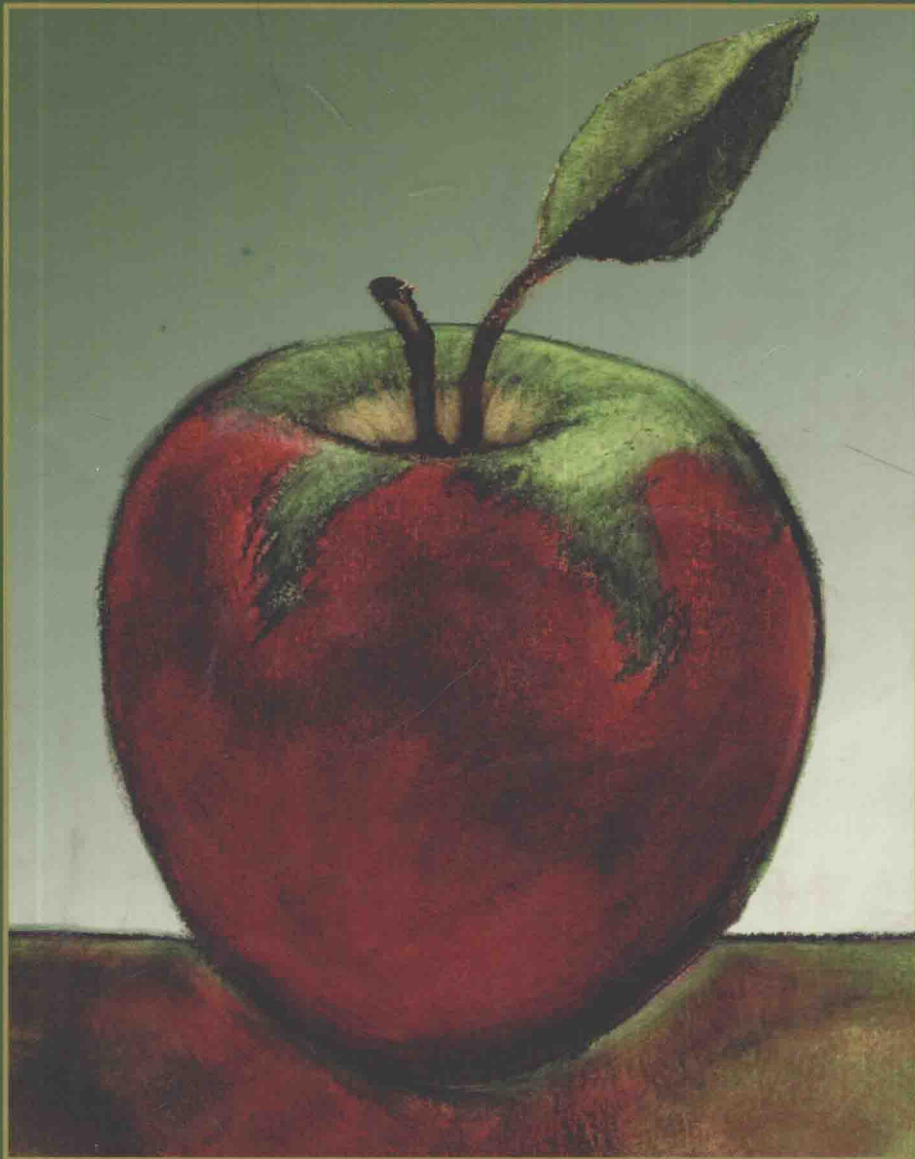
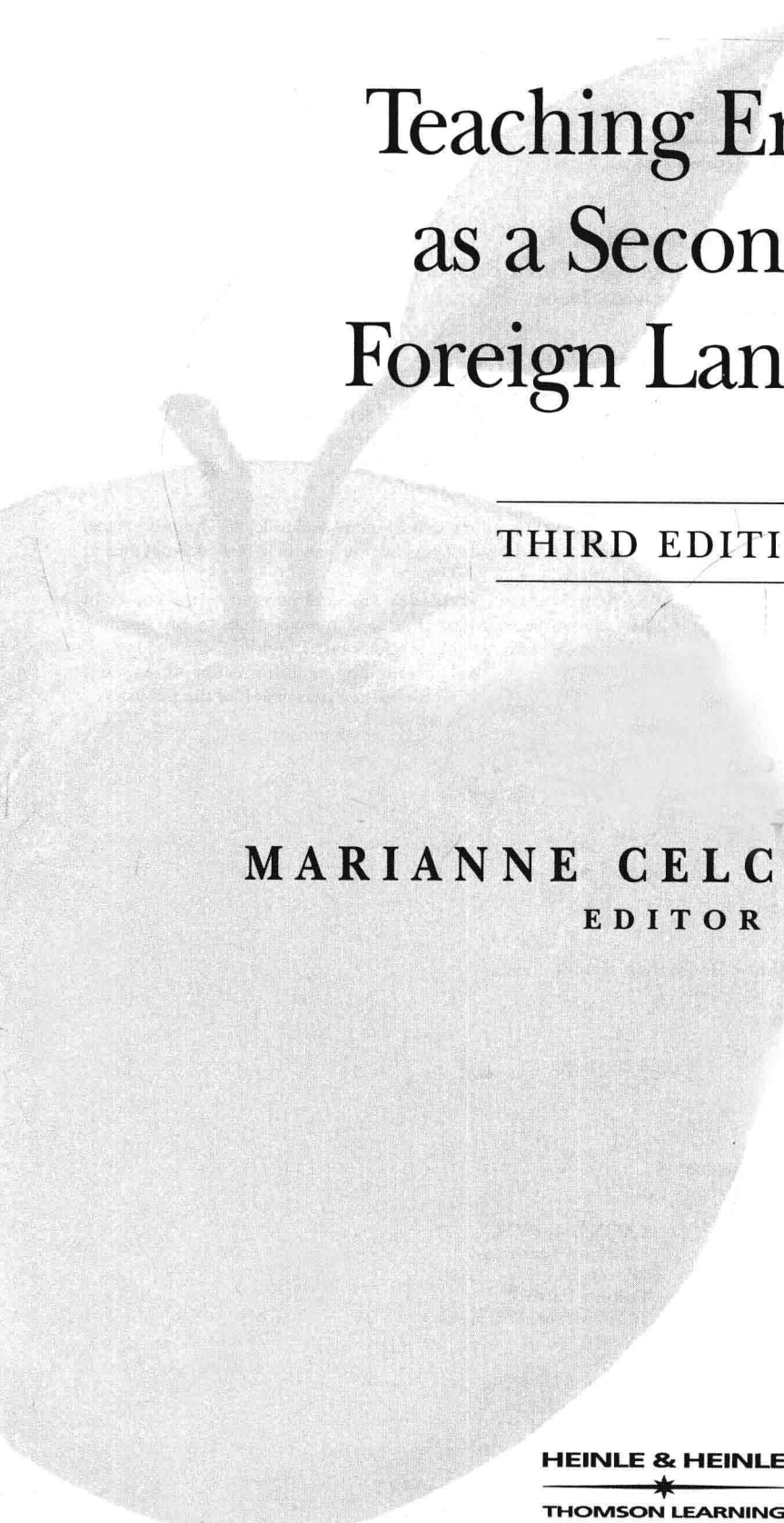


Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language

THIRD
EDITION



MARIANNE CELCE-MURCIA, EDITOR



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MARIANNE CELCE-MURCIA
EDITOR

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Foreword



The purpose of this third edition of *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, also known as “The Apple Book,” remains the same as the first (1979) and second (1991) editions: to produce a comprehensive introduction to the profession of

teaching English to speakers of other languages. The goal has been to maintain a balance between theory and practice—between providing necessary background information and relevant research, on the one hand, and offering many classroom suggestions and resources for teachers, on the other. This edition covers the areas I believe to be critical to successful language instruction: knowledge of past and present teaching approaches, background on and techniques for teaching the language skills, various options for integrating the skills, awareness of important learner factors, and information that is useful for the classroom teacher’s everyday performance and professional growth. I have tried to produce an introduction to the field that would be of sufficient depth and breadth to be suitable for students with some previous teaching experience, yet straightforward enough not to needlessly bewilder the novice.

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

- First edition (1979): 31 chapters, 27 contributors
- Second edition: 32 chapters, 36 contributors
- Third edition: 36 chapters, 40 contributors

Nineteen of the thirty-six authors who contributed to the second edition have also contributed to this volume (often—but not always—on the same topic). Sixteen of the chapters appearing in this edition are revised and updated versions of chapters in the second edition and, in most cases, the revisions have been substantial. Ten chapters have been completely rewritten; the remaining ten chapters represent topics that appear as

chapters for the first time in this edition (the author’s name is in parentheses):

- Communicative Language Teaching for the Twenty-First Century (Savignon)
- Syllabus design (Nunan)
- Developing Children’s Listening and Speaking Skills (Peck)
- Cognitive Approaches to Grammar Instruction (Fotos)
- Bilingual Approaches to Language Learning (McGroarty)
- When the Teacher Is a Non-Native Speaker (Medgyes)
- Facilitating Cross-Cultural Communication (Hinkel)
- Action Research, Teacher Research, and Classroom Research (Bailey)
- Reflective Teaching (Murphy)

I am most grateful to all forty contributors to this third edition for their splendid work.

Many of the new topics in this edition were originally suggested by colleagues who anonymously reviewed the second edition for Heinle & Heinle. I am very grateful for their input, which I have used along with my own judgment to create this volume. The reviewers also helped to convince me that a revised and updated third edition was necessary, and they encouraged me to once again undertake the daunting task of preparing a comprehensive textbook for use in methods courses designed to prepare ESL/EFL teachers.

As in both previous editions, each chapter concludes with discussion questions, suggested activities, and a number of suggestions for further reading. These supplementary materials show how the authors feel their chapter can be used in methodology courses to stimulate critical thinking, further reading on a topic, and application of knowledge. The new feature in this edition is the listing of useful websites at the end of most chapters to make teachers in training aware of the vast array of resources available to them via the World Wide Web if they have access to a computer, even if they are working in remote areas.

Although designed primarily as a textbook for a preservice TESL/TEFL methods course, I feel that this volume will also be a useful reference and guide for those who are teaching ESL or EFL without having had specific training and for practicing teachers who received their training some years ago.

In trying to make the text comprehensive, I admit to having made it too long for one course. Thus I would advise instructors who plan to use this book to be selective and to focus on the chapters most relevant to the preparation of their students as teachers. One colleague has written that he prefers to emphasize Units I, IV, and V in his methods course, whereas another colleague informs me that she uses Units II and III as the core of her class. I even know of one setting where Units I, IV, and V constitute one course and Units II and III a second course. Different instructors and different training programs emphasize different topics and organize courses differently. This is understandable.

I personally like to give students options when I assign chapters to read. For example, after everyone has read and discussed the five chapters in Unit I, students can select the chapter(s) that best meet their current or anticipated needs:

- Read one of the two chapters on listening
- Read two of the three chapters on speaking, reading, and writing and so on

Another approach I have used is to ask everyone in a class to skim a particular unit of the book (or subsection in Unit II). Then I ask students to form pairs or small groups that are responsible for presenting and leading discussions on individual chapters. (The instructor must of course provide a model and explicit guidelines for what is expected in such a presentation.) The textbook chapters that are not covered in a course as a result of needs analysis and careful selection then become useful reference materials for the teacher in training, whose interests and needs and target students may well change after completion of the methods course and the training program. Also, if one goes to another region or country or works in a remote area, it is useful to have a single, comprehensive reference for language methodology—just as it is useful to have a comprehensive dictionary and a comprehensive reference grammar. This volume is my attempt to compile and edit such a reference for language methodology.

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

—Marianne Celce-Murcia, editor

Acknowledgments

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

I am especially indebted to Brent Green, my research assistant, who helped to prepare the cumulative list of references and the index. I could not have finished this book without his and Jo Hilder's assistance and offer them my heartfelt thanks.

Many people at Heinle & Heinle have helped in the shaping and production of this large volume. I had my initial discussions with Erik Gundersen, then had further discussions and signed the contract with Eric Bredenberg, who then turned the project over to Sherrise Roehr. I received much

help and support from Sherrise Roehr, Sarah Barnicle, and Eunice Yeates-Fogle of Heinle & Heinle in the completion of the manuscript and once again had the pleasure of working with Tünde A. Dewey of Dewey Publishing in the final phase of production. My warm and sincere thanks to everyone mentioned in this paragraph.

Finally, I would like to note that I have incorporated into this edition many suggestions for improving the second edition that readers, students, and colleagues have graciously shared with me over the years. I offer special thanks to the anonymous reviewers who completed Heinle & Heinle's questionnaire, designed to elicit suggestions for revision and improvement. The responsibility for the choices made and for any critical omissions is mine alone.

—MCM

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UNIT I

Teaching Methodology

In this first section, Celce-Murcia's chapter gives the reader a historical perspective and outlines the principal approaches to second and foreign language teaching that were used during the twentieth century. Then Savignon's chapter goes into detail in describing the components of communicative language teaching, the currently dominant approach. In their chapter, Crookes and Chaudron discuss classroom research and its implications for developing a principled approach to language teaching. The following chapter by Johns and Price-Machado introduces the reader to the English for Specific Purposes movement, which has had a profound influence on all English language teaching. Finally, Nunan's chapter gives the reader an overview of the syllabus design process, bringing us full circle, since the syllabus ideally goes hand-in-hand with the materials and approaches used in the language classroom.



Language Teaching Approaches: An Overview¹

MARIANNE CELCE-MURCIA

In "Language Teaching Approaches: An Overview," Celce-Murcia gives some historical background, then outlines the principal approaches to second and foreign language teaching that were used during the twentieth century. She previews the book as a whole and projects some trends for language instruction in the new millennium.

INTRODUCTION

The field of second (or foreign) language teaching has undergone many fluctuations and shifts over the years. Different from physics or chemistry, in which progress is more or less steady until a major discovery causes a radical theoretical revision (Kuhn 1970), language teaching is a field in which fads and heroes have come and gone in a manner fairly consistent with the kinds of changes that occur in youth culture. I believe that one reason for the frequent swings of the pendulum that have been taking place until fairly recently is the fact that very few language teachers have a sense of history about their profession and are thus unaware of the historical bases of the many methodological options they have at their disposal. It is hoped that this brief and necessarily oversimplified survey will encourage many language teachers to learn more about the origins of their profession. Such knowledge will ensure some perspective when teachers evaluate any so-called innovations or new approaches to methodology, which will surely continue to emerge from time to time.

Pre-twentieth-Century Trends: A Brief Survey

Prior to the twentieth century, language teaching methodology vacillated between two types of approaches: *getting learners to use* a language (i.e., to speak and understand it) versus *getting learners to analyze* a language (i.e., to learn its grammatical rules).

Both the classical Greek and medieval Latin periods were characterized by an emphasis on teaching people to use foreign languages. The classical languages, first Greek and then Latin, were used as *lingua francas*. Higher learning was conducted primarily through these languages all over Europe. They were used widely in philosophy, religion, politics, and business. Thus the educated elite became fluent speakers, readers, and writers of the appropriate classical language. We can assume that the teachers or tutors used informal and more or less direct approaches to convey the form and meaning of the language they were teaching and that they used aural-oral techniques with no language textbooks *per se*, but rather a small stock of hand-copied written manuscripts of some sort, perhaps a few texts in the target language, or crude dictionaries that listed equivalent words in two or more languages side by side.

During the Renaissance, the formal study of the grammars of Greek and Latin became popular through the mass production of books made possible by the invention of the printing press. In the case of Latin, it was discovered that the grammar of the classical texts was different from that of the Latin being used as a *lingua franca*—the latter subsequently being labeled *vulgate Latin*, i.e., Latin of the common people. Major differences had developed between the classical Latin described in the Renaissance grammars, which became the formal object of instruction in schools, and the Latin being used for everyday purposes. This occurred at about the same time that Latin began to be abandoned

as a lingua franca. (No one was speaking classical Latin anymore, and various European vernaculars had begun to rise in respectability and popularity.) Thus, in retrospect, strange as it may seem, the Renaissance preoccupation with the formal study of classical Latin may have contributed to the demise of Latin as a lingua franca in Western Europe.

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

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

Thus Comenius, perhaps for the first time, made explicit an inductive approach to learning a foreign language, the goal of which was to teach use rather than analysis of the language being taught.

Comenius's views held sway for some time; however, by the beginning of the nineteenth century, the systematic study of the grammar of classical Latin and of classical texts had once again taken over in schools and universities throughout Europe. The analytical Grammar-Translation Approach became firmly entrenched as a method for teaching not only Latin but, by extension, modern languages as well. It was perhaps best codified in the work of Karl Ploetz, a German scholar who had a tremendous influence on the language teaching profession during his lifetime and afterwards. (He died in 1881.)

However, the swinging of the pendulum continued. By the end of the nineteenth century, the Direct Method, which once more stressed the ability to use rather than to analyze a language as the goal of language instruction, had begun to function as a viable alternative to Grammar-Translation. François Gouin, a Frenchman, began to publish in 1880 concerning his work with the Direct Method. He advocated exclusive use of the target language in the classroom, having been influenced by an older friend, the German philosopher-scientist Alexander von Humboldt, who had espoused the notion that a language cannot be taught, that one can only create conditions for learning to take place (Kelly 1969).

The Direct Method became very popular in France and Germany, and has enthusiastic followers among language teachers even today (as does the Grammar Translation Approach).

In 1886, during the same period that the Direct Method first became popular in Europe, the International Phonetic Association was established by scholars such as Henry Sweet, Wilhelm Viëtor, and Paul Passy. They developed the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) and became part of the Reform Movement in language teaching in the 1890s. These phoneticians made some of the first truly scientific contributions to language teaching when they advocated principles such as the following:

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

The work of these phoneticians focused on the teaching of pronunciation and oral skills, which they felt had been ignored in Grammar-Translation. Thus, although the Reform Movement is not necessarily considered a full-blown pedagogical approach to language teaching, its adherents did have an influence on future approaches, as we shall see.

Quite apart from the work of the Reform Movement, the influence of the Direct Method grew; it crossed the Atlantic in the early twentieth century when Emile de Sauzé, a disciple of Gouin, came to Cleveland, Ohio, in order to see to it that all foreign language instruction in the public schools there implemented the Direct Method. De Sauzé's endeavor, however, was not completely successful (in Cleveland or elsewhere) since there were too few foreign language teachers in the United States, who were fluent speakers of the language they taught. Later, the Modern Language Association of America, based on the Coleman Report (Coleman 1929), endorsed the Reading Approach to language teaching, since given the skills and limitations of most language teachers, all that one could reasonably expect was that students would come away from the study of a foreign language able to read the target language—with emphasis on some of the great works of literature and philosophy that had been produced in the language.

The Reading Approach, as reflected in the work of Michael West (1941) and others, held sway in the United States until the late 1930s and early 1940s, when World War II broke out and made it imperative for the U.S. military to quickly and efficiently teach foreign language learners how to speak and understand a language. At this time, the U.S. government hired linguists to help teach languages and develop materials: the Audiolingual Approach (Fries 1945), which drew heavily on structural linguistics (Bloomfield 1933) and behavioral psychology (Skinner 1957), was born. In Britain the same historical pressures gave rise to the Oral or Situational Approach (e.g., Pittman 1963), which drew on Firthian Linguistics (codified in the work of Firth's best-known student, M. A. K. Halliday [1973]) as well as drawing on the experience of Britain's language educators with oral approaches to foreign language teaching. Although somewhat influenced by, but less dogmatic than, its American counterpart (the Audiolingual Approach), the Oral or Situational Approach advocated organizing structures around situations that would provide the learner with maximum opportunity to practice the target language, with "practice"

nonetheless often being little more than choral repetition. Some historians of language teaching (e.g., Howatt 1984) believe that the earlier Reform Movement played a role in the development of both Audiolingualism in the United States and the Oral-Situational Approach in Britain.

Nine Twentieth-Century Approaches to Language Teaching

In addition to the Grammar-Translation Approach, the Direct Approach,² the Reading Approach, the Audiolingual Approach, and the Oral-Situational Approach—whose historical development I have sketched above briefly—there are four other discernible approaches to foreign language teaching that developed and were widely used during the final quarter of the twentieth century. Thus, there are nine approaches altogether that I shall be referring to:

1. Grammar-Translation
2. Direct
3. Reading
4. Audiolingualism (United States)
5. Oral-Situational (Britain)
6. Cognitive
7. Affective-Humanistic
8. Comprehension-Based
9. Communicative

However, before listing the features of each approach, I would like to digress a moment to clarify some terminology that is crucial to this discussion. Namely, what do we mean by the terms *approach*, *method*, and *technique*? Are these terms synonymous? If not, how do they differ? Anthony (1963) has provided a useful set of definitions for our purposes. An *approach* to language teaching is something that reflects a certain model or research paradigm—a theory, if you like. This term is the broadest of the three. A *method*, on the other hand, is a set of procedures, i.e., a system that spells out rather precisely how to teach a second or foreign language. It is more specific than an approach but less specific than a technique. Methods are typically compatible with one (or sometimes two)

approaches. A *technique* is a classroom device or activity and thus represents the narrowest of the three concepts. Some techniques are widely used and found in many methods (e.g., dictation, imitation, and repetition); however, some techniques are specific to or characteristic of a given method (e.g., using *cuisinaire* rods = the Silent Way [Gattegno 1976]).

The most problematic of Anthony's three terms is *method*. Methods proliferated in the 1970s. They were typically very specific in terms of the procedures and materials that the teacher, who required special training, was supposed to use. They were almost always developed and defined by one person. This person, in turn, trained practitioners who accepted the method as gospel and helped to spread the word. Some methods and their originators follow:

- Silent Way (Gattegno 1976)
- Community Language Learning (Curran 1976)
- Total Physical Response (Asher 1977)
- Suggestology, Suggestopedia, or Accelerated Learning (Lozanov 1978)

However, the lack of flexibility in such methods led some applied linguists (e.g., Richards 1984) to seriously question their usefulness and aroused a healthy skepticism among language educators, who argued that there is no such thing as the best "method":

the complex circumstances of teaching and learning languages—with different kinds of pupils, teachers, aims and objectives, approaches, methods, and materials, classroom techniques and standards of achievement—make it inconceivable that any single method could achieve optimum success in all circumstances. (Stevens 1977, p. 5).

At this point I will outline each of the nine approaches listed above. In addition, I will note any special proficiency or role that the teacher is expected (or not expected) to fulfill.

1. Grammar-Translation Approach (an extension of the approach used to teach classical languages to the teaching of modern languages)

- a. Instruction is given in the native language of the students.
- b. There is little use of the target language for communication.
- c. Focus is on grammatical parsing, i.e., the form and inflection of words.
- d. There is early reading of difficult texts.
- e. A typical exercise is to translate sentences from the target language into the mother tongue (or vice versa).
- f. The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use the language for communication.
- g. The teacher does not have to be able to speak the target language.

2. Direct Approach (a reaction to the Grammar-Translation Approach and its failure to produce learners who could communicate in the foreign language they had been studying)

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

3. Reading Approach (a reaction to the problems experienced in implementing the Direct Approach; reading was viewed as the most usable skill to have in a foreign language since not many people traveled abroad at that time; also, few teachers could use their foreign language well enough to use a direct approach effectively in class)

- a. Only the grammar useful for reading comprehension is taught.
- b. Vocabulary is controlled at first (based on frequency and usefulness) and then expanded.
- c. Translation is once more a respectable classroom procedure.

- d. Reading comprehension is the only language skill emphasized.
- e. The teacher does not need to have good oral proficiency in the target language.

4. Audiolingualism (a reaction to the Reading Approach and its lack of emphasis on oral-aural skills; this approach became dominant in the United States during the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s; it draws from the Reform Movement and the Direct Approach but adds features from structural linguistics [Bloomfield 1933] and behavioral psychology [Skinner 1957])

- a. Lessons begin with dialogues.
- b. Mimicry and memorization are used, based on the assumption that language is habit formation.
- c. Grammatical structures are sequenced and rules are taught inductively.
- d. Skills are sequenced: listening, speaking—reading, writing postponed.
- e. Pronunciation is stressed from the beginning.
- f. Vocabulary is severely limited in initial stages.
- g. A great effort is made to prevent learner errors.
- h. Language is often manipulated without regard to meaning or context.
- i. The teacher must be proficient only in the structures, vocabulary, etc. that he or she is teaching since learning activities and materials are carefully controlled.

5. Oral-Situational Approach (a reaction to the Reading Approach and its lack of emphasis on oral-aural skills; this approach was dominant in Britain during the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s; it draws from the Reform Movement and the Direct Approach but adds features from Firthian linguistics and the emerging professional field of language pedagogy)

- a. The spoken language is primary.
- b. All language material is practiced orally before being presented in written form (reading and writing are taught only after an oral base in lexical and grammatical forms has been established).
- c. Only the target language should be used in the classroom.

- d. Efforts are made to ensure that the most general and useful lexical items are presented.
- e. Grammatical structures are graded from simple to complex.
- f. New items (lexical and grammatical) are introduced and practiced situationally (e.g., at the post office, at the bank, at the dinner table).

6. Cognitive Approach (a reaction to the behaviorist features of the Audiolingual Approach; influenced by cognitive psychology [Neisser 1967] and Chomskyan linguistics [Chomsky 1959, 1965])

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

7. Affective-Humanistic³ Approach (a reaction to the general lack of affective considerations in both Audiolingualism and the Cognitive Approach; e.g., Moskowitz 1978 and Curran 1976).

- a. Respect is emphasized for the individual (each student, the teacher) and for his or her feelings.
- b. Communication that is meaningful to the learner is emphasized.
- c. Instruction involves much work in pairs and small groups.

- d. Class atmosphere is viewed as more important than materials or methods.
- e. Peer support and interaction are viewed as necessary for learning.
- f. Learning a foreign language is viewed as a self-realization experience.
- g. The teacher is a counselor or facilitator.
- h. The teacher should be proficient in the target language and the student's native language since translation may be used heavily in the initial stages to help students feel at ease; later it is gradually phased out.

8. Comprehension-Based Approach (an outgrowth of research in first language acquisition that led some language methodologists to assume that second or foreign language learning is very similar to first language acquisition; e.g., Postovsky 1974; Winitz 1981; Krashen and Terrell 1983)

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

9. Communicative Approach (an outgrowth of the work of anthropological linguists [e.g., Hymes 1972] and Firthian linguists [e.g., Halliday 1973], who view language first and foremost as a system for communication; see Savignon's chapter in this volume)

- a. It is assumed that the goal of language teaching is learner ability to communicate in the target language.
- b. It is assumed that the content of a language course will include semantic notions and social functions, not just linguistic structures.
- c. Students regularly work in groups or pairs to transfer (and, if necessary, negotiate) meaning in situations in which one person has information that the other(s) lack.
- d. Students often engage in role play or dramatization to adjust their use of the target language to different social contexts.
- e. Classroom materials and activities are often authentic to reflect real-life situations and demands.
- f. Skills are integrated from the beginning; a given activity might involve reading, speaking, listening, and also writing (this assumes the learners are educated and literate).
- g. The teacher's role is primarily to facilitate communication and only secondarily to correct errors.
- h. The teacher should be able to use the target language fluently and appropriately.

To sum up, we can see that certain features of several of the first five approaches arose in reaction to perceived inadequacies or impracticalities in an earlier approach or approaches. The four more recently developed approaches also do this to some extent; however, each one is grounded on a slightly different theory or view of how people learn second or foreign languages or how people use languages, and each has a central point around which everything else revolves:

Cognitive Approach: Language is rule-governed cognitive behavior (not habit formation).

Affective-Humanistic Approach: Learning a foreign language is a process of self-realization and of relating to other people.