative- instrumental dichotomy will largely depend on the context in which a language is learned. An instrumental motivation can be effective, in particular, in situations where the target language is used as an international means of communication.

Research in the tribal areas of Chhattisgarh indicated that the learners from these regions learn English for its utilitarian value. It needs to be pointed out that positive orientation does not take the form of integrative motivation. In these regions English language is only contacted indirectly through the textbooks. Therefore, the situation is unlikely to initiate any desire for group integration.

In order to adapt the learning process to appeal to the learners, we usually tend to rely on two main types of motivation, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation consists of three components such viz. stimuli, response and reward. The source of this type of motivation comes from outside the learner, who mostly performs a certain task in order to get a reward, (e.g. pass the test), or to avoid punishment (e.g. failure). Unlike extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation is related to the learner's initiative to do a task (e.g. understanding something) for its own sake.

However, the social context in which the language is learned determines the attitude of the learners' social status in a second or foreign language. In relation to the first language, economic, political and social factors are likely to influence motivation to learn a second or foreign language. When the socio-linguistic status of a group, is lower than that of a target language group, instrumental motivation is likely to be a pre- requisite for economic advancement. We can therefore say that individual learner factors are influenced by the social context and these have to be borne in mind while interpreting learners' behaviour.

Since motivation is individual, the teacher, for example, needs to try to understand what kind of motivation his/her learners are intrinsically motivated by. The teacher is expected to find ways or techniques which address the intrinsic motivation. Further, each learner has his/her own way of handling tasks or learning process. Therefore, the teacher has to understand the student's ability, and his way of dealing with learning tasks.

To conclude, the teacher can sometimes be the only source of motivation, essentially in those situations where the learner's experience largely depends on their teacher. In other cases, ambition also acts as a prime motivation.

Methodology

Group Work

Group work has been found especially conducive in the development of oral skills.

Research has given us the 2/3 formula which shows that in a 40 minute class with a strength of 40 students per class a learner gets less than a minute to participate in the speaking activity. Group work provides a framework whereby a learner can have the maximum participation. In a teacher-oriented class, the amount of language practice each learner gets, is much less than in a class where the learners work in groups.

Group work gives an opportunity to learners to speak in small groups, at times with their friends and this reduces the hesitation and embarrassment which a shy learner may feel. Besides helping learners to get rid of their inhibitions, it also builds up a sense of closeness, owing to the physical proximity and the tight structure of the groups. Learners feel more motivated, have a sense of belonging, which spurs them on a particular direction. It helps in establishing a sense of personal rapport. Communication is better when the physical distance between individuals is reduced. Visuals and other materials used in the classrooms are then easy to share within the group.

Students are also able to interact as a group with other groups. This helps in building healthy rivalry. The time limit or inter-group competition spurs each group to move ahead.

It provides an opportunity for peer teaching. Students are more likely to learn from each other than from the teacher. Mistakes get corrected in a healthy cooperative atmosphere. Important features of interaction skills such as turn-taking, adjusting to one's speech to what the other person knows and wants to hear also gets practiced.

Group work allows the teacher to move out of the constraints of the role and act as a manager, facilitator and guide.

As teachers of second language, our main concern is not to impart knowledge and information to the children about the language, but to develop their ability to use their language for a variety of communicative purposes. In order to achieve this end we must

- Appreciate the specific needs of our learners.
- Plan suitable oral activities in English based on the needs of the students
- Monitor and modify these activities to ensure that these activities are effective.
- Understand the various roles that a teacher can play (manager/facilitator/ guide) to enhance the student's oral skills.

Group Discussion:

Group discussion was practiced with the dual purpose. 1) To enable the students to freely participate and exchange views. 2) Practice it as an alternative methodology for classroom teaching.

Group discussion was held both before and after reading texts. It was also held after the topic was declared a day before.

It was found that the students were more participative if the discussion was held after the reading of the texts or if the topic was declared a day before. It gave the less confident learners support in terms of content. The teacher's role became that of an observer, manager and a facilitator. Correction of grammar and other remedial measures were taken later and the discussion was allowed a free flow. Sometimes the dominating students were facilitated to allow the slow learners to participate. The discussions were rounded off by summarizing the group's ideas through reporting or other methods like drawing posters etc. Feedback was given to each student on his/her participation by the teacher. An oral activity which is well planned, organized, executed efficiently, timed correctly with a feedback and a follow up session, gives the learners a sense of achievement. The other activities which met with a lot of enthusiasm from the students were Class Debate and Role Playing.

Learning to Speak

In the case of learning to speak one's mother tongue the child's experiences provide the basis from which meaning and therefore language develops. At the same time what other people around the child say to the child also plays an important part in stimulating the child's actions and setting value on them. The child's language is extended by the parent's responses to her statements and questions. Adults tend to use words so freely and easily that they teach them to the child at almost every opportunity. They encourage the child to say the word aloud, correcting her when she says the word incorrectly or applies it to the wrong object, and rewarding her when she uses the word or symbol correctly. During recent years a body of evidence has grown which seems to indicate that the way in which the child learns to use language is dependent upon early experiences in the home. Differences in the way children use language, thus stem from the experiences in the social environment in their homes. Although the ability to imitate sounds plays a tremendous part in the child's ability to acquire vocabulary and structure and for her utterances, learning to use language is clearly much more complex than being able to imitate sounds. Imitation is not enough to explain how a child gains meaning and gains the adult's way of using language. Most adults seem to help the child intuitively as they talk, sometimes simplifying what they say to accommodate the child's immaturity, and sometimes speaking as they would do to an adult or older child. Often they take what the child has said and repeat a corrected version, which sometimes the child will repeat immediately. In this way it seems the child gains the experience she

needs for distinguishing the more ambiguous aspects of structure in talk.

The young child goes through two phases in learning to speak. The first stage is the Passive Stage in which the child comes to understand much of what is said to her but makes little use of the language herself; the second stage is an Active Stage in which the child begins to use words and word groups.

Mother tongue acquisition

Linguists have observed how children acquire their mother tongue so that the insight gained could be used in teaching of the second language.

They found three important facts which gave a new trend to language teaching.

First: Children start comprehending the language much before they start speaking it.

Second: Children start begin by repeating individual words and then short sentences, but this was a mere mechanical reproduction.

Third: Children form a grammar of their own which explains how they graduate from mere repetition to construction of yet unheard sentences of their own.

The fact emerged that there was to be a gestation period between learning and passive(listening, understanding and reading) and active skills(speaking and writing). But students, most of the time are expected to learn all the skills simultaneously. This becomes difficult for the slow learners.

Use of mother tongue in the classroom

There has been an ongoing debate about whether the learners or the teachers should be allowed to mix or switch codes for teaching and learning English (L-2). Those who are of the opinion that other tongue has no place in an English classroom are advocates of the Direct Method. According to this theory, a constant exposure to the target language enables the learners to pick it up in due course, just as a child picks up the mother tongue. The use of mother tongue by the teacher minimizes this exposure, depriving the learner of a total submersion in the target language. It is also argued that if the learner is denied the option to speak in the mother tongue, the compulsion to communicate will act as a motivation to use English. It is also claimed that this compulsion and constant exposure will act as a spur to help the learners think in English which is the ultimate test in language proficiency.

Failure of the Direct Method

The students who were chosen for this workshop were from the backward classes and rural areas and hence their medium of instruction was Hindi. English was not their language of communication. The direct method is based on the presumption of a maximum exposure to the target language, it must be understood that these students get only 2 hours of exposure at the college since there is no English in the home environment.

Keeping in mind the fact that most of these students have minimal exposure to the language outside the classroom and some of whose motivation to learn it does not go beyond passing the examinations, what seems to be the requirement of the day is a time saving method which puts the students at ease and also instills some confidence in them. This confidence will, in turn act as a motivation for further learning. It was found that judicious use of the mother tongue both by the students and the teachers, proved to be fruitful. Since dependence on mother tongue seemed to be inevitable a methodology to use it to an advantage was developed.

It was observed that teachers who are firm believers of keeping the mother tongue out of the classroom seem to generate a sense of awe amongst the students who are very weak in English. They were seen as unapproachable and the prospect of learning English from them appeared daunting. Today the knowledge of English has acquired a status symbol in India and those who cannot speak it suffer from a sense of inferiority. Under such circumstances when the teacher does not hesitate to mix codes or to switch them when required, the students get a sense of security and start feeling comfortable. The mother tongue becomes the common ground and the English and the English teacher stops being intimidating. This goes a long way in bridging the gap between the teacher and the taught.

Purpose , Design and Activities of a Bilingual Classroom

As discussed earlier the students of Chhattisgarh have a definite mindset in learning English. Their primary aim to learn the language was as follows:

- Talking with others.
- Giving information to others.
- Telling others how you feel.
- Persuading others.
- Dealing through words in special situations.

- Telling things that interest others such as stories, shared experiences.
- Making formal or impromptu speeches.
- Getting ideas across, out loud.
-

Classroom Design:

The classroom was designed to provide opportunities for oral expression to the second language (L-2) learners so as to enable them to:

- Increase their vocabulary and ability to use the language.
- Be articulate when speaking, i.e. speaking coherently and in complete sentences.
- Become fluent in expressing their feelings and opinions.
- Improve listening skills.
- Listen to different points of view and value the opinion of others.
- Develop confidence in the use of the language.
- Learn the social skills needed for group interaction.
- Enhance their ability to communicate with a variety of audiences.
- Reinforce grammatical structures, intonation, and pronunciation, through actual usage.

Domains

It is customary to divide human activity into several domains. All these domains when put together, account for most of the things that an average human being does or is expected to do. The students were keen to learn English as a second language to be able to use it all the following domains.

- Family
- Neighbourhood
- School
- Trade and Commerce
- Government and administration.
- Work-place
- **Atmosphere of the Classroom**

The possibilities for using spoken language in the classroom is immense. There are opportunities for spontaneous, unplanned discussions, verbal sharing recitation. Often informal talk between students is very constructive if it can be given a focus. What is important is that a student should feel completely relaxed. Hence the classroom atmosphere should be completely non-threatening. Individual differences in students were respected. It was seen that they should not be compared to each other. As a practice shy students were not forced to speak in front of the whole class but were gradually made to practice 'speaking' in small groups and then move on to large groups.

Activities in the Classroom

The following activities were designed and practiced in the classroom.

- Games emphasizing the use of different parts of speech.
- Spotting the odd words from a group of words.
- Using synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, suffixes and prefixes.
- Learning to figure out the meanings of words from context.
- Making friends with new words.
- Becoming aware of idiomatic expressions.
- Using literature to clear diction and introduce new words and phrases.
- Sentence building games.(Each student adds on a word till the sentence is complete)
- Build stories.
- Picture Reading.
- Create images with words.
- Problem solving and working on puzzles so that they discuss with each other.
- Teaching each other.
- Finding information about each other based on a format.
- Giving and following directions.
- Improvisations and role-plays based on some clues and stimulus.
- Question and answer sessions based on a text.
- Show and Tell.
- Identifying Passive Vocabulary.

- Improving Articulation and areas that need focus were then put to greater practice.

Approaches Used in Classroom Teaching

Humanistic Approach & Task based approach

1. Humanistic Approach:

History and Theory

The Humanistic approach tends to see language learning as a process which engages the whole person and not just the intellect. It takes into account the emotional and spiritual needs of an individual too.

The philosophy behind such an approach can be briefly described as follows:

The ideal world should consist of ‘autonomous, creative and emotionally secure people’ (Brumfit 1982) and education should and can assist in the creation of such a world. Stevick classifies the important characteristics of humanism.

Feelings:

Include both personal, emotional and esthetic appreciation. This aspect of humanism tends to reject whatever makes people feel bad, or whatever destroys or forbids esthetic enjoyment.

Social Relations:

This side of humanism encourages friendship and cooperation, and opposes whatever tends to reduce them.

Intellect :

Includes knowledge, reason, and understanding. This aspect fights against whatever interferes with the free exercises of mind, and is suspicious of anything that cannot be tested intellectually.

Self Actualisation:

This is quest for full realization of one’s own deepest true qualities. This aspect believes that since conformity leads to enslavement, the pursuit of uniqueness brings about liberation.

In the humanistic approach the following principles are considered important:

- a) the development of human values
- b) growth of self-awareness and in the understanding of others
- c) sensitivity to human feelings and emotions
- d) active student involvement in learning and in the way learning takes place.

The two methods that reflect the philosophy of the humanistic approach in the fullest measure are:

- The Silent Way.
- Community Language Learning.

The Silent Way:

This methodology was evolved by Caleb Gattegno in 1960 which was based on the tenet, ‘teaching must be subordinate to learning.’ In the Silent Way, the teacher is almost silent: the learners do all the talking.

The Pedagogic Principles

- The teacher builds on what the learners already know. S/he follows the ‘known to unknown’ principle.
- Language is learnt through the basic building blocks of sounds, as sound is a common characteristic of all languages.
- The teacher’s silence encourages peer interaction and group co-operation.
- Language learning is done best in a non-threatening atmosphere. The teacher is a silent ‘engineer’ in the class, and so the learners do not feel threatened.
- Learner errors are dealt through self-monitoring and peer-correction. No disapproval is indicated by the teacher.

Community Language Learning:

Community language learning was developed by Charles Curran. He developed a counseling-learning approach, that is, the teacher was more a 'counsellor' than a figure of authority and a judge of right and wrong. Curran discovered that adults often feel threatened in new learning situations: one, because they are coming into contact with something unfamiliar; and two, because they are afraid of appearing foolish. To counter this, the teacher must become a counselor; a person who not only knows the target language, but one who also understands the struggle learners face while learning something new. By understanding, he can help them to overcome their fears and work more positively towards learning a new language. CLL takes place in groups (large or small). These groups form the community.

This method lays emphasis on the learner's personal feelings while learning a foreign language.

The Pedagogic Principles:

The most important principle the CLL is based on is the principle of security.

A learner learns when s/he feels secure. To achieve this:

- The teacher-counselor, who is the knower remains outside the circle of learners.
- The teacher-counselor does not approve or disapprove of a learner's performance.
- The teacher-counselor uses the mother tongue learners to explain or translate, as they feel more secure when they understand everything.
- A community feeling is fostered so that trust is built up and the threat of a new learning situation is reduced.

The other important principles are:

- The learning initiative must be with the learners for effective learning.
- Language is for communication. So, much of the materials for learning is authentic: what the learners say and record. The focus gradually shifts from aspects of grammar and phonetics to actual sharing of ideas, beliefs, opinions, wants and desires.

Task Based Approach

1. The Structural – Oral – Situational Approach

This approach was used as an alternative to the direct method of teaching English in the classroom.

1.i) History

In 1939, the University of Michigan established the first English Language institute in the USA. The primary aim of the Institute was to train teachers of English to teach *English as a foreign language* or as a *second language*. Charles Fries who was the director of the institute, was trained in structural linguistics and he applied the principles of structural linguistics to language teaching. According to Fries, grammar or the structure was the starting point of teaching language. The structure of the language was identified with its basic sentence patterns and grammatical structures. The language was taught by intensive oral drilling of the basic sentence patterns. Systematic attention was paid to pronunciation. Teaching techniques concentrated on repetition of a pattern a number of times so that the learner became perfect in the use of pattern. Systematic courses and materials were developed based on important patterns to teach English as a second language.

While the structural approach developed by linguists at and other universities was gaining ground, the applied linguists and methodologists of Britain were developing the oral approach to teaching English as a second language. The two traditions developed independently. Two prominent linguists in this movement were Harold Palmer and A.S. Hornby. They developed a more scientific foundation for the oral approach than was seen in the direct method, and by 1950s the oral approach was accepted British approach to English language teaching. Situational Approach (Hornby) suggests that any language item, whether it be a structure or a word, should not be presented in isolation. It has to be introduced and practiced in a context, situationally.

Theory & Background

The S-O-S approach is the presentation and practice of carefully selected and graded grammatical structures of English in effective meaningful situations, initially through speech and later through reading and writing. Language is viewed as structurally related elements for the encoding of meaning, the elements being phonemes, morphemes, words, structures and sentence types.

Structures of teaching items are selected and graded by language teaching experts and methodologists. For the purpose of grading structures the following criteria are taken into account:

- Whether the items are frequently used by the users of the language.
- Whether the items are useful for the purposes of learning the language.
- Whether the items can be easily taught and learnt.
- Which items can be grouped together for the purpose of teaching.

Similarly, the vocabulary items are also selected and graded.

The S-O-S approach is based on the following principles:

- Language is primarily speech.
- A language is a set of habits.
- By using situations the use of the mother tongue can be avoided.

The characteristics of the S-O-S approach can be summarized as follows:

- Speech is the basis of language teaching- new language items and vocabulary items are presented orally before they are presented in the written form.
- The language items which are commonly used by native speakers in their day to day language are selected for teaching.
- The items are also graded according to their usefulness, frequency and teachability.
- The language items thus selected are presented and practiced in meaningful situations.
- Vocabulary items are selected with reference to the General Service List.
- Reading and Writing are based on items which have already been introduced and practiced orally.

Methodology & Practice:

Drills:

Call- word Technique- Substitution:

In this drill the teacher writes a pattern on the blackboard. Learners are asked to read it a few times and once they have mastered the pattern, the teacher calls words to be substituted in the right places in the sentence.

For example:

<p>The book is on the table. Teacher: Floor Learner: The book is on the floor. Teacher: Bench. Learner: The book is on the bench.</p>
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Incremental Drills:

In this drill learners are asked to add a word/words to a sentences given by the teacher. The teacher supplies the word/words to be added. It is as given:

<p>Teacher: I saw him. Learner: I saw him. Teacher: Yesterday. Learner: I saw him yesterday. Teacher: at ten Learner: I saw him yesterday at ten. Teacher: in the morning Learner: I saw him yesterday at ten in the morning.</p>
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Backward Chaining Technique:

This technique is useful when someone is not able to repeat long a sentence. In this drill words or phrases from the end of a sentence are taken and repeated. The movement is from the end to the beginning.

For example:

Teacher: in the morning
Learner: in the morning.

Teacher: at ten in the morning
Learner: at ten in the morning.

Teacher: yesterday
Learner: yesterday at ten in the morning.

Teacher: saw him
Learner: saw him yesterday at ten in the morning.

Teacher: I
Learner: I saw him yesterday at ten in the morning.

Completion

In this the students were given a part of a sentence and asked to complete the sentence by adding a meaningful part or clause.

1. He worked so hard(first class).
2. If you drive fast(accident).
3. Unless you know the skill..... (well).
4. If he had known my address.....(not miss).

Transformation

In this technique the learners were required to change a statement into a question, an affirmative statement into a negative statement, active into passive sentence.

1. This is a table. (statement)
Is this a table? (question)
2. We shall play a game. (affirmative)
We shall not play a game. (negative)
3. I drew this picture. (active)
This picture was drawn by me. (passive)

Combining sentences or parts of a sentence

In this technique, two sentences are given and learners are asked to combine them.

Teaching Listening

There are two major reasons for teaching listening. The first is called Listening for Perception. In this the learner is given practice in identifying the different sounds, sound combinations, stress and intonation patterns of the English language.

The second is called Listening for Comprehension. In this the learner is given practice in developing listening for understanding by using listening materials and conducting listening activities which take into account the real life needs of the learner.

Listening for perception:

Listening for perception is practiced more at the primary level where learners are being introduced to the language. The focus of the listening activity is aural perception. Comprehension is of secondary importance. The listening exercises do not use visuals so that the learners concentrate on the sound of words or intonation patterns.

The learner has to rely on his/her ear to repeat these sounds. The methodology involves repetition of short, discrete items. The teacher demonstrates the sounds which she wishes to teach while learners are encouraged to imitate and identify them using drill and choral repetition.

Listening for comprehension:

In this, the listening material is based on a particular context and the learner is given practice in specific areas of listening which are related to his/her needs. The learner is most often expected to make short, quick responses as a part of the listening exercises. Learners usually find these activities challenging, as effective listening activities have an element of game playing or problem solving built into them.

Listening Tasks

The listening tasks are effective if the learners have a well designed, interesting and carefully graded activity to complete. Some of the tasks are to express agreement or disagreement, take notes, make a picture or a diagram according to the instructions or answer questions.

Listening tasks can be of two types

- a. Extensive listening
- b. Intensive listening.

Extensive Listening:

During Extensive listening the learner listens to an interesting story, radio programme or anecdote. The listening material may be lengthy. The learner listens for pleasure and is not expected to complete a worksheet or task. Extensive listening may take place anywhere.

Intensive Listening:

During intensive Listening the learner listens very carefully. E.g. while listening to directions. Such listening material is short and has a special worksheet designed on it. There is some amount of challenge so that the learner feels motivated to complete the task. It is through the completion of this task that the learner gets practice in specific listening skills.

The Three Phases of a Listening Class.

There are three phases of a listening class. But a great deal of planning goes in before that. The size of the class, the arrangement of the furniture, availability of the cassettes and recorder have to be taken care in advance.

The Pre-Listening Phase:

In this phase the teacher sets up the activity which gives the learner a purpose for listening. A quick look at the listening exercise helps the learner to understand the context and what s/he to listen

for. Clarification of doubts is done by the teacher. The pre-listening activity is a very short phase. At times the learner may be asked to predict what they will hear.

The While – Listening Phase:

During this phase the learner completes the task based on listening material. S/he concentrates on the listening activity rather than worry about grammar or reading. The learners are encouraged to gather as much information as they can from the passage while listening. If they fill the information later it becomes a memory task and not a listening one. The focus of the task is on the message of the listening task.

The Post – Listening Phase:

This activity occurs after the learners have completed their listening activity. The information or completed chart which has been filled during the While –listening phase can now be used for integrating with other skills. E.g. exchange of information to fill missing information

Listening activities practiced in the classroom.

Dictation.

Listening and following a route.

Listening to a sports commentary.

Listening to instructions and marking a ground plan.

Evaluation

Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis

This chapter deals with the role of errors in language learning. A workshop was organized to

- Understand why learners of a second language make mistakes
- Become familiar with different views about the nature and causes of second language (L-2) learner's mistakes
- Get an insight into the role contrastive analysis in error prediction
- Appreciate the radically different approach to such mistakes that error analysis proposes, and
- Understand the notion of inter-language.

Theory:

All learners make mistakes. As someone has said: “ You can't learn without goofing.”

One fumbles, goofs and makes mistakes but if one perseveres with his/her learning efforts under proper guidance, one is able to overcome or correct his mistakes. When this happens you are said to have learnt something. Learning a language also involves making mistakes or errors. This is true even when one is learning one's mother tongue(L-1). The child as it grows up, goes through a long process of making mistakes and correcting them till he/she reaches a stage when we can say that s/he has learnt his/her mother tongue. That being so it is not surprising that those learning a second language often make mistakes. However, the errors committed by the learners of a second language present a rather more complex and interesting case because these L-2 learners have already learnt another language, i.e. their mother tongue. Linguists and language teachers have always been interested in finding out why L-2 learners make mistakes. Teachers are primarily concerned in correcting such mistakes and making sure that their pupils do not repeat or persist with such mistakes. But it is easy to correct or remedy something if we know the cause or reason behind it. Contrastive analysis and error analysis present two different views about such mistakes and provide radically different explanations for them.

Why do language learners make mistakes?

Around the 1950's behaviourist psychology was in vogue and had tremendous impact on the linguistic thinking of that time(popularly referred to as structural linguistics). According to this thinking, language was thought of as a system consisting of subsystems i.e. phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. Learning a language was considered a matter of forming habits, that is the system of language could be learnt by habit formation, through imitation, constant practice and reinforcement by way of appreciation or approval by parents and teachers. Imitation practice and reinforcement finally led to a stage at which the language habits became fixed or automatic.

Imitation-----Practice -----Reinforcement.

This way of thinking has very interesting implications for second language learning. The L-2 learner is, by implication, one who has already learned a set of habits relating to the system of her/his L-1. Now, when this learner starts learning a second language L-2 s/he has to learn a fresh set of habits pertaining to the system of the second language. The structuralist- behaviourist belief was that since a new system had to be learned (L-2), the system that had already been learned(L-1) , would interfere and create difficulties. In other words since each language represents a unique system, there are bound to be differences between the systems of L-1 & L-2. For the structuralist , therefore, those features of the system of L-2 which were different or dissimilar to the features of the system of L-1 were responsible for the learner's errors or mistakes. This phenomenon was often referred to as the 'interference' or 'transfer' which means that the second language learners tend to carry over certain features of their L-1 into the second language they are engaged in learning. When there is similarity between the features of the two languages there is no learning problem, but when there is a mis-match or dissimilarity, errors arise.

The second view about second language learner's mistakes is based on the fundamental tenets of cognitive psychology and the transformational –generative or the post structural thinking in linguistics. This view considers language a thinking process rather than a set of habits. It follows therefore that language learning (mother tongue or second language) can best be seen as a process of problem-solving in which the learner, faced with the data(language) tries to make sense of that data. The learner forms hypotheses about the language system that s/he is learning. S/he generalizes on the basis of these hypotheses and forms rules. Some generalizations may turn out right , and others wrong. But these errors do not represent a failure to learn a new set of habits or to modify an earlier set of habits. Rather, they represent the creativity of the learner and give us valuable clues to the way his mind is working.

Code-Mixing

During the oral practices it was observed that the students much used to code mixing. Code mixing is a generous smattering of the lexicon of one language while talking in another. For example, "Mera personal opinion yeh hai ki kyon ki humein matri bhasha nehi aati hum English words use karte hain." Or it could be the mixing of two codes or two languages while speaking. For example, "She is maroing gup." In these sentences English verb inflection –ing is added to a Hindi verb.

Code-Switching

Code- Switching refers to the practice of alternating between two languages, that is, uttering some sentences in one language then switching over to another.

Mother tongue Interference

Mother tongue interference happens when there is literal translation of the mother tongue into English. While code-mixing and code switching are not considered aberrations because they are used by those who have a working knowledge of the two languages they mix, mother tongue interference falls in the area of errors. This phenomena occurs when the users superimpose the mother tongue on to the second language.

Observations :

(Code-Mixing , Code- Switching and Mother Tongue Interference)

It is usually noted that code mixing and code switching is usually practiced by are bilinguals or multilinguals i.e. they are proficient in the two languages they mix. In the given classroom it was observed that code mixing was practiced by those students who were proficient in their mother tongue Hindi (L-1) and not in English (L-2). The code mixing was done in order to express with fluency.

Code- Switching was seen to be practiced by only those students who were proficient in both the languages.

Mother Tongue Interference was visible in both the learners in the initial stage and the in students who were reasonably proficient users of the second language.

CONCLUSION

Result of the workshop

The tasks given to the students during the workshop and as a follow-up included speaking on current topics, any incident of the past, any past experience and translations. The results led to the following hypothesis

- Language learning implies making assumptions about the structure of the language-its phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics.
- Based on these assumptions the learners formulated hypotheses about the structure of English. Each time the students spoke they were testing out their hypotheses.
- The incorrect hypotheses gave clues about the assumptions they were making about the structure of English.
- This (errors) helped the teacher to gear her teaching to correct the wrong assumptions and enable the students to move closer to the structure and system of English language.
- It was also found that the errors were also due to the failure of the students to learn a new set of habits.
- It was feared that the errors if allowed to continue, will become set habits.
- Most of the errors were caused by interference whereby features of L-1 were carried over or transferred into the L-2 by the learner.
- Positive reinforcements gave better results.

Conclusion

Language learning is a very dynamic phenomenon. Success and the lack of it in this exercise can be influenced in many ways and by many factors, motivation and attitude being two of them. Many people have learnt second /foreign languages successfully, in spite of all kinds of deficiencies, because they had a very positive attitude and they were highly motivated to learn the language. In the absence of the right attitude and the right motivation, even the best of everything else cannot ensure success. Amongst the students who participated in the workshops it was found that attitude and motivation were of the positive kind in the case of first language acquisition, whereas it was not always so in the case of second language acquisition. It was found that the students were guided by both instrumental and integrative motivation. One always seemed to be leading to the other.

All the classroom work was done in three stages :-

pre task- the students were briefed about the task/ teaching that was to follow.

task-the students participated in the task by themselves or attended the class.

post task(feedback) the students shared their experience of the task with other members.

The socio-cultural background was taken into account while designing the tasks, and also in the classrooms. All the three approaches- s-o-s, direct and humanistic had an impact on the students. The students from the tribal areas responded to the sos (drills). The students from the urban areas responded better to the humanistic approach. They eventually were comfortable in a non-threatening environment once they had enough practice through the drilling method. To be able to communicate in English the students from backward areas needed constant motivation, drilling practice guided by the teacher and oral practice in a non threatening atmosphere facilitated by the teacher in the role of a facilitator.

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