1- GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

Background	Derived from the classical (sometimes called traditional) method of teaching Greek and Latin. Usually in an order roughly matching the traditional order of the grammar of Latin, Practice manipulating grammatical structures through the means of translating both into and from the mother tongue. Advanced students may be required to translate whole texts word-for-word. The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use language for communication. GTM does not focus on context so communication skills of learners remain poor.
Aim	Aimed at analyzing and studying the grammatical rules of language,
Goal	There are two main goals One is to develop students' reading ability to a level where they can read literature in the target language. The other is to develop students' general mental discipline.
Nature	The method is very much based on the written word and texts are widely in evidence. A typical procedure is to present the rules of a particular grammar item. Then to illustrate its use inc32luding the item several times in a text. And practice using the item through writing sentences and translating it into the mother tongue. In grammar–translation classes, students learn grammatical rules and then apply those rules by translating sentences between the target language and the native language.
Strengths	1.Forming good academic knowledge of the target language 2.Training grammar accuracy 3.Developing students‘ memory
Weakness	Usually conducted in the students' native language. Grammar rules are learned deductively. Students learn grammar rules by rote.Then practice the rules by doing grammar drills and translating sentences to and from the target language. As a result, speaking and listening are overlooked. More attention is paid to the form of the sentences Tests often consist of the translation of classical texts. There is no usual listening or speaking practice, and very little attention is placed on pronunciation. There is usually no practice in communicative activities. The skill exercised is reading, and then only in the context of translation. The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use language for communication.
Opportunities	It gives students opportunities to read classical literature and have some knowledge of history of the country. Besides, it provides translation practice.
Threats	Threats of the approach are first of all in demotivating learners with boring, mechanical exercises where meaning is not important but an accurate form is a must.

2- ***THE DIRECT METHOD***

Background	By the end of the 19th century, the GTM failed, in reaction Direct Method was created. Established in Germany and France around 1900 It was adopted by key international language schools such as Berlitz and Inlingua in the 1970s and many of the language departments of the Foreign Service Institute of the U.S. State Department in 2012..
Aims	DM aims to build a direct way into the world of the target language making a relation between experience and language, word and idea, thought and expression, and rule and performance. It intends for students to learn how to communicate in the target language. DM believes that learners should experience the new language in the same way as he/she experienced his/her mother tongue without considering the existence of his/her mother tongue.
Nature	Spoken word was given primacy. Printed word must be kept away from the learner until s/he has good grasp of speech. Material was first presented orally with actions and pictures and mother tongue was never used. Culture was considered an important aspect of learning the language. No translation. Concepts are to be taught by means of objects or contexts. Oral training helps in reading and writing, listening and speaking simultaneously. Grammar is to be taught indirectly
Strengths	Wide use of authentic materials. Presenting language items in dialogues rather than in isolation. Introducing natural order —of skills presentation: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Both speech and listening comprehensions are taught. Correct pronunciation and grammar are emphasized. Students are taught from inception to ask questions as well as to answer them.
Procedure	**Question/answer exercises**. Teacher asks and students answer. **Dictation** – the teacher chooses a grade-appropriate passage and reads it aloud. **Reading aloud** – the students take turn reading sections of a passage, play or a dialogue aloud. Self-correction – when a student makes a mistake, the teacher offers him/her a second chance by giving a choice. **Conversation practice** – the students are given an opportunity to ask questions to the other students. **Paragraph writing** – the students are asked to write a passage in their own words.
Weakness	Underestimated role of reading and writing. Counterproductive prohibition of using mother tongue. Overestimated role of mechanical drilling where meaning is often irrelevant. Lack of flexibility
Sample Activities	**SHOW** Point to Visual Aid or Gestures (for verbs), to ensure student clearly understands what is being taught. **SAY** Teacher verbally introduces Element, with care and enunciation. **TRY** Student makes various attempts to pronounce new Element. **MOLD** Teacher corrects student if necessary, pointing to mouth to show proper shaping of lips, tongue and relationship to teeth. **REPEAT** Student repeats each Element 5-20 times. Introducing the correct location of new Element in sentence. **SAY & REPEAT** Teacher states a phrase or sentence to students Student repeats 5-15 times. **ASK & REPLY IN NEGATIVE** Teacher uses Element in negative situations (e.g. "Are you the President of the United States?" or "Are you the teacher?"); Students says "No". If more advanced, may use the negative with "Not". **INTERROGATIVES** Teacher provides intuitive examples using 5 "w"s (Who, What, Where, Why, When) or How". Use of random variations for practice **PRONOUNS WITH VERBS** Using visuals (such as photos or illustrations) or gestures, Teacher covers all pronouns.Use of random variations for practice such as:"Is Sara a woman?" or"Are they from Japan?" **STUDENT-LED LIMITS** Teacher observes student carefully, to know when mental "saturation" point is reached. This indicates students should not be taught more elements until another time. **REVIEW** Teacher keeps random, arbitrary sequencing.If appropriate, teacher uses visuals, pointing quickly to each.Employs different examples of Element that are easy to understand, changing country/city names, people names, and words that the student already knows. **OBSERVATION and Notation** Teacher maintains a student list of words/phrases that are most difficult for that student.The list is called "Special Attention List".

Opportunities	Facilitates understanding of language Understanding of the target language becomes easier due to the inhibition of the linguistic interferences from the mother tongue It establishes bond between contexts Improves fluency of speech Aids reading – reading becomes more pleasant, and it also promotes a habit of critical studying Improves the development of language sense Full of activities, which make it interesting and exciting Develops listening, speaking, reading and writing in a natural sequence Increases employment opportunities Helps in bringing words from passive vocabulary into active vocabulary Makes use of audio-visual aids and also facilitates reading and writing Facilitates alertness and participation of students
Threat	Lack of explicit rules lead to various misinterpretations and problems in creative use of language Time consuming drilling Ignores systematic written work and reading activities. Supports only limited vocabulary. Only the clever child can profit by this method. Needs skilled teachers Does not suit or satisfy the needs of individual students in large classes. Inconvenient in a huge class Ignores reading and writing aspects of language learning

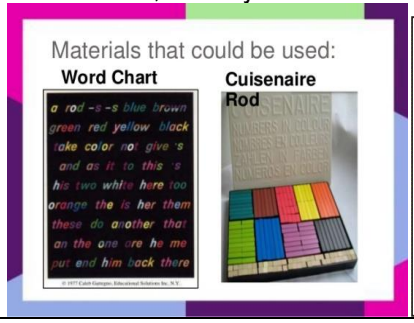
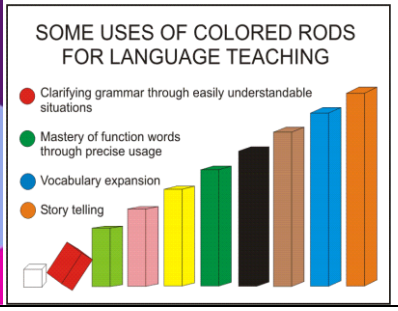
3- *TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE METHOD*

Background	TPR is a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action; it attempts to teach language through physical (motor) activity. Developed by James Asher, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, California. Asher sees successful adult second language learning as a parallel process to child's first language acquisition. He claims that speech directed to young children consists primarily of commands, which children respond to physically before they begin to produce verbal responses. He feels that adults should recapitulate the processes by which children acquire their native language. A method that involves game-like movements reduces learner stress, he believes, and creates a positive mood in the learner, which facilitates learning.
Approach & Theory behind TPR Method	TPR reflects a grammar-based view of language. Asher states that "most of the grammatical structure of the target language and hundreds of vocabulary items can be learned from the skillful use of the imperative by the instructor" 1977, p. 4). He views the verb and particularly the verb in the imperative, as the central linguistic motif around which language use and learning are organized. Asher sees a stimulus-response view as providing the learning theory underlying language teaching pedagogy. TPR can also be linked to the "trace theory" of memory in psychology (e.g., Katona 1940), which holds that the more often or the more intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it will be recalled. Retracing can be done verbally (e.g., by rote repetition) and/or in association with motor activity. Combined tracing activities, such as verbal rehearsal accompanied by motor activity, increase the possibility of successful recall.
Asher's Three influential learning hypotheses:	In addition, Asher has elaborated an account of what he feels facilitates or inhibits foreign language learning. For this dimension of his learning theory, he draws on three rather influential learning hypotheses: **The Bio-Program** Asher's TPR is a "Natural Method", in as much as Asher sees first and second language learning as parallel processes. Asher sees **three processes** as central: 1. Children develop listening competence before they develop the ability to speak. 2. Children's ability in listening comprehension is acquired because children are required to respond physically to spoken language. 3. Once a foundation in listening comprehension has been established, speech evolves naturally and effortlessly out of it. Parallel to the processes of first language learning, the foreign language learner should first internalize a "cognitive map" of the target language through listening exercises. Listening should be accompanied by physical movement. Speech and other productive skills should come later. Asher bases these assumptions on his belief in the existence in the human brain of a bio-program for language, which defines an optimal order for first and second language learning. **Brain lateralization** Asher sees Total Physical Response as directed to right- brain learning, whereas most second language teaching methods are directed to left- brain learning. Drawing on the works by jean Piaget, Asher holds that the child language learner acquires language through motor movement - a right hemisphere activity. Right- hemisphere activities must occur before the left hemisphere can process language for production. Similarly, the adult should proceed to language mastery through right-hemisphere motor activities, while the left hemisphere watches and learns. When a sufficient amount of right-hemisphere learning has taken place, the left hemisphere will be triggered to produce language and to initiate other, more abstract language processes. **Reduction of Stress** An important condition for successful language learning is the absence of stress. First language acquisition takes place in a stress-free environment, according to Asher; whereas the adult language learning environment often causes considerable stress and anxiety. By focusing on meaning interpreted through movement, rather than on language forms studied in the abstract, the learner is said to be liberated from self-conscious
Objective	The general objectives of TPR are to teach oral proficiency at a beginning level. Comprehension is a means to an end, and the ultimate aim is to teach basic speaking skills. A TPR course aims

	to produce learners who are capable, of an uninhibited communication that is intelligible to a native speaker. In TPR some goals are to be set and these are attainable through the use of action- based drills in the imperative form.
Syllabus	The type of syllabus Asher uses can be inferred from an analysis of the exercise types employed in TPR classes. This analysis reveals the use of a sentence-based syllable with grammatical and lexical criteria being primary in selecting teaching items. Unlike methods that operate from a grammar-based or structural view of the core elements of language, Total Physical Response requires initial attention to meaning rather than to the form of items. Grammar is thus taught inductively. Asher also suggests that a fixed number of items be introduced at a time, to facilitate ease of differentiation and assimilation. "In an hour, it is possible for students to assimilate 12 to 36 new lexical items depending upon the size of the group and the stage of training." (Asher 1977, p. 42) A course designed around Total Physical Response principles, however, would not be expected to follow a TPR syllabus exclusively. Imperative drills are the major classroom activity in Total Physical Response. They are typically used to elicit physical actions and activity on the part of the learners. Conversational dialogues are delayed until after about 120 hours of instruction. Other class activities include role plays and slide presentations. Role plays center on everyday situations, such as at the restaurant, supermarket, or gas station.

4- THE SILENT WAY METHOD

Background	The **Silent Way** is a language-teaching method created by Caleb Gattegno that makes extensive use of silence as a teaching method. Gattegno introduced the method in 1963, in his book *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: The Silent Way*. Gattegno was critical of mainstream language education at the time, and he based the method on his general theories of education rather than on existing language pedagogy. It is usually regarded as an "alternative" language-teaching method; Cook groups it under "other styles", Richards groups it under "alternative approaches and methods and Jin & Cortazzi group it under "Humanistic or Alternative Approaches".
Advantages	▪ Learning through problem solving looks attractive especially because it fosters: creativity, discovery, increase in intelligent potency and long term memory. ▪ The indirect role of the teacher highlights the importance and the centrality of the learner who is responsible in figuring out and testing the hypotheses about how language works. In other words teaching is subordinated to learning
Disadvantages	▪ The Silent Way is often criticized of being a harsh method. The learner works in isolation and communication is lacking badly in a Silent Way classroom. ▪ With minimum help on the part of the teacher, the Silent Way method may put the learning itself at stake. ▪ The material (the rods and the charts) used in this method will certainly fail to introduce all aspects of language. Other materials will have to be introduced.
Features	The Silent Way is characterized by its focus on discovery, creativity, problem solving and the use of accompanying materials. Richards and Rodgers (1986:99) summarized the method into three major features. 1. **Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates**. The learner is not a bench bound listener but an active contributor to the learning process. 2. **Learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical objects**. The Silent Way uses colorful charts and rods (cuisenaire rods) which are of varying length. They are used to introduce vocabulary (colors, numbers, adjectives, verbs) and syntax (tense, comparatives, plurals, word order …) 3. **Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned**. This can be summarized by Benjamin Franklin's words: "Tell me and I forget, Teach me and I remember, Involve me and I learn" A good silent way learner is a good problem solver. The teacher's role resides only in giving minimum repetitions and correction, remaining *silent* most of the times, leaving the learner struggling to solve problems about the language and get a grasp of its mechanism.
Syllubus	The Silent Way adopts a basic structural syllabus, with lessons planned around grammatical items and related vocabulary. Gattegno does not, however, provide details as to the precise selection and arrangement of grammatical and lexical items to be covered. But language items are introduced according to their grammatical complexity, their relationship to what has been taught previously, and the ease with which items can be presented visually.
Procedure	A Silent Way lesson typically follows a standard format. The first part of the lesson focuses on pronunciation. At the beginning stage, the teacher will model the appropriate sound after pointing to a symbol on the chart. Later, the teacher will silently point to individual symbols and combinations of utterances, and monitor student utterances. The pointer is used to indicate stress, phrasing, and intonation. Stress can be shown by touching certain symbols more forcibly than others when pointing out a word. Intonation and phrasing can be demonstrated by tapping on the chart to the rhythm of the utterance. After the sounds of the language, sentence patterns, structure, and vocabulary are practiced, the teacher models an utterance while creating a visual realization of it with the colored rods. After modeling the utterance, the teacher will have a student attempt to produce the utterance and will indicate its acceptability. If a response is incorrect, the teacher will attempt to reshape the utterance or have another student present the correct model. After a structure is introduced and understood, the teacher will create a situation in which the students can practice the structure through the

	manipulation of the rods. Variations on the structural theme will be elicited from the class using the rods and charts. The sample lesson that follows illustrates a typical lesson format.
activities	Learning tasks and activities in the Silent Way have the function of encouraging and shaping student's oral response without direct oral instruction from or unnecessary modeling by the teacher. Basic to the method are simple linguistic tasks in which the teacher models a word, phrase, or sentence and then elicits learner responses. Learners then go on to create their own utterances by putting together old and new information. Charts, rods, and other aids may be used to elicit learner responses. Teacher modeling is minimal, although much of the activity may be teacher-directed. Responses to commands, questions, and visual cues thus constitute the basis for classroom activities.
Role of learner	Learners are expected to develop independence, autonomy, and responsibility. Independent learners are those who are aware that they must depend on their own resources and realize that they can use "the knowledge of their own language to open up some things in a new language" or that they can "take their knowledge of the first few words in the new language and figure out additional words by using that knowledge" (Stevick 1980: 42). The absence of correction and repeated modeling from the teacher requires the students to develop "inner criteria" and to correct themselves. The absence of explanations requires learners to make generalizations, come to their own conclusions, and formulate whatever rules they themselves feel they need. Learners have only themselves as individuals and the group to rely on, and so must learn to work cooperatively rather than competitively. They need to feel comfortable both correcting one another and being corrected by one another
Role of Teacher	Teacher's silence is, perhaps, the unique and, for many traditionally trained language teachers, the most demanding aspect of the Silent Way. Teachers are exhorted to resist their long-standing commitment to model, remodel, assist, and direct desired student responses. Stevick defines the Silent Way teacher's tasks as (a) to teach, (b) to test, and (c) to get out of the way (Stevick 1980: 56).. Finally, the teacher silently monitors learners' interactions with each other and may even leave the room while learners struggle with their new linguistic tools.The teacher uses gestures, charts in order-to elicit and shape students' responses and so must be both facile and creative as a pantomimist and puppeteer.
material	Silent Way materials consist mainly of a set of colored rods, color-coded pronunciation and vocabulary, wall charts, a pointer, and reading/writing exercises, all of which are used to illustrate the relationships between sound and meaning in the target language. The materials are designed for manipulation by the students as well as by the teacher, independently and cooperatively, in promoting language learning by direct association. The pronunciation charts, called "Fidels;" have been devised for a number of languages and contain symbols in the target language for all of the vowel and consonant sounds of th e language. The symbols are color-coded according to pronunciation; thus, if a language possesses two different symbols for the same sound, they will be colored alike." Just as the Fidel charts are used to visually illustrate pronunciation, the colored Cuisenaire rods are used to directly link words and structures with their meanings in the target language, thereby avoiding translation into the native language. The rods vary in length from 1 to 10 centimeters, and each length has a specific color. The rods may be used for naming colors, for size comparisons, to represent people, build floor plans, and constitute a road map, and so on. Use of the rods is intended to promote inventiveness, creativity, and interest in forming communicative utterances on the part of the students, as they move from simple to more complex structures.   

5- *Audio Lingual Method*

Background	The Audiolingual Method (ALM) gained attention in the 1950s, largely in the USA where it was rooted in the military's need during World War II to train large volumes of personnel in disparate languages. Although it claimed to have turned language teaching from an art to a science, it shared several aspects with the Direct Method. Both were a reaction to the perceived failures of the Grammar-Translation Method. Both ban the use of mother tongue, and both prioritize listening and speaking skills over reading and writing. ALM is nevertheless different in several ways. It drew on early-20th century beliefs of 1) behaviourism that anything could be learned through conditioning; and 2) structuralism and structural linguistics that emphasized grammatical structure. In ALM, grammar is prioritized over vocabulary, and accuracy over fluency, giving learners few opportunities to produce errors which are seen as potentially "contagious". Ultimately, the learner will speak "automatically
The audiolingual method	The Audio-Lingual method of teaching had its origins during World War II when it became known as the Army Method. It is also called the Aural oral approach. It is based on the structural view of language and the behaviorist theory of language learning. The Audiolingual Approach to language teaching has a lot of similarities with the Direct Method. Both were considered as a reaction against the shortcomings of the Grammar Translation method, both reject the use of the mother tongue and both stress that speaking and listening competences preceded reading and writing competences. But there are also some differences. The direct method highlighted the teaching of vocabulary while the audiolingual approach focus on grammar drills
Structuralism	The structural view to language is the view behind the audio-lingual method. This approach focused on examining how the elements of language related to each other in the present, that is, 'synchronically' rather than 'diachronically'. It was also argued that linguistic signs were composed of two parts, a signifier (the sound pattern of a word) and a signified (the concept or meaning of the word). The study of language aims at describing the performance ,the"parole" as it is the only observable part of language
Behaviorism	Behaviorism is a philosophy of psychology based on the proposition that all things which organisms do — including acting, thinking and feeling—can and should be regarded as behaviors. It contends that leaning occurs through associations, habit formation and reinforcement. When the learner produces the desired behavior and is reinforced positively, it is likely that behavior be emitted again
Objective and Characteristics	The objective of the audiolingual method is accurate pronunciation and grammar, the ability to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations and knowledge of sufficient vocabulary to use with grammar patterns. Particular emphasis was laid on mastering the building blocks of language and learning the rules for combining them. It was believed that learning structure, or grammar was the starting point for the student. Here are some characteristics of the method: language learning is habit-formation, mistakes are bad and should be avoided, as they are considered bad habits, language skills are learned more effectively if they are presented orally first, then in written form, analogy is a better foundation for language learning than analysis, the meanings of words can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context. The main activities include reading aloud dialogues, repetitions of model sentences, and drilling. Key structures from the dialogue serve as the basis for pattern drills of different kinds. Lessons in the classroom focus on the correct imitation of the teacher by the students. Not only are the students expected to produce the correct output, but attention is also paid to correct pronunciation. Although correct grammar is expected in usage, no explicit grammatical instruction is given. It is taught inductively. Furthermore, the target language is the only language to be used in the classroom.

Aims	Oral skills are used systematically to emphasize communication. The foreign language is taught for communication, with a view to achieve development of communication skills. Practice is how the learning of the language takes place. Every language skill is the total of the sets of habits that the learner is expected to acquire. Practice is central to all the contemporary foreign language teaching methods. With audio-lingual method, it is emphasized even more. Oral learning is emphasized. Stress is put on oral skills at the early year of the foreign language course and is continued during the later years. Oral skills remain central even when, later, reading and writing are introduced. Learners are asked to speak only what they have had a chance to listen to sufficiently. They read only the material used as part of their practice. They have to write only that which they have read. Strict order of material, in terms of the four skills, is followed.
Advantages	Listening and speaking skills are emphasized and, especially the former, rigorously developed. The use of visual aids is effective in vocabulary teaching. The method is just as functional and easy to execute for larger groups. Correct pronunciation and structure are emphasized and acquired. It is a teacher-dominated method. The learner is in a directed role; the learner has little control over the material studied or the method of study.
Disadvantages	The method is based on false assumptions about language. The study of language doesn't amount to studying the "parole", the observable data. Mastering a language relies on acquiring the rules underlying language performance. That is, the linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse competences. The behaviorist approach to learning is now discredited. Many scholars have proven its weakness. Noam Chomsky ("Chomsky, Noam (1959). "A Review of B. F. Skinner's Verbal behavior") has written a strong criticism of the principles of the theory.
Role of teache and role of the students	The role of teacher in class is like an orchestra leader, directing and controlling the language behavior of her/his students. He/She is also responsible for providing her/his students with a good model for imitation. The role of the students is they are imitators of the teacher's model of the tapes he/she supplies of model speakers. They follow the teacher's directions and respond as accurately and as rapidly as possible.
Techniques	These are the techniques that you can using or adapt to your approach : § Dialog memorization § Backward build up (expansion) drill § Repetition drill § Chain drill § Single-slot substitution drill § Multiple-slot substitution drill § Transformation drill § Question-and-answer drill § Use of minimal pairs § Complete the dialog § Grammar game
The syllabus	Audio-lingualism is a linguistic or structure-based approach to language teaching where the starting point is a linguistic syllabus, which contains the key items of phonology, morphology, and syntax of the language arranged according to their order of presentation. These may have been derived in part from a contrastive analysis of the differences between the native language and the target language, since these differences are thought to be the cause of the major difficulties the learner will encounter. In addition, a lexical syllabus of basic vocabulary items is usually specified in advance. In 'Foundations for English Teaching' (Fries and Fries 1961), for example, a corpus of structural and lexical items graded into three levels is proposed, together with suggestions as to the situations that could be used to contextualize them. The language skills are taught in the order of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Listening is viewed

	largely as training in aural discrimination of basic sound patterns. The language may be presented entirely orally at first; written representations are usually withheld from learners in early stages. The learner's activities must at first be confined to the audio-lingual and gestural-visual bands of language behavior. Recognition and discrimination are followed by imitation, repetition and memorization. Only when one is thoroughly familiar with sounds, arrangements, and forms, do they center their attention on enlarging their vocabulary and concentrate upon gaining accuracy before striving for fluency. (Brooks 1964, p. 50) When reading and writing are introduced, students are taught to read and write what they have already learned to say orally. An attempt is made to minimize the possibilities for making mistakes in both speaking and writing by using a tightly structured approach to the presentation of new language items. At more advanced levels, more complex reading and writing tasks may be introduced.
Procedure	Since Audio-lingualism is primarily an oral approach to language teaching, it is not surprising that the process of teaching involves extensive oral instruction. The focus of instruction is on immediate and accurate speech; there is little provision for grammatical explanation or talking about the language. As far as possible, the target language is used as a medium of instruction, and translation or use of the native language is discouraged. Classes of ten or fewer are considered optimal, although larger classes are often the norm. Brooks enlists the following procedures that the teacher should adopt in using the Audio-lingual Method: The modeling of all learning by the teacher. The subordination of the mother tongue to the second language by rendering English is inactive while the new language is being learned. The early and continued training of the ear and tongue without recourse to graphic symbols. The learning of structure through the practice of patterns of sound, order, and form, rather than by explanation. The gradual substitution of graphic symbols for sounds after sounds is thoroughly known. The summarizing of the main principles of structure for the student's use when the structures are already familiar, especially when they differ from those of the mother tongue

6- ***COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING***

Background	CLL is the name of a method developed by Charles A. Curran and his associates. Curran was a specialist in counseling and a professor of psychology at Loyola University, Chicago. His application of psychological counseling techniques to learning is known as counseling-Learning. CLL represents the use of Counseling-Learning theory to teach languages. As the name indicates, CLL derives its primary insights, and indeed its organizing rationale, from Rogerian counseling (Rogers 1951). In lay terms, counseling is one person giving advice, assistance, and support to another who has a problem or is in some way in need. Community Language Learning draws on the counseling metaphor to redefine the roles of the teacher (the counselor) and learners (the clients) in the language class-room. The basic procedures of CLL can thus be seen as derived from the counselor-client relationship. CLL techniques also belong to a larger set of foreign language teaching practices, sometimes described as humanistic techniques (Moskowitz1978). In sum, humanistic techniques engage the whole person, including the emotions and feelings (the affective realm) as well as the linguistic knowledge and behavioral skills. Another language teaching tradition with which Community Language Learning is linked is a set of practices used in certain kinds of bilingual education programs and is referred to by Mackey (1972) as "language alternation." In language alternation, a message/lesson/class is presented first in the native language and then again in the second language.
Typical features of a CLL lesson	• target language/mother tongue • teacher/learner-centred • counselling role for teacher; client roles for learners • in-a-circle seating for learners • recorder inside circle and teacher outside • TL dialogue generated learner by learner (helped as necessary by teacher) • recorded dialogue transcribed by teacher on board • analysis of dialogue by learners • dialogue used in follow-up sessions for other activities • movement for learners from total dependence to growing autonomy
Advantages	▪ CLL is an attempt to overcome the threatening affective factors in EFL and ESL. ▪ The councelor allow the learners to determine type of coversation and to analyze the language inductively ▪ The student centered nature of the method can provide extrincic motivation and capitalize on intinsic motivation.
Disadvantages	▪ The counselor/teacher can become too non directive. Students often need directions. ▪ The method relies completely on inductive learning. It is worthwhile noting that deductive learning is also a viable strategy of learning. ▪ Translation is an intricate and difficult task. The success of the method relies largely on the translation expertise of the counselor.
objectives	Since linguistic or communicative competence is specified only in social terms, explicit linguistic or communicative objectives are not defined in the literature on Community Language Learning. Most of what has been written about CLL describes its use in introductory conversation courses in a foreign language. The assumption seems to be that through the method, the teacher can successfully transfer his or her knowledge and proficiency in the target language to the learners, which implies that attaining near-native like mastery of the target language is set as a goal. Specific objectives are not addressed.
syllabus	CLL does not use a conventional language syllabus, which sets out in advance the grammar, vocabulary, and other language items to be taught and the order in which they will be covered.

	The progression is topic-based, with learners nominating things they wish to talk about and messages they wish to communicate to other learners. The teacher's responsibility is to provide a conveyance for these meanings in a way appropriate to the learners' proficiency level. In this sense, a CLL syllabus emerges from the interaction between the learner's expressed communicative intentions and the teacher's reformulations of these into suitable target-language utterances. Specific grammatical points, lexical patterns, and generalizations will sometimes be isolated by the teacher for more detailed study and analysis, and subsequent specification of these as a retrospective account of what the course covered could be a way of deriving a CLL language syllabus
Learning Activities	As with most methods, CLL combines innovative learning tasks and activities with conventional ones. They include: **Translation**. Learners form a small circle. A learner whispers a message or meaning he or she wants to express, the teacher translates it into (and may .interpret it in) the target language, and the learner repeats the teacher's translation. **Group**-work: Learners may, engage in various group tasks, such as small-group discussion of a topic, preparing a conversation, preparing a summary of a topic, preparing a story that will be presented to the teacher and the rest of the class. **Recording**: Students record conversations in the target language. **Transcription**: Students transcribe utterances and conversations they have recorded for practice and analysis of linguistic forms. **Analysis**: Students analyze and study transcriptions of target-language sentences in order to focus on particular lexical usage. **Reflection** and observation: Learners reflect and report on their experience of th class, as a class or in groups. **Listening**: Students listen to a monologue by the teacher involving elements they might have overheard in class interactions. **Free conversation**: Students engage in free conversation with the teacher or with other learners.
Role of the Learner	Learner roles in CLL are well defined. Learners become members of a community - their fellow learners and the teacher - and learn through interacting with the community. Learning is not viewed as an individual accomplishment but as something that is achieved collaboratively. Learners are expected to listen attentively to the knower, to freely provide meanings they wish to express, to repeat target utterances without hesitation, support fellow members of the community, to report deep inner feelings and frustrations as well as joy and pleasure, and to become counselors of other learners. CLL learners are typically grouped in a circle of six to twelve learners, with the number of knowers varying from one per group to one per student.
Role of the Teacher	*The teacher:* The teacher's initial role is primarily that of a counselor. This means that the teacher recognizes how threatening a new learning situation, can be for adult learners, so he skillfully understands and supports his students in their struggle to master the target language. *The goals of teachers who use the Community Language Learning Method* 1. Teachers want their students to learn how to use the target language communicatively. 2. They want their students to learn about their own learning. 3. They want their students to take increasing responsibility for their own learning. 4. They want their students to learn how to learn from one another.
Role of Materials	Since a CLL course evolves out of the interactions of the community, a textbook is not considered a necessary component. A textbook would impose a particular body of language content on the learners, thereby impeding their growth and interaction. Materials may be developed by the teacher as the course develops, although these generally consist of little more than summaries on the blackboard or overhead projector of some of the linguistic features of conversations generated by students. Conversations may also be transcribed and distributed for study and analysis, and learners may work in groups to produce their own materials, such as scripts for dialogues and mini-dramas

Procedure	Generally, the observer will see a circle of learners all facing one another. The learners are linked in some way to knowers or a single knower as teacher. The first class (and subsequent classes) may begin with a period of silence, in which learners try to determine what is supposed to happen in their language class. The observer may note that the awkwardness of silence becomes sufficiently agonizing for someone to volunteer to reak the silence. The knower may use the volunteered comment as a way of introducing discussion of classroom contacts or as a stimulus for language interaction regarding how learners felt about the period of silence. The knower may encourage learners to address questions to one another or to the knower. These may be questions on any subject a learner is curious enough to inquire about. The questions and answers may be tape-recorded for later use, as a reminder and review of topics discussed and language used. The teacher might then form the class into facing lines for 3-minute pair conversations. These are seen as equivalent to the brief wrestling sessions by which judo students practice. Following this, the class might be re-formed into small groups in which a single topic, chosen by the class or the group, is discussed. The summary of the group discussion may be presented to another group, who in turn try to repeat or paraphrase the summary back to the original group. In an intermediate or advanced class, a teacher may encourage groups to prepare a paper drama for presentation to the rest of the class. A paper drama group prepares a story that is told or shown to the counselor. The counselor provides or corrects target-language statements and suggests improvements to the story sequence. Students are then given materials with which they prepare large picture cards to accompany their story. After practicing the story dialogue and preparing the accompanying pictures, each group presents its paper drama to the rest of the class. The students accompany their story with music, puppets, and drums as well as with their pictures (La Forge 1983: 81-82). Finally, the teacher asks learners to reflect on the language class, as a class or in groups. Reflection provides the basis for discussion of contracts (written or oral contracts that learners and teachers have agreed upon and that specify what they agree to accomplish within the course), personal interaction, feelings toward the knower and learner, and the sense of progress and frustration. Dieter Strbinigg (in Stevick 1980: 185-186) presents a protocol of what a first day's CLL class covered, which is outlined here: 1. Informal greetings and self-introductions were made. 2. The teacher made a statement of the goals and guidelines for the course. 3. A conversation in the foreign language took place. 4. A circle was formed so that everyone had visual contact with each other. 5. One student initiated conversation with another student by giving a message in the L1 (English). 6. The instructor, standing behind the student, whispered a close equivalent of the message in the L2 (German). 7. The student then repeated the L2 message to its addressee and into the tape recorder as well. 8. Each student had a cha nce to compose and record a few messages. 9. The tape recorder was rewound and replayed at intervals. Each student repeated the meaning in English of what he or she had said in the L2 and helped to refresh the memory of others. 10. Students then participated in a reflection period, in which they were asked to express their feelings about the previous experience with total frankness. 11. From the materials just recorded, the instructor chose sentences to write on the blackboard that highlighted elements of grammar, spelling, and peculiarities of capitalization in the L2.

	12. Students were encouraged to ask questions about any of the items above. 13. Students were encouraged to copy sentences from the board with notes on meaning and usage. This became their "textbook" for home study.
Conclusion	Community Language learning is a good method for practicing communication. It is also good method for begginers who just first study their second language. Using this method caan help begginers to reduce their anxiety in the classroom. Most of the time the students were anxious and never enjoyed learning English. The teacher believes that punishment and pressure could help students learn more. There are a lot of reasons related to language achievement such as students' personality characters, learning styles, education system, textbook appropriateness, or educators' method. Eventhough anxiety is not the most important reason for failure or success in learning language, we cannot ignore its affection. This method consides the student to be "whole person". It is not only to think about students' intellect but also their feeling in learning language.

7- ***SUGGESTOPEDIA***

Background	Suggestopedia, also known as Desuggestopedia, is a method developed by the Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator Georgi Lozanov. Suggestopedia is a specific set of learning recommendations derived from Suggestology, which Lozanov describes as a "science concerned with the systematic study of the non-rational and/or non-conscious influences" that human beings are constantly responding to (Stevick 1976, p. 42 The most conspicuous characteristics of Suggestopedia are the decoration, furniture, and arrangement of the classroom, the use of music, and the authoritative behavior of the teacher. The claims for suggestopedic learning are dramatic. "There is no sector of public life where suggestology would not be useful" (Lozanov 1978, p. 2). "Memorization in learning by the suggestopedic method seems to be accelerated 25 times over that in learning by conventional methods." (Lozanov 1978, p. 27) Lozanov acknowledges ties in tradition to yoga and Soviet psychology. From raja-yoga, Lozanov has borrowed and modified techniques for altering states of consciousness and concentration, and the use of rhythmic breathing. From Soviet psychology, Lozanov has taken the notion that all students can be taught a given subject matter at the same level of skill. Gaston (1968) defines three functions of music in therapy: to facilitate the establishment and maintenance of personal relations; to bring about increased self-esteem through increased self-satisfaction in musical performance; and to use the unique potential of rhythm to energize and bring order. This last function seems to be the one that Lozanov calls upon in his use of music to relax learners as well as to structure pace, and punctuate the presentation of linguistic material.
Objectives	The objectives of Suggestopedia are to deliver advanced conversational proficiency quickly. It bases its learning claims on student mastery of prodigious lists of vocabulary pairs and, suggests to the students that it is appropriate that they set such goals for themselves. Lozanov emphasizes that increased memory power is not an isolated skill but is result of "positive, comprehensive stimulation of personality" (Lozanov 1978, p. 253).
Syllabus	A Suggestopedia course lasts 30 days and consists of ten units of study. Classes are held 4 hours a day, 6 days a week. The central focus of each unit is a dialogue consisting of 1,200 words or so, with an accompanying vocabulary list and grammatical commentary. The dialogues are graded by lexis and grammar. There is a pattern of work within each unit and a pattern of work for the whole course. Unit study is organized around 3 days: day 1-half a day, day 2-full day, day 3-half a day. On the first day of work on a new unit, the teacher discusses the general content (not structure) of the unit dialogue. The learners then receive the printed dialogue with a native language translation in a parallel column. The teacher answers any questions of interest or concern about the dialogue. The dialogue then is read a second and third time in ways to be discussed subsequently. This is the work for day 1. Days 2 and 3 are spent in primary and secondary elaboration of the text. Primary elaboration consists of imitation, question and answer, reading, and so on, of the dialogue and of working with the 150 new vocabulary items presented in the unit. The secondary elaboration involves encouraging students to make new combinations and productions based on the dialogues. A story or essay paralleling the dialogue is also read. The students engage in conversation and take small roles in response to the text read. During the course, there are two opportunities for generalization of the material. In the middle of the course, students are encouraged to practice the target language in a setting where it might be used, such as hotels or restaurants. The last day of the course is devoted to a performance in which every student participates. The students construct a play built on the material of the course. Rules and parts are planned, but students are expected to speak extempore rather than from memorized lines. Written tests are also given throughout the course, and these and the performance are reviewed on the final day of the course.
Learning	Learning activities used in the method include imitation, question and answer, and role play,

activities	which are not activities "that other language teachers would consider being out of the ordinary" (Stevick 1976, p. 157). The types of activities that are more original to Suggestopedia are the listening activities, which concern the text and text vocabulary of each unit. These activities are typically part of the "pre-session phase," which takes place on the first day of a new unit. The students first look at and discuss a new text with the teacher. In the second reading, students relax comfortably in reclining chairs and listen to the teacher read the text in a certain way.
Role of the Learner	Learners' roles are carefully prescribed. The mental state of the learner is critical to success, which is why learners must forgo' mind-altering substances and other distractions and immerse themselves in the procedures of the method. Learners must not try to figure out, manipulate, or study the material presented, but they must maintain a pseudo-passive state, in which the material rolls over and through them. Students are expected to tolerate and encourage their own "infantilization." In part, this is accomplished by knowledging the absolute authority of the teacher and in part by giving themselves over to the activities and techniques designed to help them regain the self-confidence, spontaneity, and receptivity of the child. Such activities include, role playing, games, songs, and gymnastic exercises (Bancroft 1972, p. 19). Groups of learners are ideally socially homogeneous, twelve in number, and divided equally between men and women. Learners sit in a circle, which encourages face-to-face exchange and activity participation.
Role of the Teacher	The primary role of the teacher is to create situations in which the learner is most suggestible and then to present linguistic material in a way most likely to encourage positive reception and retention by the learner. Lozanov lists several expected teacher behaviors that contribute to these presentations. 1. Show absolute confidence in the method. 2. Display fastidious conduct in manners and dress. 3. Organize properly and strictly observe the initial stages of the teaching process - this includes choice and play of music, as well as punctuality. 4. Maintain a solemn attitude toward the session. S. Give tests and respond tactfully to poor papers (if any). 6. Stress global rather than analytical attitudes toward material. 7. Maintain a modest enthusiasm.
Materials	Materials consist of direct support materials, primarily text and tape, and indirect support materials, including classroom fixtures and music. The text is organized around the ten units described earlier. The text book should have emotional force, literary quality, and interesting characters. Language problems should be introduced in a way that does not worry or distract students from the content. "Traumatic themes and distasteful lexical material should be avoided." (Lozanov 1978, p. 278) Each unit should be governed by a single idea featuring a variety-of subthemes, "the way is in life" (p. 278).
Procedure	The arrangements and the physical atmosphere in the classroom are paramount for making sure that the students feel comfortable and confident. The use of various techniques including art and music, are used by the trained teachers. In the beginning, the lesson based on Suggestopedia used to consist of three phases : deciphering, concert session (memorization séance), and elaboration. Later, it has developed into four phases as lots of experiments were done: introduction, concert session, elaboration, and production(cf Lozanov's siteweb). 1. **Introduction:** The teacher teaches the material in "a playful manner" instead of analyzing Lexis and grammar of the text in a directive manner. 2. **Concert session (active and passive):** in the active session, the teacher reads with special intonation as selected music is played. Occasionally, the students read the text together with the teacher, and listen only to the music as the teacher pauses in particular moments. The passive session is done more calmly. 3. **Elaboration:** The students sing classical songs and play games while "the teacher acts more like a consultant 4. **Production:** The students spontaneously speak and interact in the target language without interruption

	or correction.
Advantages	In spite of all these disadvantages, some tenets of Suggestopedia have been accepted and adapted by teachers worldwide. ▪ Through Suggetopedia we learn to trust the power of the mind. ▪ We also learn that deliberately induced states of relaxation can be valuable at times in the classroom. ▪ We can also benefit from the use of music to get students sit back and relax. These are some of the contributions of Suggestopedia that teachers may weigh and adapt to different situation
Conclusion	Teacher will find different situation and different types of students in learning. Therefore, teacher should be creative and smart in choosing and using different types of methods in teaching different skill of language. Teacher can use suggestopedia as teaching method in their teaching. Using suggestopedia is very interesting but challenging to do. It can be seen from some considerations. In one side it has some benefits, but on the other side it also has some weaknesses. In addition, the key factors of effective teaching are not the approaches and methods in language teaching themselves but the teacher's deliberate selection of different approaches and methods and the devoted practice of putting theories into real teaching activities in a corresponding social-cultural context. It is a fact that no approach or method is perfect. However, there is no end for teacher to seek the perfection of the approaches and methods in language teaching. The language teaching method known as Suggestopedia provides some valuable insights into the power of cognition and creates techniques that make students feel comfortable, relaxed and suggestible to the material being learned.
Criticism	Suggestopedia has been criticised for a number of reasons: ▪ It is not a practical method as teachers face the problem of the availability of music and comfortable chairs. ▪ Lozanov refers in a number of occasions to the importance of memorization, excluding any reference to comprehension and creative problem solving. In fact language is not only about the power of the mind to memorize. It's about understanding, interacting and producing novel utterances in different unpredictable situations.

8- WHOLE LANGUAGE METHOD

Background	The whole language method of teaching children to read began to emerge in the 1980s by a group of U.S. educators concerned with the teaching of language arts, that is, reading and writing in the native language. It became a very popular method of teaching reading in the 1980s and onward decades. This methodology involves teaching reading skills in the context of interesting and stimulating literature. Supporters of this method believe children will learn to read naturally, just as they learn to talk and walk. By immersing children in good books, you can produce fluent and capable readers. Whole Language instruction is a theory of language instruction that was developed to help young children learn to read, and has also been extended to middle and secondary levels and to the teaching of ESL. "What began as a holistic way to teach reading has become a movement for change, key aspects of which are respect for each student as a member of a culture and as a creator of knowledge, and respect for each teacher as a professional" (Rigg 1991, p. 521).
Advantages	Children are exposed to outstanding children's literature from the very beginning of their reading experiences. They are not asked to read artificially simplified or contrived language. This makes reading more interesting for them. They have a better understanding of what they are reading, and a more interesting and creative approach to reading. There are no lists of sounds or rules to be learnt. Children are able to observe real reading behaviours in non-threatening situations and to imitate such behaviours without fear or shame.
Disadvantages	Children do not get a full phonic foundation and so are unable to decipher unfamiliar words. Accuracy and correctness can be overlooked. A child might be praised for overall language use, even if he has misspelled many words. There is a lack of structure in this method of teaching which puts a heavy burden on the teacher to develop their own curriculum and may be difficult for children who prefer a more organised way of learning.
Objectives, Syllabus, and Learning Activities	The major principles underlying the design of Whole Language instruction are as follows: • the use of authentic literature rather than artificial, specially prepared texts and exercises designed to practice individual reading skills • a focus on real and natural events rather than on specially written stories that do not relate to the students' experience • the reading of real texts of high-interest, particularly literature • reading for the sake of comprehension and for a real purpose • writing for a real audience and not simply to practice writing skills • writing as a process through which learners explore and discover meaning • the use of student-produced texts rather than teacher-generated or other generated texts • integration of reading, writing, and other skills • student-centered learning: students have choice over what they read and write, giving them power and understanding of their world • reading and writing in partnership with other learners • encouragement of risk taking and exploration and the acceptance of errors as signs of learning rather than of failure
Role of the Teacher	The teacher is seen as a facilitator and an active participant in the learning community rather than an expert passing on knowledge. The teacher teaches students, not the subject matter and looks for the occurrence of teachable moments rather than following a preplanned lesson plan or script. The teacher creates a climate that will support collaborative learning. The teacher has the responsibility of negotiating a plan of work with the learners.
Role of the	The learner is a collaborator, collaborating with fellow students, with the teacher, and with writers

Learner	of texts. Students are also evaluators, evaluating their own and others' learning, with the help of the teacher. The learner is self-directed; his or her own learning experiences are used as resources for learning. Students are also selectors of learning materials and activities. "Choice is vital in a whole language class, because without the ability to select activities, materials, and conversational partners, the students cannot use language for their own purposes" (Rigg 1991, p. 526).
Materials	Whole Language instruction advocates the use of real-world materials rather than commercial texts. A piece of literature is an example of "real-world" materials in that its creation was not instructionally motivated but resulted from the author's wish to communicate with the reader. Other real-world materials are brought to class by the students in the form of newspapers, signs, handbills, storybooks, and printed materials from the workplace in the case of adults. Students also produce their own materials. Rather than purchasing pedagogically prepared textbooks and "basal readers," schools make use of class sets of literature, both fictional and nonfictional
Procedure	The issue of what instructional characteristics are specific to Whole Language is somewhat problematic. Bergeron (1990) found that Whole Language was described differently in each article of the sixty-four articles she surveyed (except those written by the same author). She found only four classroom features mentioned in more than SO percent of the articles. These included: • the use of literature • the use of process writing • encouragement of cooperative learning among students • concern for students' attitude • Activities that are often used in Whole Language instruction are: • individual and small group reading and writing • ungraded dialogue journals • writing portfolios • writing conferences • student-made books • story writing Many of these activities are also common in other instructional approaches, such as Communicative Language Teaching, Content-Based Teaching, and Task-Based Language Teaching. Perhaps the only feature of Whole Language that does not appear centrally in discussions of communicative approaches to language teaching is the focus on literature. Although this has obviously been of concern to other writers on ELT methodology, suggestions for exploitation of literary resources in the Whole Language classroom will be familiar to language teachers with a similar interest in the use of literature in support of second language learning. What differs in Whole Language teaching is not the incidental use of such activities based on the topic of the lesson or an item in the syllabus, but their use as part of an overall philosophy of teaching and learning that gives a new meaning and purpose to such activities.

9- MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES METHOD

Background of Multiple Intelligences Method	Multiple Intelligences is a term which has first appeared in Howard Gardner's multiple intelligences theory. The latter is considered an important contribution to cognitive science and constitutes a learner-based philosophy which is "an increasingly popular approach to characterizing the ways in which learners are unique and to developing instruction which responds to this uniqueness" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p123). Howard Gardner has questioned the behaviorist idea that intelligence is a single entity which results from a single factor. Furthermore, his theory has evolved in response to the need to reach a better understanding of how cognitive individual differences can be addressed and developed in the classroom. Gardner (1993) proposed a view of natural human talents that is labeled the "Multiple Intelligences Model." This model is one of a variety of learning style models that have been proposed in general education and have subsequently been applied to language education (see, e.g., Christison 1998). Gardner claims that his view of intelligence(s) is culture-free and avoids the conceptual narrowness usually associated with traditional models of intelligence (e.g., the Intelligent Quotient [IQ] testing model). Gardner posits eight native intelligences," which are described as follows: • Linguistic: the ability to use language in special and creative ways, which is something lawyers, writers, editors, and interpreters are strong in. • Logical/mathematical: the ability to think rationally, often found with doctors, engineers, programmers, and scientists. • Spatial: the ability to form mental models of the world, something architects, decorators, sculptors, and painters are good at. • Musical: a good ear for music, as is strong in singers and composers. • Bodily/kinesthetic: having a well-coordinated body, something found in athletes and craftspersons. • Interpersonal: the ability to be able to work well with people, which is strong in salespeople, politicians, and teachers. • Intrapersonal: the ability to understand oneself and apply one's talent successfully, which leads to happy and well-adjusted people in all areas of life. • Naturalist: the ability to understand and organize the patterns of nature.
Objectives	There are no goals stated for MI instruction in linguistic terms. MI pedagogy focuses on the language class as the setting for a series of educational support systems aimed at making the language learner a better designer of his/her own learning experiences. Such a learner is both, better empowered and more fulfilled than a learner in traditional classrooms. A more goal-directed learner and happier person is held to be a likely candidate for being a better second language learner and user.
Syllabus	Also, there is no syllabus as such, either prescribed or recommended, in respect to MI based language teaching. However, there is a basic developmental sequence that has been proposed (Lazear 1991) as an alternative to what we have elsewhere considered as a type of "syllabus" design. The sequence consists of four stages: **Stage 1**: Awaken the Intelligence. Through multisensory experiences like touching, smelling, tasting, seeing, and so on - learners can be sensitized to the many-faceted properties of objects and events in the world that surrounds them. **Stage 2**: Amplify the Intelligence. Students strengthen and improve the intelligence by volunteering objects and events of their own choosing and defining with others the properties and contexts of experience of these objects and events. **Stage 3**: Teach with/for the Intelligence. At this stage the intelligence is linked to the focus of the class, that is, to some aspect of language learning. This is done via worksheets and small-group projects and discussion. **Stage 4**: Transfer of the Intelligence. Students reflect on the learning experiences of the previous three stages and relate these to issues and challenges in the out-of-class world. MI

	has been applied in many different types of classrooms. In some, there are eight self- access activity corners, each corner built around one of the eight intelligences. Students work alone or in pairs on intelligence foci of their own choosing.
Disadvantages	It may be difficult and impractical to tailor lessons to students various individual intelligences, especially within large classes.
Advantages	1. Each student is seen as an individual with his or her own strengths and weaknesses. 2. The teacher learns how each student may learn best and may give suitable tasks to teach the content demanded by the curriculum. 3. Students may be motivated and confident when using an intelligence they know is one of their strengths. 4. Due to many different tasks the students are more intrinsical motivated
Learning Activities	• Multiple intelligence projects: These are based on one or more of the intelligences and are designed to stimulate particular intelligences. • Curriculum-based projects: These are based on curriculum content are make use of as but are categorized according to the particular intelligences they • Thematic-based projects: These are based on a theme from the curriculum or classroom but are divided into different intelligences. 4. Resource-based projects: These are designed to provide students with opportunities to research a topic using multiple intelligences. • Student-choice projects: These are designed by students and draw on particular intelligences. In other more fully teacher-fronted classrooms, the students move through a cycle of activities highlighting use of different intelligences in the activities that the teacher has chosen and orchestrated. The following list summarizes several of the alternative views as to how the MI model can be used to serve the needs of language learners within a classroom setting: 1. **Play to strength** 2. **Variety is the spice:** 3. **All sizes fit one:** 4. **Me and my people:** Each of these views has strengths and weaknesses, some of a theoretical, some of a pedagogical, and some of a practical nature. It seems that potential MI teachers need to consider each of these possible applications of MI theory in light of their individual teaching situations.
Learner and teacher role	**The learner role.** One major aspect of the learner role is that every learner is unique. The focus is on the learner and his or her different abilities to learn things. The learners develop their own personality within the frame of the foreign language classroom. Learners may take an intelligence inventory to create their own multiple intelligences profiles to answer, "What type of learner am I?" They are an active part in the classroom and they are aware of aims and achievements and reflect on their own learning. **The teacher role.** The teacher may introduce his students to the existence of multiple intelligences and guide them in identifying, celebrating and making use of all their intelligences through language learning activities that exercise the students' multiple intelligences.
Procedure in Multiple Intelligences	Christison describes a low-level language lesson dealing with description of physical objects. The lesson plan recapitulates the sequence described earlier in the "Design" section.

Method	**Stage 1**: Awaken the Intelligence. The teacher brings many different objects to class. Students experience feeling things that are soft, rough, cold, smooth, and so on. They might taste things that are sweet, salty, sour, spicy, and so on. Experiences like this help activate and make learners aware of the sensory bases of experience. **Stage 2**: Amplify the Intelligence. Students are asked to bring objects to class or to use something in their possession. Teams of students describe each object attending to the five physical senses. They complete a worksheet including the information they have observed and discussed (Table 2). **Stage 3**: Teach with/for the Intelligence. At this stage, the teacher structures larger sections of lesson(s) so as to re-enforce and emphasize sensory experiences and the language that accompanies these experiences. Students work in groups, perhaps completing a worksheet such as that shown in Table 3. **Stage 4**: Transfer of the Intelligence. This stage is concerned with application of the intelligence to daily living. Students are asked to reflect on both the content of the lesson and its operational procedures (working in groups, completing tables, etc.).
Conclusion	As a theoretical construct the theory of Multiple Intelligences suggests an explanation for intelligence which embraces human diversity and emphasizes the importance of the cultural contexts within which intelligence operates. This theory has identified several intelligences and crystallized their roles in addition to the cognitive abilities characterizing every human being. Furthermore, these multiple intelligences are suggested to have beneficial implications in education especially in language learning and teaching. In this sense, each intelligence can be developed and used within a specific learning or teaching frame in order to enhance the learners' input and output of language.

NEUROLINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING

Background	Neurolinguistic Programming (NLP) refers to a training philosophy and a set of training techniques first developed by John Grindler and Richard Bandler in the mid- 1970s as an alternative form of therapy. Grindler (a psychologist) and Bandler (a student of linguistics) were interested in how people influence each other and how the behaviors of very effective people could be duplicated. They studied successful therapists and concluded that they "followed similar patterns in relating to their clients and in the language they used, and that they all held similar beliefs about themselves and what they were doing" (Revell and Norman 1997, p. 14). Grindler and Bandler developed NLP as a system of techniques that therapists could use in building rapport with clients, gathering information about their internal and external views of the world, and helping them achieve goals and bring about personal change. They sought to fill what they perceived to be a gap in psychological thinking and practice of the early 1970s by developing a series of step-by-step procedures that would enable people to improve themselves. NLP is a collection of techniques, patterns, and strategies for assisting effective communication, personal growth and change, and learning. It is based on a series of underlying assumptions about how the mind works and how people act and interact (Revell and Norman 1997, p. 14). ***neuro:*** *Referring to the mind or brain, particularly regarding how states of mind (and body) affect communication and behavior. NLP teaches a structural way of viewing mind and body states, developing mental maps that show how things happen and how to change course.* ***Linguistic:*** *Meaning that our mind and body states are revealed in our language and non-verbal communication. Language is the tool we use to gain access to the inner workings of the mind. Neuro-linguistic programming language patterns teach us how to access unconscious information that would remain vague and unknowable otherwise.* ***Programming:*** *This refers to the capacity to change our mind and body states. You've heard the term* ***living on autopilot****, right? To someone trained in NLP, this would mean that you are living according to your programming, which consists of habitual thoughts, feelings, reactions, beliefs, and traditions. Someone trained in neuro-linguistic programming knows how such programs are structured in the mind and how to access them through conversation (language) so that outdated programs and autopilot behaviors can be changed.*
Objectives	Four key principles lie at the heart of NLP (O'Connor and McDermott 1996; Revell and Norman 1997). • Outcomes: the goals or ends. NLP claims that knowing precisely what you want helps you achieve it. This principle can be expressed as "know what you want." • Rapport: a factor that is essential for effective communication maximizing similarities and minimizing differences between people at a non-conscious level. This principle can be expressed as "Establish rapport with yourself and then with others." • Sensory acuity: noticing what another person is communicating, consciously and nonverbally. This can be expressed as "Use your senses. Look at, listen to, and feel what is actually happening." • Flexibility: doing things differently if what you are doing is not working: having a range of skills to do something else or something different. This can be expressed as "Keep changing what you do until you get what you want
Presuppositions	Revell and Norman (1997) present thirteen presuppositions that guide the application of NLP in language learning and other fields. The idea is that these principles become part of the belief system of the teacher and shape the way teaching is conducted no matter what method the teacher is using.

	1. Mind and body are interconnected: They are parts of the same system, and each affects the other. 2. The map is not the territory: We all have different maps of the world. 3. There is no failure, only feedback and a renewed opportunity for success. 4. The map becomes the territory: What you believe to be true either is true or becomes true. 5. Knowing what you want helps you get it.
Role of Teacher and Learner	If you want to be an excellent teacher, model excellent teachers, look at what they do, how they act, what sort of relationship they have with their students and colleagues. Ask them how they feel about what they do. What are their beliefs? Second, position them. Imagine what it is like to be them. As you learn techniques and strategies, put them into practice. Share modeling strategies with students. Set the project of modeling good learners. Encourage them to share and try out strategies they learn. (Revell and Norman 1997, p. 116) What do NLP language teachers do that makes them different from other language teachers? According to NLP, they seek to apply the principles in their teaching and this leads to different responses to many classroom events and processes. For example, one of the four central principles of NLP centers on the need for "rapport": Rapport is meeting others in their world, trying to understand their needs, their values and their culture and communicating in ways that are congruent with those values. You don't necessarily have to agree with their values, simply recognize that they have a right to them and work within their framework, not against it. (Rylatt and Lohan 1995, p. 121)
Procedure	NLP principles can be applied to the teaching of all aspects of language, according to Revell and Norman. For example, the following suggested lesson sequence is "to help students become aware at a feeling level of the conceptual meaning of a grammatical structure." The primary focus of the sequence is awareness (and, indeed, production) of instances of the present perfect in English. The lesson begins with a guided fantasy of eating a food item and then reflecting on the experience. 1. Students are told that they are going on an "inner grammatical experience as you eat a biscuit." 2. Check that they understand vocabulary of the experience (smell, taste, chew, swallow, bite, lick, etc.). 3. Students 'are asked to relax, close their eyes, and "go inside." Once "inside," they listen to the teacher-produced fantasy, which is given as the following: 4. (An abbreviated version of the teacher text) "Imagine a biscuit. A delicious biscuit. The sort you really like. Pick it up and look at it closely. Notice how crisp and fresh it is. Smell it. Notice how your mouth is beginning to water. In a moment you are going to eat the biscuit. Say the words to yourself: 'I am going to eat this biscuit.' "Slowly chew the biscuit and notice how delicious it tastes on your tongue and in your mouth.... Say the words to yourself, `I'm really enjoying eating this biscuit.' "Take another bite. Chew it. Taste it. Enjoy it... . And then swallow. Lick your lips, move your tongue all around the inside of your mouth to catch any last bits of biscuit, and swallow them. "Notice how you feel now. Notice the taste in your mouth. Notice how your stomach feels with a biscuit inside it. Notice how you feel emotionally. You have eaten a biscuit. Say the

	words to yourself, `I've eaten a biscuit. "How are you feeling now? Think of the words to describe how you are feeling now. Take a deep breath and gently come back to the room, bringing the' feeling with you. Open your eyes." 5. Ask the students to describe how they are feeling now - "the feeling of the present perfect." Listen for any statements that link the past experience of eating the biscuit with their present feelings (e.g., "I feel full," "I'm not hungry anymore," "I've got a nice taste in my mouth," "I feel fat"). 6. Ask them to say again the sentence that describes the cause of the way they feel ("I've eaten a biscuit"). 7. Put a large piece of paper on the wall with the words "I've eaten a biscuit" at the top. Have students write how they feel underneath. 8. On other pieces of paper, write sentences such as: I've painted a picture. I've had a row with my boy/girlfriend. I've finished my homework. I've cleaned my teeth. 9. Ask students to stand in front of each sentence, close their eyes, and strongly imagine what they have done in order to be saying that sentence now. Students write on the paper how they feel now about these sentences. 11. Leave the papers on the wall as a reminder of the feeling link to the grammatical structure. 12. As follow-up, contrast the feeling of the present perfect with the feeling of the simple past. Ask students to remember the things they did in the last lesson ("I ate a biscuit"). Ask them to close their eyes and notice how they are feeling now. Contrast this feeling with the feeling they remember from the last lesson and which they wrote down on the papers. Ask them to say the sentence "Yesterday, I ate a biscuit." 14. Discuss the comparison between the feelings ("I remember the taste, but I can't actually taste it"). 15. You can do similar exercises to exemplify other tenses using different tastes and sensory experiences.
Critical Comments	NLP is not a language teaching method. It does not consist of a set of techniques for teaching a language based on theories and assumptions at the level of an approach and a design. Rather, it is a humanistic philosophy and a set of beliefs and suggestions based on popular psychology, designed to convince people that they have the power to control their own and other people's lives for the better and practical prescriptions on how to do so. NLP practitioners believe that if language teachers adopt and use the principles of NLP, they will become more effective teachers. Workshops on NLP are hence typically short on theory and research to justify its claims and strong on creating positive expectations, bonding, and enthusiasm. As Revell and Norman comment, the assumptions on which NLP are based "need not be accepted as the absolute truth, but acting as if they were true can make a world of difference in your life and in your teaching" (1997, p. 15). In language teaching, the appeal of NLP to some teachers stems from the fact that it offers a set of humanistic principles that provide either a new justification for well-known techniques from the communicative or humanistic repertoire or a different interpretation of the role of the teacher and the learner, one in harmony with many learner-centered, person-centered views.

10- THE LEXICAL APPROACH

Background	A lexical approach in language teaching refers to one derived from the belief that the building blocks of language learning and communication are not grammar, functions, notions, or some other unit of planning and teaching but lexis, that is, words and word combinations. Lexical approaches in language teaching reflect a belief in the centrality of the lexicon to language structure, second language learning, and language use, and in particular to multiword lexical units or "chunks" that are learned and used as single items. Linguistic theory has also recognized a more central role for vocabulary in linguistic description. Formal transformational/generative linguistics, which previously took syntax as the primary focus, now gives more central attention to the lexicon and how the lexicon is formatted, coded, and organized. Chomsky, the father of contemporary studies in syntax, has recently adopted a "**lexicon-is-prime**" position in his Minimalist Linguistic theory. Several approaches to language learning have been proposed that view vocabulary and lexical units as central in learning and teaching. These include The Lexical Syllabus (Willis 1990), Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching (Nattinger and DeCarrico 1992), and The Lexical Approach (Lewis 1993). These studies have focused on collocations of lexical items and multiple word units.
Objectives	The rationale and design for lexically based language teaching described in The Lexical Syllabus (Willis 1990) and the application of it in the Collins COBUILD English Course represent the most ambitious attempt to realize a syllabus and accompanying materials based on lexical rather than grammatical principles
Syllabus and Learning Activities	Willis notes that the COBUILD computer analyses of texts indicate that the 700 most frequent words of English account for around 70% of all English text. This "fact" led to the decision that word frequency would determine the contents of our course. Level I would aim to cover the most frequent 700 words together with their common patterns and uses" (Willis 1990: vi). In one respect, this work resembled the earlier frequency-based analyses of vocabulary by West (1953) and Thorndike and Longe (1944). The difference in the COBUILD course was the attention to word patterns derived from the computer analysis. Willis stresses, however, that "the lexical syllabus not only subsumes a structural syllabus, it also indicates how the structures which make up syllabus should be exemplified" since the computer corpus reveals the commonest structural patterns in which words are used (Willis 1990, p. vi).
Role of the Teacher	Specific roles for teachers and learners are also assumed in a lexical approach. Lewis supports Krashen's Natural Approach procedures and suggests that teacher talk is a major source of learner input in demonstrating how lexical phrases are used for different functional purposes. Willis proposes that teachers need to understand and manage a classroom methodology based on stages composed of Task, Planning, and Report. In general terms, Willis views the teacher's role as one of creating an environment in which learners can operate effectively and then helping learners manage their own learning. This requires that teachers "abandon the idea of the teacher as `knower' and concentrate instead on the idea of the 'learner' as 'discoverer'" (Willis 1990, p. 131).
Role of the Learner	Others propose that learners make use of computers to analyze text data previously collected or made available "free-form" on the Internet. Here the learner assumes the role of data analyst constructing his or her own linguistic generalizations based on examination of large corpora of language samples taken from "real life." The most popular computer-based applications using corpora are built on the presentation of concordance lines to the learner that illustrates the contexts of use of some words or structures. However, learners need training in how to use the concordance effectively. Teaching assistance will be necessary in leading the learner, by example, through the different stages of lexical analysis such as observation, classification, and generalization
Materials	Materials and teaching resources to support lexical approaches in language teaching are of at least four types.

	Type 1 consists of complete course packages including texts, tapes, teacher's manuals, such as the Collins COBUILD English Course and so on (Willis and Willis 1989). Type 2 is represented by collections of vocabulary teaching activities, such as those that appear in Lewis's Implementing the Lexical Approach (Lewis 1997). Type 3 consists of "printout" versions of computer corpora collections packaged in text format. Tribble and Jones (1990) include such materials with accompanying student exercises based on the corpora printouts. Type 4 materials are computer concordancing programs and attached data sets to allow students to set up and carry out their own analyses. These are typically packaged in CD-ROM form, such as Oxford's Micro Concord, or can be downloaded from sites on the Internet. Some contexts of Predict 1. involved in copper binding. Our findings predict that examples of selective editing of mitocho 2. the stratosphere. The present models predict that a cooling of the winter polar vortex by 3. analysis of this DNA we are able to predict the complete amino-acid sequence of the polyp 4. or this problem use the survey data to predict values on the vertical profile; by contrast, S. the calcium-voltage hypothesis would predict an increase in release, locked in time to the Some contexts of Forecast 1. calculations a second. The center makes forecasts 10 days ahead for 18 national meteorological 2. any action whose success hinges on a forecast being right. They might end up doing a lot 3. stands up in the House of Commons to forecast Britain's economic performance for the next 4. vice labor of its people. This gloomy forecast can be better understood by looking closely 5. but three months earlier the secret forecast carried out by Treasury economists suggested
Procedure of the Lexical Approach	Procedural sequences for lexically based language teaching vary depending on which of the four types of materials and activities outlined in the preceding section are employed. However, all designers, to some degree, assume that the learner must take on the role of "discourse analyst," with the discourse being either packaged data or data "found" via one of the text search computer programs. Classroom procedures typically involve the use of activities that draw students' attention to lexical collocations and seek to enhance their retention and use of collocations. Woolard (2000) suggests that teachers should reexamine their course books for collocations, adding exercises that focus explicitly on lexical phrases. They should also develop activities that enable learners to discover collocations themselves, both in the classroom and in the language they encounter outside of the classroom. Woolard (2000, p. 3S) comments: The learning of collocations is one aspect of language development which is ideally suited to independent language learning. In a very real sense, we can teach students to teach themselves. Collocation is mostly a matter of noticing and recording, and trained students should be able to explore texts for them- selves. Not only should they notice common collocations in the texts they meet, but more importantly, they should select those collocations which are crucial to their particular needs.

11- COMPETENCY-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

Background	According to Richards & Rodgers (2001, p.141) "Competency-Based Language Teaching (CBLT) is an application of the principles of Competency-Based Education to language teaching". In Competency-Based Education (CBE) the focus is on the "outcomes or outputs of learning". By the end of the 1970s Competency-Based Language Teaching was mostly used in "work-related and survival-oriented language teaching programs for adults" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.141). Since the 1990s, CBLT has been seen as "the state-of-the-art approach to adult ESL" (Auerbach, 1986, p.411) so that any refugee in the United States who wished to receive federal assistance had to attend a competency-based program (Auerbach, 1986, p.412) in which they learned a set of language skills "that are necessary for individuals to function proficiently in the society in which they live" (Grognet & Crandall, 1982, p.3).
Approach and Theory of Language and Learning of Competency-Based Language Teaching	The major basis of CBLT is the "functional and interactional perspective on the nature of language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 143) which means that language learning always needs to be connected to the social context it is used in. Therefore, language is seen as "a medium of interaction and communication between people" who want to achieve "specific goals and purposes" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.143). This especially applies to situations in which the learner has to fulfill a particular role with language skills which can be predicted or determined for the relevant context (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.143). In connection to this Competency-Based Language Teaching shares the behaviorist view of learning that "certain life encounters call for certain kinds of language" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.143). Another key aspect of both language and learning theory is the so called "mosaic approach to language learning" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.143), which assumes that language can be divided into appropriate parts and subparts. Communicative competence is then constructed from these subparts put together in the correct order (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.143). All these aspects together show that CBLT is in some respects similar to Communicative Language Teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.143).
Objectives	Docking (1994) points out that the traditional approach to developing a syllabus involves using one understands of subject matter as the basis for syllabus planning. One starts with the field of knowledge that one is going to teach (e.g., contemporary European history, marketing, listening comprehension, or French literature) and then selects concepts, knowledge, and skills that constitute that field of knowledge
Syllabus	A syllabus and the course content are then developed around the subject. Objectives may also be specified, but these usually have little role in the teaching or assessing of the subject. Assessment of students is usually based on norm referencing, that is, students will be graded on a single scale with the expectation either that they are spread across a wide range of scores or that they conform to a preset distribution. A student receives a set of marks for his or her performance relative to other students, from which it is very difficult to make any form of judgment about the specific knowledge or skills a student has acquired. Indeed, two students may receive the same marks on a test but in fact have widely different capacities and knowledge in the subject. CBT, by comparison is designed not around the notion of subject knowledge but around the notion of competency. The focus moves from what students know about language to what they can do with it. The focus on competencies or learning outcomes Underpins the curriculum framework and syllabus specification, teaching strategies, assessment and reporting. Instead of norm-referenced assessment, criterion-based assessment procedures are used in which learners are assessed according to how well they can perform on specific learning tasks. (Docking 1994, p. 16)
Learning Activities	The learning activities used in CBLT can be described as systematically designed activities to achieve a certain competence. These activities are real-world tasks which "may be related to any domain of life" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.144) but especially to survival-oriented and work-related situations in a new environment (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.144). Typical areas, for which such competency-based activities

	have been developed, are for example Job Application, Job Interview, or Work Schedules (Mrowicki, 1986). All these areas "can be described as a collection of units of competencies" which consist of "specific knowledge, thinking processes, attitudes, and perceptual and physical skills" (Docking, 1994, p.11). Competencies consist of a description of the essential skills, knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors required for effective performance of a real-world task or activity. These activities may be related to any domain of life, though have typically been linked to the field of work and to social survival in a new environment. For example, areas for which competencies have been developed in a vocationally oriented ESL curriculum for immigrants and refugees include: • Task Performance • Safety • General Word-Related • Work Schedules, Time Sheers, Paychecks • Social Language • Job Application • Job Interview For the area of "Retaining a Job", the following competencies are described: • Follow instructions to carry out a simple task. • Respond appropriately to supervisor's comments about quality of work on the job, including mistakes, working too slowly, and incomplete work. • Request supervisor to check work. • Report completion of task to supervisor. • Request supplies. • Ask where object is located: Follow oral directions to locate an object. • Follow simple oral directions to locate a place. • Read charts, labels, forms, or written instructions to perform a task. • State problem and ask for help if necessary. • Respond to inquiry as to nature or progress of current task. State amount and type of work already competed. • Respond appropriately to work interruption or modification.
Factors involved in the Implementation of Competency-Based Language Teaching Programs	According to Auerbach (1986) there are eight key features which are essential for Competency-Based Language Teaching: 1. A focus on successful functioning in society which means that language is taught in order to prepare the students for the different demands of the world (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.146). 2. A focus on life skills to determine that language is always taught as a medium of communication in concrete tasks in which specific language forms/skills are required (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.146). 3. Task- or performance-centered orientation. The focus is on what the students can do with the language and certain behaviors instead of knowledge of the language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.146). 4. Modularized instruction emphasizes that the competencies which are taught have to be systematically separated into manageable parts so that both the teacher and students can handle the content and realize their progress (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.146). 5. Outcomes that are made explicit a priori. "Outcomes are public knowledge, known and agreed upon by both learner and teacher" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.146). Therefore, the students clearly know what behaviors and skills are expected of them (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.146). 6. Continuous and ongoing assessment which means that the students are tested before the course to determine which skills they lack and after they have had instructions in that skill they are tested again to ascertain whether they have achieved the necessary skills or not (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.146). 7. Demonstrated mastery of performance objectives. The assessment is based on the students' performance of specific behaviors instead of traditional paper-and-pencil-tests (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.146). 8. Individualized, student-centered instruction. The instructions given by the teacher are not time-based but

	the focus is on the progress the individual students make at their own rate. Therefore, the teacher has to concentrate on each individual students in order to support them in those areas in which they lack competence (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.146)
Role of Teacher	The role of the teacher in a competency-based framework is not defined by specific terms. The teacher has to provide positive and constructive feedback in order to help the students to improve their skills. She/he needs to be aware of the learners' needs so that everybody feels welcome in class (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.146). The different competencies dealt with in class require specific instructions for the various learning activities. Thus the teacher has to give clear orders and explanations to make sure that every student understands the task they are going to deal with. But the teacher does not push the students because the instructions are not time-based; instead the student's progress is most important (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.146). Another task of the teacher in CBLT is to select learning activities and to design a syllabus according to the competency the students are going to acquire.
Role of Learner	The role of the learner in a competency-based framework is to decide whether the competencies are useful and relevant for him/her (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.146). This shows that the learner has an active role in the classroom which is underlined by the fact that the students are expected to perform the skills learned (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.146). The competencies the students will learn are clearly defined and present in the public so that "the learner knows exactly what needs to be learned" and for which purpose he/she has to use the competencies (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.147). In this regard it is vital that every competency is mastered one at a time because this makes sure that the learners know what they have already learned and what the next steps will look like (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.147). Moreover, the students have to stay in the actual program until they improve. After they mastered their skills, they move into a more proficient group of students. The main goal of the learner in Competency-Based Language Teaching is to be able to adapt and transfer knowledge from one setting to another.
Materials	The materials the teacher chooses are mainly "sample texts and assessment tasks that provide examples of texts and assessment tasks that relate to the competency" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.147). These materials are used to provide the students with "the essential skills, knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors required for effective performance of a real-world task or activity" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.144). A great variety of competencies should be improved by these tasks. On the one hand, knowledge and learning competencies as well as oral competencies are dealt with. On the other hand, the materials include tasks to improve the reading and writing competencies (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.147).
Pros & Cons Of Competency-Based Learning	How 'good' or 'bad' it is depends on the ecology it is embedded in. In a system with deep and diverse support systems, robust assessment forms, and clear and manageable learning outcomes that are accessible to all learners, competency-based learning can be an effective model, potentially reducing inefficiency (including time spent learning) and increasing pedagogical precision and student achievement. Its strengths lie in its flexibility, as learners are able to move at their own pace. This supports students with diverse knowledge backgrounds, literacy levels, and other related aptitudes. Its challenges should sound familiar to most educators, including the difficulty in identifying–and agreeing upon–the most important competencies, how to best assess them, and how to support learners that struggle. On paper, technology adds a new wrinkle to competency-based learning, as it provides students with access to content to develop said competencies. If every student can access the same content the teacher does, there is less of a need for the class to move together, and students are able to prove their understanding on more personal and authentic terms.
Procedure	At the beginning of a course in a competency-based framework the students have to go through an initial assessment, in which the teacher determines the current proficiency level of the individual student. After this the students are grouped on the basis of "their current English proficiency level, their learning pace, their needs, and their social goals for learning English" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.147). Furthermore, a course based on CBLT is divided into three stages, which the students have to go through in order to successfully finish the course (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.147). At Stages 1 and 2 the learners deal with twelve competencies which are related to general language development (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.147). At Stage 3 the students are grouped on the basis of their learning goals and "competencies are defined according to the three syllabus strands of Further Study, Vocational English, and Community Access"

	(Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.147). After an initial assessment, students are placed within the framework on the basis of their current English proficiency level, their learning pace, their needs, and their social goals for learning English. The twelve core competencies at Stages 1 and 2 relate to general language development. At stage 3, learners are more often grouped according to their goal focus, and competencies are defined according to the three syllabus strands of Further Study, Vocational English, and Community Access. The competency descriptions at each stage are divided into four domains: • Knowledge and learning competencies • Oral competencies • Reading competencies • Writing competencies All competencies are described in terms of: • Elements that break down the competency into smaller components and refer to the essential linguistic features of the text, • Performance criteria that specify the minimal performance required to achieve a competency, Range of variables that sets limits for the performance of the competency - sample texts and assessment tasks that provide examples
Criticism on CBLT	Although CBLT has been embraced with enthusiasm by large sections of the ESL profession, it is not without its critics. These criticisms are both practical and philosophical. Tollefson (1986) argues that there are in fact no valid procedures available to develop competency lists for most programs. Many of the areas for which competencies are needed, such as "adult living," "survival," and "functioning proficiently in the community," are impossible to operationalize. Others have pointed out that dividing activities up into sets of competencies is a reductionist approach, and that the sum of the parts does not equal the complexity of the whole. Auerbach, summarizing the work of Paolo Friere and others, points out that CBLT reflects what Friere has characterized as a "banking" model of education. This assumes the following: CBLT is therefore seen as prescriptivist in that it prepares students to fit into the status quo and maintain class relationships. In addition, teaching typically focuses on behavior and performance rather than on the development of thinking skills. Conclude: "It can confidently be said, as we enter a new millennium, that the business of improving learning competencies and skills will remain one of the world's fastest growing industries and priorities."
Conclusion	There are both critics and supporters of Competency-Based Language Teaching. According to Tollefson (1986) it is very difficult to develop lists of competencies for every specific situation. This is due above all to the fact that many areas in which people need certain competencies are impossible to operationalise (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.148). Other researchers argue that describing an activity in terms of a set of different competencies is not enough in order to deal with the complexity of the activity as a whole (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.148). But on the other hand, CBLT is gaining popularity in the whole world. It is argued that through the clearly defined outcomes and the continuous feedback in CBLT, the quality of assessment as well as the students' learning and the teaching are improved (Docking, 1994, p.15). These improvements can be seen on all educational levels, "from primary school to university, and from academic studies to workplace training" (Docking, 1994, p.15). Rylatt and Lohan (1997, p.18) point out that "the business of improving learning competencies and skills will remain one of the world's fastest growing industries and priorities" in the future.

12- COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACH

Background	Communicative language teaching has been the centre of language teaching discussions since the late 1960s (Savignon & Berns, 1984, p.4). Over the years it had become clear to its proponents that mastering grammatical forms and structures did not prepare the learners well enough to use the language they are learning effectively when communicating with others. As a result, situational language teaching and its theoretical conjectures were questioned by British linguists. Some of the linguists had the task of providing the Council of Europe with a standardized programme for foreign language teaching. D. A. Wilkins was one of them, and his work has had the greatest impact on current materials for language teaching (Savignon & Berns, 1984, p.10). He analyzed the existing syllabus types (grammatical and situational) and the communicative meanings that a language learner needs to understand. In place of the existing syllabus Wilkins proposed a notional syllabus. This syllabus was not organized in terms of grammatical structures but rather specified what meanings the learners needed in order to communicate. What began as a development only in Britain has expanded since the mid 1970's. Now it is seen as an approach that pursues two main goals. The first one is "to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching" and the second one, "to develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.155). Another important name associated with communicative language teaching is A. P. R. Howatt. He differentiates between a "strong" and a "weak" version of communicative language teaching. Howatt states that "a strong version is the development of a language through communication" (1984, p.279) doesn't mean reactivating existing knowledge of the language but rather prompting the development of the language system itself. However, the "weak" version focuses on providing the learner with sufficient opportunities to speak the language and to put that in the centre of language teaching.
Theory and characteristics	As the name implies, the central concept in communicative language teaching is "communicative competence" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.159). This covers both the spoken and written language and all four language skills. As Oxford states, the "development of communicative competence requires realistic interaction among learners using meaningful, contextualized language" (1990, p.8). Learning strategies, like allowing learners to become more self-directed and more independent in learning the new language help them to participate actively in communication. In her book "Interpreting Communicative Language Teaching: Contexts and Concerns in Teacher Education" Savignon includes a useful summary of the eight characteristics of communicative language teaching by the linguist M. Berns: 1) Language teaching is based on a view of language as communication. That is, language is seen as a social tool that speakers use to make meaning; speakers communicate about something to someone for some purpose, either orally or in writing. 2) Diversity is recognized and accepted as part of language development and use in second language learners and users, as it is with first language users. 3) A learner's competence is considered in relative, not in absolute, terms. 4) More than one variety of the language is recognized as a viable model for learning and teaching. 5) Culture is recognized as instrumental in shaping speaker's communicative competence, in both their first and subsequent languages. 6) No single methodology or fixed set of techniques is prescribed. 7) Language use is recognized as serving ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions and is related to the development of learner's competence in each. 8) It is essential that learners be engaged in doing things with language – that is, that they use language for a variety of purposes in all phases of learning (2002, p.6). One major feature of communicative language teaching is pair and group work. This type of work "is suggested to encourage students to use and practice functions and forms" (Richards& Rodgers, 2001, p.171). That helps the students to become more independent and to accept responsibility.
Syllabus	Communicative language teaching syllabus organizes the teaching according to the notional and functional categories of language rather than according to its structures.It concentrates on the following: ▪ Interactions: using language to communicate, ▪ Tasks: using language to perform meaningful tasks

	▪ Learner: ps interests, needs in the forefront.
Learner and teacher roles	Communicative language teaching emphasizes "self-direction for the learners". (Oxford, 1990, p.10) As the teacher won't be around to guide them the whole time, especially not when the learners speak the language outside the classroom they are expected to take on a greater degree of responsibility for their own learning. According to Oxford, "this is essential to the active development of the new language" (1990, p.4). The learner should enter into situations where communication takes place as much as possible to increase his or her communicative proficiency. Teachers no longer rely on activities that require repetition, accuracy and the memorization of sentences and grammatical patterns; instead, they require the learners to negotiate meaning and to interact meaningfully in the new language. Learners have to participate in classroom activities based on a cooperative rather than individualistic approach to learning; they need to listen to their peers in order to carry out group work successfully. The teacher adopts different roles. On the one hand she is a "facilitator, a guide and a helper" and on the other hand a "coordinator, an idea-person and a co-communicator" (Oxford, 1990, p.10). She talks less and listens more to the students' output. In addition to that, the teacher also identifies the students' learning strategies and helps the students to improve them if necessary and shows them how to work independently. Instructional tasks become less important and fade into the background. That doesn't mean that they aren't used at all, but with less significance. These changes give the teacher more scope for variety and creativity and she gives up her status as a person of authority in a teacher-learner hierarchy. It is the teacher's responsibility to be creative and prepare appropriate material at home. The teacher can also assume other roles, for example the needs analyst, the counselor or the group process manager (see Richards & Rodgers, 2001).
Advantages and disadvantages	The most obvious advantage in communicative language teaching is that of the increase of fluency in the target language. This enables the learners to be more confident when interacting with other people and they also enjoy talking more. The approach also leads to gains in the areas of grammatical/sociolinguistic/discourse/strategic competence through communication. One major disadvantage might be that it is difficult for the teacher alone to check the language use of every student, especially in a big class. The students are allowed to make mistakes but they need to be corrected – preferably not whilst in the middle of a conversation - by the teacher in order to improve and so as not to make the same mistake again and again. Therefore it is not helpful if there's only one teacher for one class. Another point concerning the teacher might be that it depends on the teacher how motivating or boring the lesson will be. The teacher needs to prepare the material at home and needs to make it as motivating and creative as possible so that the students find the tasks meaningful and motivating, and are eager to communicate with each other.
Criticism	▪ Notional syllabus was criticized as merely replacing one kind of list, namely a list of grammatical structures, with another list of notions and functions. ▪ The various categories of language functions are overlapping and not systematically graded like the structures of the language. ▪ The communicative approach focuses on the use of language in everyday situations, or the functional aspects of language, and less on the formal structures. There must be a certain balance between the two.It gives priority to meanings and rules of use rather than to grammar and rules of structure. Such concentration on language behavior may result in negative consequences in the sense that important structures and rules would be left out. ▪ The approach relies extensively on the functional-notational syllabus which places heavy demands on the learners. ▪ A major principle underlying this approach is its emphasis on learners' needs and interests. This implies that every teacher should modify the syllabus to fit the needs of the learners. ▪ The requirements are difficult. Not all classrooms can allow for group work activities and for teaching aids and materials.

13- THE NATURAL APPROACH

Background of the Natural Approach	The natural approach was originally created in 1977 by Terrell, a Spanish teacher in California, who wished to develop a style of teaching based on the findings of naturalistic studies of second-language acquisition. After the original formulation, Terrell worked with Krashen to further develop the theoretical aspects of the method. Terrell and Krashen published the results of their collaboration in the 1983 book *The Natural Approach*. The natural approach was strikingly different from the mainstream approach in the United States in the 1970s and early 1980s, the audio-lingual method. While the audio-lingual method prized drilling and error correction, these things disappeared almost entirely from the natural approach. Terrell and Krashen themselves characterized the natural approach as a "traditional" method[1] and contrasted it with grammar-based approaches, which they characterized as new inventions that had "misled" teachers.[5] The natural approach shares many features with the direct method (itself also known as the "natural method"), which was formulated around 1900 and was also a reaction to grammar-translation.[6] Both the natural approach and the direct method are based on the idea of enabling naturalistic language acquisition in the language classroom; they differ in that the natural approach puts less emphasis on practice and more on exposure to language input and on reducing learners' anxiety.
Theory of Language	Krashen and Terrell view communication as the primary function of language, and adhere to a communicative approach to language teaching, focusing on teaching communicative abilities rather than sterile language structures. What really distinguishes the Natural approach from other methods and approaches are its premises concerning the use of language and the importance of vocabulary: ▪ Language is viewed as a vehicle for communicating meaning and messages. ▪ Vocabulary is of paramount importance as language is essentially its lexicon! This means that language acquisition cannot take place unless the acquirer understands messages in the target language and has developed sufficient vocabulary inventory. In fact, it should be easier to reconstruct a me

Theory of learning	Krashen grounded the Natural approach on a number of learning tenets. The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis Krashen makes a distinction between **acquisition and learning.** ▪ Krashen defines **acquisition** as developing competence by using language for real communication. It is a **natural** way of developing the abilty to speak a language, paralleling first language development in children and refers to an unconscious process that involves the naturalistic development of language proficiency through understanding language and through using language for meaningful communication. ▪ **Learning,** however, refers to formal knowledge of a language. It is the process in which conscious rules about a language are developed. It results in explicit knowledge about the forms of a language and the ability to verbalize this knowledge. Formal teaching is necessary for "learning" to occur, and the correction of errors helps with the development of learned rules. **The Monitor Hypothesis** Conscious learning can function only as a monitor or editor that checks and repairs the output of the acquired system. The Monitor Hypothesis states that we may use learned knowledge to correct ourselves when we communicate, but that conscious learning has *only* this function. Three conditions limit the successful use of the monitor: 1. **Time**. Sufficient time for a learner to choose and apply a learned rule. 2. **Focus on form**. Focus on the correctness or on the form of the output. 3. **Knowledge of rules**. Knowing the rules is a prerequisite for the use of the monitor. **The Natural Order Hypothesis** The acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order. Certain grammatical structures or morphemes are acquired before others in first language acquisition of English, and the Natural Order Hypothesis claims that the same natural order is found in second language acquisition. It is also believed that errors are signs of naturalistic developmental processes. Similar developmental errors occur in learners during acquisition (but not during learning) no matter what their native language is **The Input Hypothesis** The Input Hypothesis relates to acquisition, not to learning and states that people acquire language best by understanding input that is slightly beyond their level of competence. Krashen refers to this by the formula L +1 (where L+1 is the stage immediately following L along some natural order.) Comprehension is achieved through linguistic and extralinguistic context clues including knowledge about the world, the context of the situation etc… Comprehension precedes the emergence of speaking as fluency appears only as a result of the provision of sufficient comprehensible input. By comprehensible input, Krashen means the utterances that learners understand based on linguistic and extralinguistic context and which consists of a sort of simplified code. He contends that when there is such comprehensible input, language acquisition proceeds successfully. Krashen also claims that when there is enough of such comprehensible input, L+1will usually be provided automatically and **Affective Filter Hypothesis** There are three types of emotional attitudinal factors that may affect acquisition and that may impede, block or freely passes necessary input for acquisition. These are motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. Acquirers with a high affective filter are less likely to develop competence.
Objectives	The Natural Approach "is for beginners and is designed to help them become intermediates." It has the expectation that students will be able to function adequately in the target situation. They will understand the speaker of the target language (perhaps with requests for clarification), and will be able to convey (in a non-insulting. manner) their requests and ideas. They need not know every word in a particular semantic domain, nor is it necessary that the syntax and vocabulary be flawless, but their production does need to be understood. They should be able to make the meaning clear but not necessarily be accurate in all details of grammar. (Krashen and Terrell 1983, p. 71)
Syllabus	Terrell outlines four categories of classroom activities that can facilitate language *acquisition* (as opposed to language *learning*):

	• "Content (culture, subject matter, new information, reading, e.g. teacher tells interesting anecdote involving contrast between target and native culture.)"[12] • "Affective-humanistic (students' own ideas, opinions, experiences, e.g. students are asked to share personal preferences as to music, places to live, clothes, hair styles, etc.)"[12] • "Games [focus on using language to participate in the game, e.g. 20 questions: I, the teacher, am thinking of an object in this room. You, students, have twenty questions to guess the object. Typical questions: is it clothing? (yes) is it for a man or a woman? (woman) is it a skirt? (yes) is it brown? (yes) is it Ellen's skirt? (yes)]"[12] • "Problem solving (focus on using language to locate information, use information, etc., e.g. looking at this listing of films in the newspaper, and considering the different tastes and schedule needs in the group, which film would be appropriate for all of us to attend, and when?)"[12]
Activities and materials	Within a natural approach, emphasis is placed on comprehensible input, meaningful communication and a relaxed classroom atmosphere. "To minimize stress, learners are not required to say anything until they feel ready, but they are expected to respond to teacher commands and questions." (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 185) There is a gradual progression from "Yes/No" and simple display questions, to more complex and open questions. "There is nothing novel about the procedures and techniques advocated for use with the Natural Approach." (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 185); familiar activities like command-based activities, situation-based activities, and group-work activities focus on, "providing comprehensible input and a classroom environment that cues comprehension of input, minimizes learner anxiety, and maximizes learner self-confidence." (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 185) Materials used in a natural approach classroom aim at making activities and tasks as meaningful as possible -- they foster comprehension and communication. Authentic materials, like brochures or maps, as well as visual aids and games are used to facilitate acquisition and to promote comprehension and real communication.
Learner and teacher rolesedit	The learners' roles change and develop during a natural approach course because there are various stages they have to go through. The first stage is the **pre-production stage** where the learners are not forced to respond orally and are allowed to decide their own when to start to speak. The next stage, the **early-production stage,** fosters short answers and the student have to respond to simple questions and to use fixed conversational patterns. In the **speech-emergent stage** the use of complex utterances emerges, for example in role plays or games. Another important role of the language acquirer is that of "a processor of comprehensible input [who] is challenged by input that is **slightly beyond his or her current level of competence** and is able to assign meaning to this input through active use of context and extralinguistic information." (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 186) The natural approach classroom allocates a central role for teacher, giving them several important roles. • First, the teacher provides a constant flow of comprehensible input in the target language and provides non-linguistic clues. • Second, the teacher has to create a harmonious classroom atmosphere that fosters a low affective filter. Third, the teacher decides on the classroom activities and tasks regarding group sizes, content, contexts, and materials. • Finally, the teacher must, "communicate clearly and compellingly to students the assumptions, organizations, and expectations of the method." (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 188) Krashen and Terrell point out the importance of explaining to learners what they can expect and what not of the language course.
The Role of Instructional Materials	The primary goal of materials in the Natural Approach is to make classroom activities as meaningful as possible by supplying "the extra linguistic context that helps the acquirer to understand and thereby to acquire" (Krashen and Terrell 1983, p. 55), by relating classroom activities to the real world, and by fostering real communication among the learners. Materials come from the world of realia rather than from textbooks. The primary aim of materials is to promote comprehension and communication. Pictures and other visual aids are essential, because they supply the content for communication. They facilitate the acquisition of a large vocabulary within the classroom. Other recommended materials include schedules, brochures, advertisements, maps, and books at levels

	appropriate to the students, if a reading component is included in the course. Games, in general, are seen as useful classroom materials, since "games by their very nature, focus the students on what it is they are doing and use the language as a tool for reaching the goal rather than as a goal in itself" (Terrell 1982, p. 121). The selection, reproduction, and collection of materials places a considerable burden on the Natural Approach teacher. Since Krashen and Terrell suggest a syllabus of topics and situations, it is likely that at some point collections of materials to supplement teacher presentations will be published, built around the "syllabus" of topics and situations recommended by the Natural Approach.
Procedure in the Natural Approach	The Natural Approach adopts techniques and activities freely from various method sources and can be regarded as innovative only with respect to the purposes for which they are recommended and the ways they are used. Krashen and Terrell (1983) provide suggestions for the use of a wide range of activities, all of which are familiar components of Situational Language Teaching, Communicative Language Teaching, and other methods. To illustrate procedural aspects of the Natural Approach, we will cite examples of how such activities are to be used in the Natural Approach classroom to provide comprehensible input, without requiring production of responses or minimal responses in the target language. 1. Start with TPR [Total Physical Response] commands. At first, the commands are quite simple: "Stand up. Turn around. Raise your right hand." 2. Use TPR to teach names of body parts and to introduce numbers and sequence. "Lay your right hand on your head, put both hands on your shoulder, first touch your nose, then stand up and turn to the right three times" and so forth. 3. Introduce classroom terms and props into commands. "Pick up a pencil and put it under the book, touch a wall, go to the door and knock three times." Any item which can be brought to the class can be incorporated. "Pick up the record and place it in the tray. Take the green blanket to Larry. Pick up the soap and take it to the woman wearing the green blouse." 4. Use names of physical characteristics and clothing to identify members of the class by name. The instructor uses context and the items themselves to make the meanings of the key words clear: hair, long, short, etc. Then a student is described. "What is your name?" (Selecting a student). "Class. Look at Barbara. She has long brown hair. Her hair is long and brown. Her hair is not short. It is long." (Using mime, pointing and context to ensure comprehension.) "What's the name of the student with long brown hair?" (Barbara). Questions such as "What is the name of the woman with the short blond hair?" or "What is the name of the student sitting next to the man with short brown hair and glasses?" are very simple to understand by attending to key words, gestures and context. And they require the students only to remember and produce the name of a fellow student. The same can be done with articles of clothing and colors. "Who is wearing a yellow shirt? Who is wearing a brown dress?" 5. Use visuals, typically magazine pictures, to introduce new vocabulary and to continue with activities requiring only student names as response. The instructor introduces the pictures to the entire class one at a time focusing usually on one single item or activity in the picture. He may introduce one to five new words while talking about the picture. He then passes the picture to a particular student in the class. The students' task is to remember the name of the student with a particular picture. For example, "Tom has the picture of the sailboat. Joan has the picture of the family watching television" and so forth. The instructor will ask questions like "Who has the picture with the sailboat? Does Susan or Tom have the picture of the people on the beach?" Again the students need only produce a name in response. 6. Combine use of pictures with TPR. "Jim, find the picture of the little girl with her

	dog and give it to the woman with the pink blouse." 7. Combine observations about the pictures with commands and conditionals. "If there is a woman in your picture, stand up. If there is something blue in your picture, touch your right shoulder." 8. Using several pictures, ask students to point to the picture being described. Picture1. "There are several people in this picture. One appears to be a father, the other a daughter. What are they doing? Cooking. They are cooking a hamburger." Picture 2. "There are two men in this picture. They are young. They are boxing." Picture 3. (Krashen and Terrell 19S3: 75-77) In all these activities, the instructor maintains a constant flow of "comprehensible input," using key vocabulary items, appropriate gestures, context, repetition, and paraphrase to ensure the comprehensibility of the input.

14- COOPERATIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING

Definition of Cooperative Learning	**Cooperative learning** is a teaching method where students of mixed levels of ability are arranged into groups and rewarded according to the group's success, rather than the success of an individual member. Cooperative learning structures have been in and out of favor in American education since the early 1900s, when they were introduced by the American education reformer John Dewey. Cooperative learning is sometimes thought of simply as 'group work,' but groups of students working together might not be working collaboratively.
Elements of Cooperative Learning	Cooperative learning researchers David and Roger Johnson have identified five elements that define cooperative learning: **Face-to-Face Interaction** Students are promoting each others' learning through face-to-face activities where they discuss and explain assignment topics with each other. **Positive Interdependence** Students have the sense that they're 'in this together,' feeling that each member's individual effort will not only help him, but the whole group. The grade of each student is dependent upon the effort of other group members. **Individual Accountability** Each student is accountable for their own contribution to the group. Clearly described goals ensure that each student knows what she is responsible for and what the group is responsible for. **Group Processing** Students are given a means for analyzing their group for how well the group has learned and whether or not collaborative skills are being used. **Collaborative Skills** Students learn not only the subject matter, but interpersonal skills and how to work in teams. Students are taught skills of communication, leadership, and conflict management during the early stages of cooperative learning sessions.
Theory of Language	Cooperative Language Learning is founded on some basic premises about the interactive/cooperative nature of language and language learning and builds on these premises in several ways. • Premise 1 mirror the title of a book on child language titled Born to Talk (Weeks 1979). The author holds (along with many others) that "all normal children growing up in a normal environment learn to talk. We are born to talk ...we may think of ourselves as having been programmed to talk communication is generally considered to be the primary purpose of language" (Weeks 1979, p. 1). • Premise 2 is that most talk/speech is organized as conversation. "Human beings spend a large part of their lives engaging in conversation and for most of them conversation is among their most significant and engrossing activities" (Richards and Schmidt 1983, p. 117). • Premise 3 is that conversation operates according to a certain agreed upon set of cooperative rules or "maxims" (Grice 1975). • Premise 4 is that one learns how these cooperative maxims are realized in one's native language through casual, everyday conversational interaction. • Premise 5 is that one learns how the maxims are realized in a second language through participation in cooperatively structured interactional activities. This involves using a progressive format or sequencing of strategies in the conversation class which carefully prepares students, systematically breaks down stereotypes of classroom procedure and allows them to begin interacting democratically and independently. Through this approach, students learn step-by-step, functional interaction techniques at the same time the group spirit or trust is being built (Christison and Bassano 1981, p. xvi).
Theory of learning	As already stated, the theories of Vygotski and Piaget can be seen as setting the base of cooperative language learning. As shown in the premise, social interaction is maintained to be necessary for language

	learning and thus corresponds perfectly with the principles of cooperative language learning. In working cooperatively, students share the idea of working together and achieving a common goal. Every member of the group has different ideas and skills and in sharing them with the others, the group can take a maximal profit out of it all. Furthermore, different skills mean that every member of the group has the chance to participate and so every group member is important for the success of the group work. The emphasis of this approach is on cooperative work rather than on competitive work. Cooperative language learning also encourages students in their critical thinking, because in cooperative environments, different approaches to certain topics occur and the students have to think and consider the whys and hows. Therefore they have to analyse possible solutions, which is another reason why heterogeneous groups are an advantage rather than a disadvantage in cooperative language learning environments.
Benefits of CLL	From the perspective of second language teaching, McGroarty (1989) offers six learning advantages for ESL students in CLL classrooms: • increased frequency and variety of second language practice through different types of interaction • possibility for development or use of language in ways that support cognitive development and increased language skills • opportunities to integrate language with content-based instruction • opportunities to include a greater variety of curricular materials to stimulate language as well as concept learning • freedom for teachers to master new professional skills, particularly those emphasizing communication • opportunities for students to act as resources for each other, thus assuming a more active role in their learning
Objectives, Syllabus and Learning Activities in Cooperative Language Learning	Since CLL is an approach designed to foster cooperation rather than competition, to develop critical thinking skills, and to develop communicative competence through socially structured interaction activities, these can be regarded as the overall objectives of CLL. More specific objectives will derive from the context in which it is used. **The Syllabus** CLL does not assume any particular form of language syllabus, since activities from a wide variety of curriculum orientations can be taught via cooperative learning. Thus we find CLL use in teaching content classes, ESP, the four skills, grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. What defines CLL is the systematic and carefully planned use of group- based procedures in teaching as an alternative to teacher-fronted teaching. **Types of Learning and Teaching Activities** Types of learning and teaching activities, Johnson et al., (1994, pp. 4-5) describe three types of cooperative learning groups. **Formal Cooperative Learning Groups**: These last from one class period to several weeks. These are established for a specific task and involve students working together to achieve shared learning goals. **Informal Cooperative Learning Groups:** These are ad-hoc groups that last from a few minutes to a class period and are used to focus student attention or to facilitate learning during direct teaching. **Cooperative Base Groups:** These are long term, lasting for at least a year and consist of heterogeneous learning groups with stable membership whose primary purpose is to allow members to give each other the support, help, encouragement, and assistance they need to succeed academically. The success of CL is crucially dependent on the nature and organization of group work. This requires a structured program of learning carefully designed, so that learners

	interact with each other and are motivated to increase each other's learning. Olsen and Kagan (1992) propose the following key elements of successful group-based learning in CL: • Positive interdependence • Group formation • Individual accountability • Social skills • Structuring and structures
Role of Teachers	The teacher's task is to provide the material, to set the classroom settings, to set goals for the students, to structure the classroom and the activities and to help and monitor students in the work phase. However, the bulk of the work has to be done before class starts and so it can be said that in cooperative language learning classrooms are much less teacher-centred than some other methods
Role of Learners	The learner's role is primarily to work collaboratively with each other and develop and practice social skills. It is important to accept new ideas from other students, because the students have to share ideas (not compete to see who has the best), accept criticism and they have to learn to make use of the foreign language also when the teacher is not around.
Role of Materials	Materials play an important part in creating opportunities for students to work cooperatively. The same materials can be used as are used in other types of lessons but variations are required in how the materials are used For example, if students are working in groups, each might have one set of materials (or groups might have different sets of materials), or each group member might need a copy of a text to read and refer to. Materials may be specially designed for CLL learning (such as commercially sold jigsaw and information-gap activities), modified from existing materials, or borrowed from other disciplines. Johnson et al. (1994, pp. 67-68) give the following example of how a collaborative learning lesson would be carried out when students are required to write an essay, report, poem, or story, or review something that they have read. A cooperative writing and editing pair arrangement is used. Pairs verify that each member's composition matches the criteria that have been established by the teacher; they then receive an individual score on the quality of their compositions. They can also be given a group score based on the total number of errors made by the pair in their individual compositions.
Procedure in Cooperative Language Learning	The procedure works in the following way: 1. The teacher assigns students to pairs with at least one good reader in each pair. 2. Student A describes what he or she is planning to write to Student B, who listens carefully, probes with a set of questions, and outlines Student A's ideas. Student B gives the written outline to Student A. 3. This procedure is reversed, with Student B describing what he or she is going to write and Student A listening and completing an outline of Student B's ideas, which is then given to Student B. 4. The students individually research the material they need for their compositions, keeping an eye out for material useful to their partner. 5. The students work together to write the first paragraph of each composition to ensure that they both have a clear start on their compositions. 6. The students write their compositions individually. 7. When the students have completed their compositions, they proofread each other's compositions, making corrections in capitalization, punctuation, spelling, language usage, and other aspects of writing the teacher specifies. Students also give each other suggestions for revision. 8. The students revise their compositions. 9. The students then reread each other's compositions and sign their names to indicate that each composition is error-free. During this process, the teacher monitors the pairs, intervening when appropriate to help students master the needed writing and cooperative skills.