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**SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ**

**A SUGGESTION TOWARD AN ECLECTIC APPROACH FOR  
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN TURKISH PUBLIC  
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS**

(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)

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## ABSTRACT

This study is primarily about an evaluation of the teaching of English as a foreign language in Turkish public junior high schools.

In the study, the currently applied method, the Audio-Lingual Method, with its materials available in Turkish public junior high schools is reviewed, and a new methodological suggestion, the Eclectic Approach, is presented for language teachers in public junior high schools in the country. The study is a theoretical one throughout and also includes a review of six language teaching methods, namely, The Grammar-Translation Method, The Direct Method, The Audio-Lingual Method, The Cognitive-Code Approach, The Communicative (Functional/Notional) Approach, and The Humanistic/Affective Approach in order to select good points from some of them and to use them in an eclectic manner in the classroom.

The study begins with the chapter Introduction in which the Audio-Lingual Method which is used for Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in public junior high schools is reviewed with respect to its textbook and application in the classroom. Then comes the evaluation of the method.

The second chapter of the study is Review of Literature on the subject of the thesis. In this chapter, the definition of approach, method, and technique is presented, and it is followed by the review of the methods and approaches mentioned above.

The third chapter is concerned with the evaluation of the sample text-books, aiming at how the textbooks teach the language with respect to the requirements of the methods and approaches on which they are based.

The fourth chapter is about Suggestion in which language teachers are presented an Eclectic Approach by which English Language Teaching (ELT) may be carried out effectively in public junior high schools. The aim of the chapter is to make a suggestion to them to teach the language in an eclectic manner.

The last chapter is a conclusion in which all that has been said in the study is summed up and ended with a suggestion about what precautions should be taken to improve ELT in secondary schools.

The thesis ends with Appendixes. The aim of them is to give an idea and to make any confusion that might appear in minds clear about the teaching materials reviewed, criticized, and suggested in the study.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1. BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

Today education in another language in addition to the mother tongue has become more essential for a person in order to meet the requirements of the modern age.

Thanks to many improvements in science and technology, the mass media have become widespread throughout many countries in the world, and the widely used mass media in several continents have helped people of different countries to come closer through time, for nations have become more interested in the cultures of other nations in the world. Moreover, the use of modern vehicles developed for transportation has made the journey between two countries and continents shorter

than before. Accordingly, tourism has gained more importance for many countries. In time, cultural and commercial relations between and among countries have become stronger and more intensive than in the past. Therefore, the necessity to learn another language has increased significantly through the years, and this has caused some changes for a better language teaching such as reorganization of language schools, the use of new teaching aids, different textbooks and other materials prepared for specific purposes, new methods invented and based on dissimilar and various theoretical points of views of scholars, and so on. In fact, language teaching has been subject to many changes during its long history(Kelly, 1969).

The underlying reason of all such changes is the purpose for a more effective language teaching. Based on that purpose, many methods have been developed with new insights. However, none of them has been accepted as perfect. But it should be noted that a method, even a perfect one, does not mean the sole and definite solution to all the problems about the success of the class. Because there are many factors such as students' age, the physical condition of the classroom, students' cultural background, time allocated to language teaching regulations, the attitude of the student toward the target society, and so on.



They are significantly influential on the success of the students. Neither should it be thought that a language lesson can be taught without using a method.

#### 1.1.1. THE AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD USED FOR TEFL IN TURKISH PUBLIC JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

In Turkey foreign language lessons were given by traditional methods in public junior high schools till the beginning of 1970s. At the beginning of that year, a new method was chosen by the Ministry of Education for foreign language teaching, and objectives, teaching materials, teacher training programs were modified under the supervision of the Ministry.

In 1973, the language teachers in secondary schools began to teach the lesson with the textbook An English Course for Turks. So, the audio-lingual method took the place of traditional methods(Ceyhan, 1979).

The method is applied in secondary schools with the teaching materials prepared by the Ministry.

#### 1.1.2. THE TEXTBOOK AN ENGLISH COURSE FOR TURKS(ELEMENTARY I, II, AND INTERMEDIATE I)

An English Course for Turks was prepared by members of a committee under the auspices of the Ministry

of Education through the decree of the Ministry dated April 13<sup>th</sup>, 1971(No: 159). Then, it was put into use as a textbook for the ELT students in 1973(Ceyhan, 1979).

The aim of the books is to enable the students to be better in listening comprehension and speaking skill through the use of other materials such as wallcharts, pictures, workbooks, and figures, for there is an order of importance of the four skills: listening comes first, then, speaking, reading, and writing, as one of the requirements of the method.

The books are levelled as Elementary I, Elementary II, and Intermediate I with the manuals for teachers and the workbooks for students. Elementary I is for the students of the first grades; Elementary II is used as the textbook for those of the second grades; Intermediate I is the textbook used by the students of the third grades in junior high schools.

The order in the teacher's manual begins with the pronunciation part(Appendix A ). The second part is the structure part which introduces the structure of that day. The third part is the vocabulary part in which unknown English words are presented with their phonetic transcriptions. Next is the pronunciation part with some basic information given briefly about how to produce that sound and how to deal with problem

sounds in English. It is followed by the structure part again. But, this time it includes some teaching techniques and examples about the new structure or one of the basic tenses of English. They are given in a mechanical manner. As they are done orally, accuracy gains more importance both in this part and in all the other parts. Dialogs are often used in the classroom when a new structure is introduced in the lesson. Examples in this part are not done in meaningful contexts. Nor do they carry any communicative purpose. The structure part is followed by the reading part which is given with some questions for reading comprehension. The final part covers Learning Drills. This part is studied orally, and some of the drills are assigned as homework. The teacher's manual also contains information about how to use such teaching aids as charts, tapes, filmstrips, and flannelboard figures.

The material in the textbook is studied step-by-step. The first part in the book is the structure part which is taught orally with dialogs(Appendix B). The second one is the reading part which contains those structural items introduced in the oral part of the lesson for the practice of them. This part is followed by learning drills. They are done to practice the patterns in the given structures. The purpose is to make the students build those patterns on a

firm basis. They are highly mechanical. The types of them are fill-in-the-blanks, substitution drills, transformation drills, matching drills, inclusion type of drills, and completion type. Then comes songs, rhymes, and dictation part as the final one. They are for the practice of rhythm, fluency, and correct writing of the newly taught words. According to the instructions in the manuals, the teacher is required to tell his students the general meaning of the song or rhyme without teaching new items in it. There are also some English games in the books in order to make the learning more enjoyable. It is believed that the students' ability of self-expression in the target language may be developed through playing those games in the given language. The books end with small pictures of the charts used for the related lessons in order to exploit the given linguistic items.

### 1.1.3. APPLICATION OF THE METHOD

After greeting the class, the teacher begins the lesson with the vocabulary part. The students are sometimes given an explanation and examples to pronounce the new words correctly.

The structure part is taught with stress on grammar through the use of dialogues and pictures

in the book. The teacher may bring wallcharts, flashcards to the classroom and make use of them by asking the students to answer his questions about the things or people in the wallcharts with the newly taught patterns and structures.

When it is finished, the teacher moves on to the reading passage. The reading passage in the book includes newly learnt words and structures. As required in the manual, the teacher reads it aloud once while the students follow him silently. Then, each paragraph of the passage is read aloud by different students.

Next is the reading comprehension questions about the passage. The students are asked so many questions that almost every sentence in the passage is repeated one more time to give the answers to them.

The last step in the application of the method is the repetition of patterns and learning drills. With the question-and-answer drills, the students are wanted to practice the language in order to learn the grammar well. The teacher does the first one orally as an example. Then, the rest is done by the students orally. If one of them makes a mistake, the teacher asks another student to do the same exercise until the right answer is given. Some of the exercises are assigned as homework at the end of the lesson.

#### 1.1.4. EVALUATION OF THE METHOD USED FOR TEFL IN TURKISH PUBLIC JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Since the target language taught by the method has been studied with much emphasis on grammar rather than on the communicative function of language, and there is an order of importance of the four skills \_\_\_\_\_ listening, speaking, reading, and writing \_\_\_\_\_ as one of the requirements of the method, it is believed that presenting the language by giving more importance to accuracy with such an order of importance may not create an effective learning.

The method is teacher-centered and teaches the target language with many mechanical exercises. Besides, it places much emphasis on speaking and accuracy as a requirement. It is a hard requirement to meet, for the classes are too crowded (the average is 40 or 45). In 40 minutes' time, the students have very little opportunity to talk in the target language.

Listening and speaking are more emphasized than reading and writing. Therefore, reading is seen as a passive skill in the method. In fact, reading and writing may facilitate learning as well.

As the students deal with the pronunciation of the new words, they make choral repetition. When

they repeat the words chorally, they can not realize whether they are pronouncing them correctly, for the noise in a crowded class is a disadvantage for the student to understand whether he has produced the linguistic item phonetically correctly.

While teaching the new structure, the teacher leads the students to memorize patterns by asking them to repeat the given examples including the new structure without providing much comprehensible input. Many given examples are not contextual, since focus is mostly on grammar.

Due to the fact that the teacher spends too much time on the reading passages in the textbook, there is less time left to deal with other activities. For an effective reading, the students should be able to interpret meaning in context and should discuss and criticize the given text. Yet, many ELT teachers teach a reading passage in the textbook just to get the students to understand it with emphasis on grammar. The other point is that it is hardly possible to say that the subjects of the reading passages in the textbook draw students' attention a great deal. The culture of the target society is reflected in them to a limited extent. Yet, the students may have many questions about the culture of the society whose language they are learning, and some written, visual, audio-visual,

authentic materials of different subjects may motivate students' learning, and they may participate in the activities more eagerly. Many times, questions about the passage are asked by the teacher, not by the students.

Learning drills are done with little emphasis on the communicative function of language, and many of them are mechanical. The students are required to use the newly taught words and structural items in the examples. Therefore, they practice the language with a heavy use of grammar and get bored with them.

If one of the students makes an error in her/his utterance, s/he is to be corrected either by the teacher or another student. This may cause the student to hesitate to speak in the target language, for s/he may be ashamed of making errors in the classroom. It is thought by Krashen(1982) that it may be more beneficial to ignore errors until they cause a semantic confusion.

Most of the time, homeworks do not stimulate students' power of creativity and imagination, for the mechanical exercises in the textbook are assigned as homework.

Many teachers in Turkish public junior high schools are totally dependent on the instructions in the manuals. It is believed that teaching the language



just by one single method with a total dependence on the guidance and instructions in the manuals may not be of great help to the teacher for a more effective teaching, for it may be more profitable for the teacher to choose and apply the most suitable techniques and methods in consideration of his students' varying needs. It is also expressed by Girard(1986) that:

"He (teacher) is not bound by any one theory, in contrast with his linguistic colleague, who is usually obliged to belong to one particular school. He can and should \_\_\_\_\_ be perfectly free to choose, and to build up his work with the aid of any notion that may serve his ends.

... Rather than fish in one linguistic stream, we should cast our pedagogical net in all waters that might bring us in a profitable catch."

Girard, 1986: p.11.

Hence, the teacher should be provided with a degree of flexibility and adaptability that will allow him to carry out teaching with more suitable teaching ways in order to be able to meet his students' varying needs more efficiently.

It should be also noted that there are some factors which should be taken into account before the selection and application of any language teaching method. Those factors are also significantly influential

on the success of the students. Therefore, the teacher is to be aware of them as he teaches his lesson to the class. Students' cultural background, their attitude toward the target society and its culture, the time allocated to language teaching, the number of the students in a classroom, regulations are just some of them, and they may not necessarily be the same or similar in every country; in other words, they may be variable.

The other point is that it is hardly possible to say that teachers in public junior high schools are regularly provided with in-service training programs and written educational materials on language teaching with an adequate number to lead them to follow new changes, movements, techniques and to help them to be informed about the results of new studies in the field after they are graduated from teacher training colleges.

The teacher teaches the parts in the textbook without dealing with them sufficiently. Because the time allocated to language teaching is very insufficient (three hours a week; the duration of one lesson is 40 minutes). Students can not do much practice, and they are exposed to many rules in the given time.

The number of students in a language class is too much, and the distribution of language teachers to junior high schools is not balanced, as it should be. To give an idea about that, the two tables which show the number of Turkish public junior high schools, students, and teachers in Eskişehir in 1986 and 1987 are presented on page 14 and 15 (cf. Eskişehir Milli Eğitim Gençlik ve Spor Müdürlüğü Araştırma-Planlama İstatistik Hizmetleri Şubesi Merkez-İlçe Eğitim İstatistikleri Defteri):

Foreign language lessons are not elective for all the students. Those who do not want to learn a foreign language come to the class unwillingly and reluctantly.

Even though the factors mentioned above are influential on an effective learning to a great extent, it may be still possible to teach the language effectively by trying new ways without disregarding students' opinions, feelings, and beliefs. Learning the language in a humanistic atmosphere may be what the students need most.

Table 1

The Number of Turkish Public Junior High Schools,  
Students, and Teachers in Eskişehir in 1986

NAME OF THE SCHOOLS	Number of Students	Number of Teachers
1. Atatürk Ortaokulu	1496	5
2. Çamlıca Ortaokulu	444	1
3. Emek Ortaokulu	701	2
4. Mehmet Akif Ersoy Ortaokulu	1220	6
5. Mehmetçik Ortaokulu	877	3
6. 19 Mayıs Ortaokulu	1742	4
7. Osmangazi Ortaokulu	1505	6
8. Sami Sipahi Ortaokulu	489	2
9. Tepebaşı Ortaokulu	1377	6
10. Tunalı Ortaokulu	602	5
11. Yeşiltepe (Sinan Alağaç) Ortaokulu	500	4
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	10953	44
12. Cumhuriyet Lisesi Orta Kısmı	1805	13
13. Mustafa Kemal Lisesi Orta Kısmı	856	5
14. Süleyman Çakır Lisesi Orta Kısmı	1820	11
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	4481	29
15. Battal Gazi İlköğretim Okulu	1030	4
16. Mimar Sinan İlköğretim Okulu	755	3
17. Mustafa Kemal İlköğretim Okulu	118	1
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	1903	8
Toplam:	17337	81

Table 2

The Number of Turkish Public Junior High Schools,  
Students, and Teachers in Eskişehir in 1987

NAME OF THE SCHOOLS	Number of Students	Number of Teachers
1. Atatürk Ortaokulu	1620	4
2. Çamlıca Ortaokulu	528	1
3. Emek Ortaokulu	847	2
4. Mehmet Akif Ersoy Ortaokulu	1235	3
5. Mehmetçik Ortaokulu	986	4
6. 19 Mayıs Ortaokulu	1936	6
7. Osmangazi Ortaokulu	1570	6
8. Sami Sipahi Ortaokulu	677	2
9. Tepebaşı Ortaokulu	1358	7
10. Tunalı Ortaokulu	648	5
11. Yeşiltepe (Sinan Alağaç) Ortaokulu	<u>484</u>	<u>3</u>
	11925	43
12. Cumhuriyet Lisesi Orta Kısmı	1930	14
13. Mustafa Kemal Lisesi Orta Kısmı	1042	5
14. Süleyman Çakır Lisesi Orta Kısmı	<u>1884</u>	<u>12</u>
	4856	31
15. Battal Gazi İlköğretim Okulu	1173	3
16. Mimar Sinan İlköğretim Okulu	799	3
17. Mustafa Kemal İlköğretim Okulu	<u>147</u>	<u>2</u>
	2119	8
Toplam:	18900	82

## 1.2. PROBLEM

It is assumed that the students taught by the Audio-lingual Method in Turkish public junior high schools are taught the foreign language, English, in an inefficient way in reference to the objectives of the lesson stated by the Ministry(cf. MEB, Tebliğler Dergisi, June 4, 1973, No: 1747).

According to the objectives of the lesson stated by the Ministry, the students graduated from Turkish public junior high schools would:

a. be able to understand what they hear in the target language,

b. be able to express themselves fluently in speaking,

c. be able to improve their reading comprehension,

d. be able to express themselves freely in writing,

e. have a sufficient background to improve their knowledge in that language on their own in order to be more efficient in tourism and international affairs.

It is hardly possible to say that the students taught by the Audio-lingual Method have accomplished the objectives of the lesson as desired after graduation.

Therefore, it is believed that the target language may be taught effectively by a new method. However, it should be noted that a method is not the sole solution to the problem of success in language learning. Because there are many factors such as students' age, over-crowded classes, the time allocated to language teaching, students' cultural background, and so on, which all have a significant influence on the success of the class. But, it is thought that the teacher under such conditions as in Turkey may still teach the target language effectively to the class by applying a new method in the classroom.

Therefore, this study will be an attempt to find an answer to the question: Is it possible to present the foreign language, English, in Turkish public junior high schools by applying an Eclectic Approach which includes some good points of different approaches and methods for an effective teaching?

### 1.3. HYPOTHESIS

In this study, it is put forward that despite the unfavorable factors mentioned in 1.1.4., the

teacher may still teach the target language effectively to his students by applying a new method, an Eclectic Approach.

#### 1.4. AIM AND SCOPE

The aim of the study is to present a suggestion for an effective language teaching to language teachers in Turkish public junior high schools.

#### 1.5. METHOD

The study is totally a theoretical one and includes a methodological suggestion, Eclectic Approach, which is made up of different techniques of some of the methods and approaches used for language teaching, namely, The Grammar-Translation Method, The Direct Method, The Audio-Lingual Method, The Cognitive-Code Approach, The Communicative (Functional/Notional) Approach, and The Affective/Humanistic Approach.

The suggested approach has been put forward after making a review of literature on the methods and approaches and evaluating their sample textbooks to reflect how each of them teaches language.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### 2.1. APPROACH, METHOD, AND TECHNIQUE

The terms 'approach, method, and technique' have confused teachers' minds considerably.

An approach is defined by Anthony(1972) as 'a set of correlative assumptions' which reflect the nature of language and the nature of language teaching and learning. It is said by himself that an approach which is seen by himself as axiomatic attempts to clarify the subject matter to be taught, and that it covers a philosophy with a point of view, an article of faith, and that it is often unarguable except that the effectiveness of the methods which are based on it are subject to an argument.

Another definition of the term 'approach' is given by Brown(1980) that an approach can be viewed as 'a general and theoretical view' of how language should be taught, while a method covers 'a developed procedure' for teaching.

The term 'method' is defined by Anthony(1972) as 'an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material', which is totally based on the selected approach without having any contradiction to it, and it is seen as procedural.

The other definition of 'method' is given by Brumfit and Roberts(1983) that a method is made up of 'a set of teaching techniques' which are based on a certain type of syllabus to be taught through the use of certain types of materials. It is expressed in other words by themselves that a method may be viewed as 'the sum of teaching techniques' to be used in a certain situation.

A technique is seen by Anthony(1972) as 'a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance' which is put into use in the classroom to attain a certain objective and should not be contradictory to a method, and therefore to an approach as well.

The figure presented in the study by Hubbard et al.(1983) clarifies the matter to a large extent:

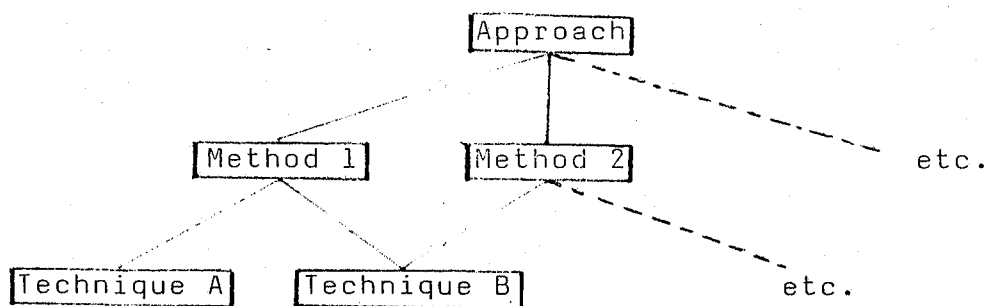


Figure 1: The Hierarchical Order of Approach, Method, and Technique.

In the light of the definitions given above, it can be concluded that an approach covers aims by reflecting the principles of language teaching which are consistent with a theoretical base, and that a method is a systematic procedure, process or plan to attain objectives within a complete agreement of the selected approach. Many methods may be found in one single approach. A method makes use of different techniques within itself. Techniques are used to accomplish certain objectives of the lesson, as the teacher follows the requirements of the method.

## 2.2. THE METHODS AND APPROACHES USED IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

A method in language teaching is based on its certain theoretical foundation, and almost every foundation is made up of at least two disciplines

such as linguistics and psychology. Therefore, language teaching can not be thought of as purely linguistics or psychology (Brown, 1980).

When we observe some of the language teaching methods in a chronological order, we see that each new method carries some positive aspects or points of the old ones in itself. We also realize that each new one is a reaction to the preceding one. The underlying reasons why we are likely to meet a new method may be new movements in language theories and new psychological findings in language learning, or teachers' own experiences which have been gained in actual language teaching setting, or new needs depending on constant and rapid changes in economic, political, social or educational fields (Stern, 1983).

As a common point, each method can be said to have a different view of language, and it is reflected with certain beliefs based on some assumptions about language learning and the learner/teacher in the process of it.

In this study, six language teaching methods will be reviewed with regard to history, theoretical bases and purposes, application in the classroom, and opinions for and against it.

## 2.2.1. THE GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION METHOD

### 2.2.1.1. History

The Grammar-Translation Method is also called the Classical Method, for it was firstly applied in the teaching of Latin and Greek. It became a commonly favorite method in the late eighteenth century. Around 1840 Ollendorf's sequential arrangement of the teaching procedure, in which presentation of the rule was first, then, a vocabulary list, and finally translation exercises, was accepted as the basic order of presentation of the lesson. At the end of the term, students would try to translate some prose passages. When it was the final decades of the nineteenth century, the method was subject to many objections (Stern, 1983).

However, the method, Stern says, has never been totally abandoned at all; today there are still some universities in some countries where less popular languages are taught through the translation of texts from the foreign language into the mother tongue, and vice versa.

### 2.2.1.2. Theoretical bases and purposes

The target language is studied both to work out its grammatical rules, that are practiced by

going through texts and translation of sentences, and to relate those rules to native language rules and meanings as a primary requirement of this method. In this respect, the native language is considered as referential for language learning. Rule learning, memorization of the rules, and translation practice all require an intellectual activity. In other words, the method requires the learner to develop his mind by logical analysis of the language, and it is followed by memorization of rules and verb paradigms. Finally, these are applied in translation practice. So an intellectual activity is highly required by the method itself as it views language learning on this base (Stern, 1983).

The purpose is to help students read and explore foreign language literature, and to make them aware of the difference between their mother tongue and the target language through translation (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

#### 2.2.1.3. Application of the Method in the classroom

This is just an example of the type of lesson that the method follows.

After warming up the class, the teacher wants the students to read a couple of sentences from one passage in the textbook containing literary language.

When the reading is finished, the students are told by the teacher to translate the sentences they have read in the foreign language into their native language. While doing that, they can get some help from the teacher for new vocabulary items.

In the following activity, they deal with the questions for the reading comprehension. The first question is done loudly as an example. The rest is done silently, since reading and writing are more important skills to be developed. Then, each student reads one question out and gives the answer. If it is correct, the other question is done by another student. If not, the teacher points to one student at random and wants him to do it, or the teacher himself tells the right answer.

The next task is the vocabulary part. The students are required to give the native tongue equivalents of the words in the foreign language. If the students can not tell the equivalents, the teacher helps them. In the second part, they are asked to find the antonyms for each word in the foreign language. This is followed by the fill-in-the-blank exercises for the practice of phrasal verbs in the foreign language. The first two ones are done with the help of the teacher. When all the exercises are completed, the answers are read aloud.

At the end of the lesson, the teacher asks them to memorize the translation of foreign words and idioms and to write sentences with those words in the target language as a homework.

In all the activities, the teacher's role is quite traditional. The only authority in the classroom is the teacher. The students do what he says and asks them to do. The interaction is mostly from the teacher to his students. The feelings of the Students are not considered at all(Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

In the evaluation part, the students are tested for whether they can translate the given texts in the target language to their native language and the selected exercises from the mother tongue to the language they are learning. Also, they should be able to state the rule when they are asked in order to be regarded as successful(Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Rivers, 1968).

So, the method can be summed up by saying that teaching is prescriptive, and that the target language is used less in the classroom. Besides, grammar rules are taught deductively with long explanations and example sentences, and the students are to memorize much vocabulary in the target language with the corresponding meanings in the native language together, and they



are exposed to the lists of isolated words as they learn the vocabulary of that language. Selection of the reading passages is based on the purpose of doing practice on these subsystems with less emphasis on the content of them. Translation has a special importance in this method, and disconnected sentences are translated in both directions (Chastain, 1976; Kelly, 1969; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Kocaman, 1978; Bell, 1981).

#### 2.2.1.4. Opinions for and against the Method

It is expressed by Rivers (1968) that the method seems to be the right one for those students who are highly intellectual and interested in abstract reasoning, since it obviously requires a great deal of mental activity. It is also stated by herself that the burden on the shoulders of the teacher is not too much; the method does not require many techniques, preparations from the teacher, and testing of the class and assigning grades are easy, and the teacher does not need to be very imaginative as s/he plans lessons, for s/he may teach lessons by going through every page of the textbook without thinking of, for example, which real-life situations he should create in the classroom.

It is believed by Brumfit and Roberts(1983) that the students taught by the method may have a good reading knowledge of that language.

It is said by Stern (1983) that grammar analysis and translation get the learner involved in an active problem-solving situation.

In her criticism, Rivers(1968) states that students who are less intellectual are likely to be unsuccessful, and they can make mistakes many times. Thus, cumulative habits of inaccuracy develop gradually by increments in those students, and such habits become strongly established in such students when it is a more advanced stage. Rivers also says that accurate pronunciation, intonation, communication skills are disregarded with little emphasis on the communicative function of language, for the work is generally about vocabulary learning and translation of the literary texts with much emphasis on reading, and the students are exposed to artificial forms of language with its detailed and sometimes esoteric vocabulary, some of which are not the ones they need to use in their life. Mackey(1965) gives a very good example on this fact by saying that:

"A person may have a most extensive vocabulary in the literary language and still not have

enough to order a meal. The well-known French writer, André Gide, for example, who had such a wide knowledge of the English literary vocabulary, as shown by his excellent translations of Shakespeare and Conrad, was quite unable, according to his friend Julian Green, to ask a London bus driver where to get off." Mackey, 1965: p.161.

It is stated by Brumfit and Roberts(1983) that translation needs a special skill, and that what the method claims that the best way of having a high performance in the target language is through translation is not true.

Another opinion against the method is expressed by Krashen(1982) and Stern(1983) that the method has an excessive emphasis on the rules and exceptions of that language, and the practice techniques are limited. Thus, the students are forced to focus their attention on form rather than the message conveyed in the text. Krashen states that topics of the texts can not be said to be interesting for students. So, language learning, he believes, is very boring for them, and they they are likely to fail in the exams.

It is put forward by Girard(1972) that we can not learn the culture of that target language community just by reading its literature, since literature does not cover culture as a whole. The field of culture,

he believes, is very widespread and also includes the attitudes and behaviors of the members of that target language community. He points out one important fact that language teachers using the Grammar-Translation Method have considerably neglected varieties of language such as dialects, registers, idiolects, and styles.

As a conclusion, it can be said that the students taught by this method may learn many rules and vocabulary of the target language and practice them through translation but not be able to use them communicatively in real-life situations, as in the case of André Gide given as an example by Mackey.

## 2.2.2. THE DIRECT METHOD

### 2.2.2.1. History

Until 1900 language teaching in schools had been carried out for scholarly or religious purposes with little attention, and students were taught classical languages rather than modern foreign languages with little emphasis on communicative purpose (Brown, 1980). The fundamental change from grammar-translation started in 1850 (Stern, 1983). There was a need for a better language teaching. After the turn of the century,

the purpose in language teaching shifted to speaking. This caused language lessons to be studied mainly orally in the target language without translation and use of the mother tongue. The principle was that teaching should be as "natural" as possible in language classes without grammar and deductive thinking for a more communicative practice. Active classroom methods became fashionable. The movement was also accelerated by the findings in linguistics, philology, and phonetics. Especially, phonetics had a great contribution to the development of the direct method, for they both gave importance to the use of the spoken language.

In 1919, the 'Cleveland Plan' was put into use in Cleveland public schools in the U.S.A. The plan aimed at keeping the students' interest alive and at making it higher so as to raise the standard in language learning. In order to attain the objectives, teaching would be in the target language without translation. With respect to its requirements, the plan reflected a view of 'a consistent twentieth century application of the direct method' (Stern, 1983). In Europe the direct method was shown high esteem when it was used to teach French and English at an elementary level.

As a result of the new insights of the direct method, direct study of oral and printed texts, narration,

and writing of compositions about pictures and episodes took the place of translation of texts substitutionally, and many teachers showed an attempt to teach the lesson with no translation and no use of the native language for explanations and communication in language classes (Stern, 1983).

#### 2.2.2.2. Theoretical bases and purposes

The basic assumption is that learning to speak the target language should involve not translation, memorization, and learning of grammar rules but the same mechanisms a child makes use of as he learns his mother tongue (Brown, 1980). According to advocates of the method, a student can learn to understand a language mostly by listening to it, and learning to speak it is more possible by speaking it a great deal (Rivers, 1968). So, first language acquisition and learning processes a child passes through constitute the basis of the method.

The purpose is to enable the student to think in the target language (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

#### 2.2.2.3. Application of the Method in the classroom

This is just an example of the type of lesson that the method follows.

The students begin the lesson with a short specially constructed text in the coursebook of the target language for the use of everyday vocabulary and structure rather than literary language in order to have an oral exchange in the classroom. As the students deal with the text, they are expected to derive the meaning of unknown words from the context rather than looking up in a bilingual dictionary. If the meaning is not clear to the students, the teacher teaches it by miming or giving paraphrases and synonyms of it or presenting it in context through the use of sketches, pantomime, demonstration or such visual aids as blackboard, wallcharts, pictures, realia without translation (Rivers, 1968; Stern, 1983).

Testing of whether they have understood the meaning of foreign words is done by asking questions in the language being taught. The students are required to make complete and meaningful sentences as they give their answers to the teacher's questions which form part of a discourse. With the question-and-answer technique, the students become accustomed to the subject of the text through oral practice which involves new words and situations.

For the discussion part, a proverb can be given to the students to talk about. While discussing it,

they realize that the language of the target society reveals the way members of that society live. So, they learn the target culture inductively (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

For the writing activity, learning to write the target language is by transcription at the beginning of the course. When the students can use the language more efficiently, they are asked to write free compositions of what they have read or discussed.

Throughout the application of the method, grammar is taught inductively; in other words, students themselves discover the grammar rules of the target language in the activities of oral practice and in situations created by the teacher in the classroom, and they check themselves by completing transposition, substitution, or fill-in-the-blanks types of exercises.

The teacher is more like a director in all the activities. However, the students are more active than in the Grammar-Translation Method. The interaction is from the teacher to the students, and vice versa. A student can also be in an interaction with his classmates, using the target language (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).



For the testing of the success of the class, the students' performance in spoken and written language is evaluated as they use the language.

It can be concluded by saying that conversational activity is encouraged in this method, and students are given opportunities to use the target language in real contexts within given situations and topics rather than linguistic structures (Gatenby, 1958; Krause, 1916; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Kocaman, 1978; Diller, 1978).

#### 2.2.2.4. Opinions for and against the Method

It is believed by Brumfit and Roberts (1983) that the students taught by this method can improve their oral fluency in the target language.

It was pointed out by Stern (1983) that the direct method with its distinguishing feature led language teachers to be inventive and to use new teaching aids such as pictures, objects, and realia in the classroom. Besides, it, Stern says, had a contribution to the development of non-translational techniques such as demonstration, pantomime, question-and-answers, mimicry which were adopted and used in the application of new methods years later. Language use, Stern expresses, was emphasized firstly by this

method. It is stated by Stern that the method was also the first of the methods which required learners to use only the target language in lessons.

It is believed by Krashen(1982) that the method meets students' need for comprehensible input a great deal, for they are exposed to the use of the target language all the time in the classroom.

The other fact expressed by Krashen(1982) and Rivers(1968) is that students find the lesson and language use exciting and interesting since the method presents spoken everyday language with teaching aids in real-life situations.

In her criticism, Rivers(1968) says that the method forces the adolescent student to express himself immediately in the target language in a relatively unstructured situation, and this may help him to be fluent but not accurate in speech, for he is no longer a child but an adolescent with well-established native language speech habits. Rivers also says that highly intelligent students who can induce the inexplicitly given grammar rules successfully make a more progress in a relatively short time whereas less talented ones may feel themselves discouraged or bewildered in the lesson, and that there is a heavy burden on the shoulders

of the teacher, for he must be fluent in the target language and very creative.

It is believed by Krashen(1982) that although discussions are very meaningful, they do not seem to have a communicative purpose, for students are forced to focus their attention on inducing grammar rules in all discussions, and that since the method presents the grammar of the target language in a strictly sequenced manner, it puts heavy constraints on having real communication in the classroom. Besides, the method, Krashen states, insists on accuracy and error correction which may cause anxiety in students.

It is expressed by Girard(1972) that the method is known as teacher-centered, and the student is not seen as an individual with his own personality, interests, feelings, and thoughts, for the method has no principles related to this area.

So it may be concluded by saying that the method presents the target language with a new way leading toward communicative language teaching, although it still takes some features from the grammar-translation.

### 2.2.3. THE AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD

#### 2.2.3.1. History

As being mainly American in origin, the Audio-Lingual Method was introduced with various names as 'The Aural-Oral Method', 'The Mim-Mem(mimicry-memorization) Method', 'New Key', 'Audio-lingual Habit Theory', and 'Functional Skills Strategy(Brumfit and Roberts, 1983; Stern, 1983; Brown, 1980; Rivers, 1968). Since the term 'Aural-Oral' created confusion and was difficult to pronounce, the suggested term "audio-lingual" by Nelson Brooks of Yale University became a widely used name of this method(Rivers, 1968).

The importance of studying languages had been ignored by the authorities in the United States. In the early years of World War II the American Army therefore strongly felt the need for fluent interpreters to communicate both with the united nations joined in alliance and with the military adversaries(Stern, 1983; Rivers, 1968). Hence, members of the linguistic societies were asked to develop a new method by which officers and interpreters would be able to understand native speakers of other languages and to speak those languages with near-native accent. In fact, linguists and cultural anthropologists had already started analyzing

lesser-known languages in the twenties and thirties (Chastain, 1976; Rivers, 1968). Then came the growth and practice of the Army Method which constituted the origin of the Audio-Lingual Method. With native teachers, the learners taught by the Army Method studied in small classes and did more practice with much emphasis on listening and speaking (Rivers, 1968). Since the method placed a stress on spoken language and required its learners to respond to linguistic stimuli as soon as they were exposed to, the earlier studies in structural linguistics and results of the experiments in behavioristic psychology, and other factors such as development of contrastive linguistics, wide spread use of magnetic tapes and language laboratories, and more financial aids contributed to the development of audiolingualism with influence on language teachers and language teaching programs of many educational institutions after the war till 1964 (Brown, 1980; Rivers, 1968; Brumfit and Roberts, 1983; Stern, 1983; Chastain, 1976). In 1964, the criticism of the Audio-Lingual Method, especially by Rivers (1964), reflected one fact that the method was highly theoretically questionable. Generative linguists, among them Chomsky as being the most famous one, opponents of the method, and cognitive psychologists argued both behaviorist psychology and structuralist linguists severely which caused language teachers to become disillusioned and suspicious of theorists (Brumfit

and Roberts, 1983; Stern, 1983). Thus, the 1970s were the years in which new movements in language teaching were witnessed because of the need of new alternative methods and approaches on which language teaching programs would be based with new views (Brown, 1980).

#### 2.2.3.2. Theoretical bases and purposes

The method is theoretically based on structural linguistics and behavioristic psychology.

Structural linguistics can be traced back to 1920s and 1930s. In those years, structural linguists were at work describing the structures of lesser-known languages rather than Greek and Latin. Due to the fact that majority of the societies of lesser-known languages had no written alphabet and manuscript, they entirely dealt with their spoken languages and focused their attention on what people actually said in their native language and disregarded what traditional grammarians maintained they ought to say. So description of languages was no longer carried on with respect to Latin grammar rules. They accepted the use of contrastive analysis and gave excessive emphasis to the formal properties of language, dealing with lexis, patterns, and pronunciation. Phonemes, morphemes, phrases, and sentences were studied by structural linguists. After

they worked with the members of those societies to describe the structures of their languages, they concluded that language is a stream of oral sounds, and that speech precedes writing, and that intonation, function words, phonemes, and morphemes play an important role to understand the meaning of linguistic utterances. So, the analysis of these aspects of language provided well-defined descriptions of language and had an influence on language teaching programs (Chastain, 1976; Rivers, 1968).

Behaviorist psychology also had a contribution to the development of the method. After Darwin's Origin of Species had been published in 1859, his theories became widely known, and an increasing interest was seen in animal psychology. Thorndike and Watson carried out some experiments about how animals learnt through the observation of their behaviors in psychological laboratories. In such studies, animals' behaviors were the only clues to observe learning in them because of the impossibility of observation of mental processes in them. Therefore, the school of psychology that was established as a result of new insights brought with such psychological studies related to experiments on animals' behaviors was given the name of behaviorism (Chastain, 1976). According to the findings of such experiments, especially the ones carried out by Pavlov

and Watson, who are known as classical behaviorists, learning process was to be thought as formation of associations between stimuli and response. Hence, they described learning as conditioning\_\_\_\_\_ as formation of habits through responses to stimuli. This approach is known as "respondent conditioning" (Brumfit and Roberts, 1983; Chastain, 1976; Brown, 1980). In 1957, B.F. Skinner's study Verbal Behavior included new extension of his theory of learning. It was stated by Skinner that stimulus is given less importance as the organism(human being) in the "operant conditioning" produces a response or operant(it might be a sentence), and the operant is made stronger by reinforcement. Rather than stimuli, "consequences" therefore gain more importance to control behavior. It was also stated by Skinner that when the consequence brings a reward, behavior is established more strongly, and when the consequence brings a punishment, or when there is no reinforcement, it becomes difficult to make the operant stronger, or even it may be no longer seen in time at all(Brown, 1980). In the light of these explanations, it is believed that learning as a desired behavior can occur through reinforcement if it is rewarding.

The purposes to be attained during the application of this method lead the teacher to give more importance



to the listening and speaking skills. Because the method gives priority to them, and they are to be developed from the beginning of the course. Thus, reading and writing are considered as secondary. The students should be able to use the target language so automatically that they should not stop to think. It is expressed by Chastain(1976) that:

"Proponents of the audio-lingual approach aim to duplicate first language habits in the second-language learner |in our case, the foreign language learner|.

... The goal is to condition in second-language learners the same types of automatic speech habits they have in their native language."  
Chastain, 1976: p.126.

Therefore, the students are to form new habits in the target language and to overcome their old habits of their native language in order to use the target language automatically(Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

So, language teaching in terms of the theoretical views of the audio-lingual method is thought as habit formation, and the learner is expected to speak the target language with the speech habits he has in his native language through conditioning and reinforcement he is exposed to in the classroom.

### 2.2.3.3. Application of the Method in the classroom

This is just an example of the type of lesson that the method follows.

In the application of the method, the daily speech is studied by following the teaching order of skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) within a graded language instruction.

The lesson may begin with a dialog, which contains the structures and vocabulary of the lesson. So, language forms are presented to the class within a context rather than giving them separately to the students. Because it is believed that they are formed more naturally in a context. The structures and vocabulary in the dialog are learnt by the students in situations through imitation, repetition, and by mimicry with much emphasis on the structural patterns rather than vocabulary. Besides, structures are given one at a time in a sequential manner, and each dialog contains strictly limited number of vocabulary. The class often practices the dialog as a group, and then in smaller groups. As the students deal with the dialog, they learn the grammar of the target language inductively, for it is thought that people do not memorize the rules of their mother tongue. Hence, the students work out the

rules of the target language introduced in the dialog by themselves.

The dialog is followed by the drills with the types of substitution, backward build-up, transformation, chain, and repetition which all are related to the structural patterns in the dialog. By participating in the pattern practice activity, the students do these types of drills carrying the purpose of duplicating the habits the students have in their native language. In this and other activities, the teacher does not neglect errors at any time and provides his students with correct answers when errors occur, for it is believed that errors may lead the students to form bad habits. In the activity, the teacher supplies the student who has answered the question correctly with positive reinforcement (Newmark and Diller, 1972; Dakin, 1973; Brooks, 1960; Finocchiaro, 1974; Kocaman, 1978; Diller, 1978; Chastain, 1972; Brumfit and Roberts, 1983).

Most of the time, the teacher himself facilitates the beginning of the interactions with his students and directs the interaction when the students play different roles in dialogs that provide student-to-student interaction. He is a model to his students, and, like a conductor, directs and controls what his students

do in the language teaching activities of the method (Chastain, 1976; Rivers, 1968; Diller, 1978; Stern, 1983; Krashen, 1982; Stevick, 1982).

During the application of the method, the teacher teaches the target language with very little use of the native language in order to prevent language interference, and may apply contrastive analysis with emphasis on the phonetics, phonology, and morphology of the native and target language, and may use language laboratories, tapes, pictures to teach the class how to respond to both verbal and nonverbal stimuli. Besides, the students are not required by the teacher to learn the target language with lists of pronouns and verb conjugations. The other fact is that language is not considered apart from culture. It is also reflected that culture does not cover only literature and the arts. The way members of the target society behave and live is included as a part of that target culture, and is given by the teacher in the lessons as one of his responsibilities (Rivers, 1968; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Kocaman, 1978; Stern, 1983; Chastain, 1976; Brumfit and Roberts, 1983; Huebener, 1967; Diller, 1978).

So, it can be concluded by saying that language acquisition, according to audiolingualism, results from habit formation.

#### 2.2.3.4. Opinions for and against the Method

It is stated by Stern(1983) that one of the major contributions of the method to language teaching is that a language teaching theory should be developed on the basis of linguistic and psychological principles, and that the other contribution of it is its requirements which disregard great intellectual exploitations of the given language instruction through abstract reasoning. Thanks to its requirements, large groups of ordinary learners, in Stern's point of view, had relatively more opportunity to participate in language activities. Besides, the method, Stern says, emphasized "syntactical progression" rather than vocabulary and morphology. Stern pointed out that the method also contributed to the development of simple techniques to be used for varied, graded, and intensive practice of specific features of the language, and that specifically designed techniques for auditory and oral practice firstly appeared in this method, for oral practice in the previous methods was done only by reading textbook exercises aloud.

It is reported by Chastain(1976) that the results of the experiments carried out by Delattre(1947a, 1947b) reflected that the students taught by the Audio-Lingual Method were amazingly successful in the oral

production as well as in the written language, and poorer ones learned better; thus, it made the class unified with regard to ability. Another experiment carried out by Scherer and Wertheimer(1964) gave the results that the achievement test scores of the students taught by this method were significantly higher in listening and speaking at the end of the second semester whereas the scores of the students taught by the traditional methods were better in translating, reading, and writing. Later, both groups were altogether exposed to the target language in the same class during the second year. At the end of the second year, the results showed that there was no difference: the audio-lingual students were better in speaking; the traditional students were better in writing and translating, but both of the groups were equally better in other skills.

It is believed by Krashen(1982) that the dialogs and pattern practice are easy to understand for many students.

The method is criticized by Stern(1983) in his statement that the techniques of the method are said to cause boredom in students, and regarded as ineffective in the long run.

It is pointed out by Brumfit and Roberts(1983), and Chastain(1976) that students did not actually understand what they said and learnt, and became unsuccessful to use the given structures studied before in contexts since they were provided with insufficient contextualization as they were dealing with pattern drills too frequently under the total control of the teacher. The other point expressed by Brumfit and Roberts(1983), and Krashen(1982) is that the method leads the students to focus their attention on form rather than content, for form is much emphasized as a requirement of the method. Therefore, they are likely to produce their utterances in a quite mechanical manner without having a creative use of the language.

It is said by Diller(1978) that we are not always exposed to correct language in actual life; native speakers, too, make errors, false starts, and may carry on the conversation with hesitations or interruptions which are accepted quite natural in a genuine communication. But the students taught by the method are controlled so as to avoid errors.

It is believed by Rivers(1968) that language learning in human beings can not be described as a matter of habit and conditioning in accordance with the results of the experiments which were carried

out with animals, for such experiments on animals caused psychologists to limit their descriptions only to the observable behaviors of them, for language, Rivers says, is related with a cognitive activity which comprises of creative processes.

It is pointed out by Krashen(1982) that although the audiolingualism does not favor conscious learning, it requires inductive learning through which the student works out rules by applying his mental power as he is involved in a dialog or pattern practice.

As a conclusion, the method has favored an unthinking drill and training approach. It seems to be one which does not allow the student to think about what he wants to say in the target language; in other words, learning the target language by the Audio-Lingual Method is quite mechanical with automatically given answers. Therefore, the method does not encourage personal expression. It should be also noted that it has considered the  $L_1-L_2$  connection as an important issue to achieve the purpose of a more effective language teaching, and applied contrastive analysis in the lessons, and that it pursues the goal of getting the students involved in the target language with an intensive practice through habituation.



## 2.2.4. THE COGNITIVE-CODE APPROACH

### 2.2.4.1. History

In the late 1960s, the development of the Cognitive-Code Approach started as an alternative or reaction to the Audio-Lingual Method, and its principles were determined by the ideas set forth in the studies of transformational-generative linguists, especially Chomsky with his book Syntactic Structures published in 1957, and cognitive psychologist, especially Ausubel with his book Educational Psychology: A Cognitive View published in 1968 (Chastain, 1976). The publication of the book Syntactic Structures by Chomsky in 1957 gave an impetus to the development of the approach. Although the methodological implications of Chomsky's linguistic theory were not immediately recognizable to many people because of his earlier writings which were mostly about the forms of grammars rather than language acquisition, it was stated by Chomsky (1965) that behavioristic theories of language acquisition and phrase-structure grammars did not reflect the complexity of learning a language, and that language learning is very closely related to mental activities, and that the learner is in a cognitive process as he endeavors to learn that language (Chastain, 1976; Brown, 1980; Stern, 1983). On the other hand, views in the

behavioristic psychology of the Audio-Lingual Method were under attack and severely criticized by cognitive psychologists. The publication of the book Educational Psychology: A Cognitive View by Ausubel in 1968 brought new ideas relying on psychology, and challenged the theoretical bases of the audiolingualism. The ideas set forth in the book by Ausubel were based on the theory that learning should be meaningful, and the learner should understand things to be learnt (Chastain, 1976). Therefore, this new direction can be summed up in one sentence:

"The main effects of the cognitive theory seem to have been that it has loosened the tight hold that the audio-lingual method had exercised on materials and practice and that it removed the stigma that had been placed on grammar-translation and direct method practices."

Stern, 1983: p.469.

In the following years after the publication of Ausubel's book, an increasing interest in child's language acquisition appeared. The 1970s were the years when child language researchers dealt with the functions of language and the formulation of them. At the same time, it was realized that Chomsky's transformational-generative model was inadequate, for child language researchers pointed out that language

functioning extends well beyond cognitive thought and memory structure. Due to the findings of their studies, communicative function and other functions of language in discourse analysis gained importance. So such theoretical changes and new insights contributed to the development of other language teaching methods (Chastain, 1976; Stern, 1983).

#### 2.2.4.2. Theoretical bases and purposes

The method is mainly based on cognitive psychology and transformational-generative linguistics.

Learning in terms of cognitive psychology gives a special importance to mental processes that are under the individual's control, and knowledge is gained by making use of information within cognitive resources by which behavior is established and controlled. Thus, it is rejected that conditioned behavior constitutes knowledge (Chastain, 1976).

With respect to the principles of Cognitive Psychology, the teacher therefore is to be fully aware of the importance of students' mental resources and mental activity in learning. Due to his role, the teacher is expected to teach the material in such a way that things to be learnt are meaningful to the

students. While doing so, the teacher is to consider his students' existing knowledge\_\_\_\_\_ what they already know. Then, he should present the material in such a context that they can easily relate the content of it to their existing knowledge. Here the purpose is that the new information is to be built on the old information in such contexts that learning is meaningful to the students. Hence, the teacher leads his students to be active and to have a questioning attitude. So the students can understand things and relate them to the old information.

Transformational-generative linguists put forward that language is not as simple as considered before, and that language and learning are closely linked with mental activities, and that learning is not a matter of habit and conditioning(Chastain, 1976).

It is stated by Chastain(1976) that there are some basic beliefs in the T-G theory. Firstly, language is rule-governed, and an individual has a finite set of rules, with which he can produce infinite number of sentences. Secondly, the variety of language is infinite; each sentence created by native speakers of that language is unique. Thirdly, a native speaker has the ability as 'competence' and can demonstrate it through 'performance'. Competence means what a

native speaker knows, and performance means how the speaker actually uses his knowledge in the language. Competence precedes performance. It is suggested by Chomsky that both the linguist and psychologist should first deal with competence before performance. Fourthly, every sentence created by a native speaker has a surface structure, which means the actual utterance of the written or spoken sentence, and a deep structure, which represents meaning. Fifthly, the two types of grammar rules help us to explain both the deep and surface structure: generative rules, which are used for the explanation of the formation of simple sentences, and transformational rules, which are used for the transformation of simple sentences to make them more complex by adding other linguistic items in order to convert the deep structure into surface structure. Sixthly, T-G linguists attach more importance to meaning or the deep structure. Seventhly, all the human beings are equipped with an inborn language acquisition device. Eighthly, grammar consists of some certain basic elements that all languages commonly have. Therefore, it is believed by transformationalists that there is a universal grammar.

The purposes to be attained by the students taught by this approach are mainly the same as those of the Audio-Lingual Method. However, there are some

differences. Firstly, the method aims at developing the students' language ability to the extent at which they have a proper degree of cognitive control over the rules that are used by native speakers to communicate in real-life situations. Secondly, in the periodic application sessions the students are expected to realize that information has a functional importance and can be used for additional learning or solving problems through the hours of the demonstration of the ability to remember previously taught things and of the ability to use them. Thirdly, they are wanted to be aware of what they say, write, read, and hear in all the language teaching activities of the approach (Stern, 1983; Krashen, 1982; Chastain, 1976).

Therefore, learning a language in terms of cognitive theory has laid an emphasis on meaningful learning which fully demands mental activities, for language is thought to have a close relationship with mental processes.

#### 2.2.4.3. Application of the Approach in the classroom

This is just an example of the type of lesson that the approach follows.

The teacher begins with the teaching of new sounds, vocabulary, and structures of the target language.

While teaching vocabulary, the teacher may make use of visual aids and supply definitions either in the native language or in the target language. He may also teach it contextually. The teaching of new structure is performed with visual aids, contrastive comparisons, explanations, examples, and through demonstration. The introduction of new language instruction is considered as the basis for all the exercises and activities to be dealt with in the classroom. So, what is required from the teacher in the first sessions is that he should help his students to establish a cognitive base that will enable them to develop their language skills.

The exercises given to the students taught by this approach are to make the understanding process perfect and whole, to help the students learn to make mental operations on the given forms skillfully and to recall them, and to provide the students with opportunities to utilize their competence as they do them. While dealing with the exercises, the students are to make a conscious selection of the right word or form in the target language. They are sometimes given with occasional clues in the native language (Chastain, 1976).

The exercises are followed by some performance activities in which they are required to make use of their competence as they speak or write in the

target language in order to express themselves. In these activities, the teacher can give reading or listening comprehension passages, rhymes, stories in which previously taught forms are presented contextually to the class. The function of the passages in the performance activities is that the students are expected to learn how the things they have been taught before can be put into use in that language. After the practice of the reading and listening comprehension passages, the pupils deal with some other activities such as games and role-plays to express their own thoughts orally and in writing. These activities are performed in meaningful situations, and understanding becomes the whole matter; both the teacher and students endeavor to make themselves understood in that language (Chastain, 1976; Krashen, 1982).

During the application of this approach, all four language skills are practiced with no priority to any of them. Rather than learning the lesson with intensive drill for the purpose of automatic command of the language and habit-formation, intellectual understanding is what is required from the learners. Therefore, emphasis is laid on rule learning, meaningful practice, and creativity (Stern, 1983; Krashen, 1982; Chastain, 1976).



The teacher's role is to facilitate learning by making it meaningful and to lead the students to proceed from competence to performance (Stern, 1983; Chastain, 1976).

To sum up how the approach is applied in the classroom, it can be said that communicative competence gains more importance, and that language acquisition is not based on habit formation. Besides, grammar is taught deductively. It should be also added that no emphasis is placed on pronunciation, and perfection is regarded as an unrealistic aim. As might be realized, instruction is individualized many times and involves much group work. The teacher is a facilitator in all the language teaching activities of this approach. In the application of the approach, reading and writing are as important as speaking and listening. A teacher who is in favor of this approach believes that errors are inevitable, and that they should be analyzed constructively within a systematic study, and that silence is useful and necessary. In the activities, all teaching points are given in context with audiovisual aids, stories, and pictures. Besides, the mother tongue can be used, and translation is not strictly avoided in the classroom. It should be also noted that the affective domain is not fully neglected; the attitude of the teacher and students, human sensitivity, and

the quality of interaction are regarded important, and that a good general proficiency in the target language is the ideal goal of the approach (Kocaman, 1978; Chastain, 1976; Krashen, 1982; Brown, 1980; Stern, 1983; Diller, 1978).

#### 2.2.4.4. Opinions for and against the Approach

It is expressed by Stern (1983) that the approach has determined or identified theoretical and practical shortcomings of the Audio-Lingual Method with precision, and that it has drawn more attention to creativity and meaning which were disregarded or underemphasized by the earlier theories.

It is said by Chastain (1976) that since graphic and schematic procedures, demonstration, visuals, realia, and other proper means are used to give meaning and form in context with emphasis on both written and spoken language in the teaching activities, many senses are involved in learning the target language.

It is stated by Rivers (1968) that errors are considered as evidences of the progress the student is in and as very useful indications for the teacher in order to give reasons for the incorrect hypotheses the student has developed.

Despite these good points, the approach is criticized negatively as well. It is believed by Krashen (1982) that the explanation and exercise section provide very little comprehensible input, for the focus is on form, not meaning. It is also added that the potential of comprehensible input may even be diminished if the contextualization of the "rule of the day" gains more importance. Besides, there is an overemphasis on learning. Since learning, according to Krashen, functions only to make changes in the form of linguistic utterances produced by the acquired system, the student focusses his attention on form by thinking about correctness of his utterances. Therefore, it, in Krashen's point of view, appears to be the case that the approach leads the student to place more emphasis on accuracy or correctness of his utterances rather than on fluency in his performance. The other opinion expressed by Krashen is that the approach assumes that everyone can accomplish conscious learning, and that all rules can be learnt. Thus, it endeavors to supply students with items that are not yet acquired.

Another opinion expressed by Diller(1978) is that meaningful exposure may be sufficient for some adults, but not for all. Diller explains it by saying that it is much more efficient for most adults if there can be meaningful practice of the grammatical

constructions of the language in an orderly way. Diller also points out one fact that the adult seems to be better at accomplishing conscious learning rather than the child can, for the adult can reason grammatically.

As a conclusion, the Cognitive-Code Approach has introduced language as an intellectual learning problem. It has placed emphasis on the learning of code and required that language learning should be in meaningful situations. Thanks to the approach, mistakes have been seen as an important and significant evidence of the fact that the student is in the learning process. Therefore, the attitudes of the teacher toward mistakes have been positive with no insistence on over-correction in order to avoid discouragement in the student. The approach has also seen the teacher not as the only authority in the classroom, as in the methods mentioned before, but as a facilitator who helps the students to have a cognitive control over the structures of the target language.

#### 2.2.5. THE COMMUNICATIVE(FUNCTIONAL/NOTIONAL) APPROACH

##### 2.2.5.1. History

In its historical development, the origin of the approach can be traced back to the beginning of

1970s. The developments in the decade of 1970-1980 created a shift in interest in language teaching methodology (Brown, 1980; Stern, 1983). Applied linguists focused their attention on the functional features of linguistic communication rather than on the forms of language. The experimental studies carried out by applied linguists such as Candlin, Allen, Corder, Wilkins, and Widdowson provided new ideas with emphasis on functional communication, and they placed stress on the development of "communicative competence" in learners. Discourse analysis, semantics, and sociolinguistics became very influential on language teaching theories. Besides, communicative acts, functions, and rules of conversation were given more importance by curriculum designers. This type of curriculum was called 'a notional or sometimes a notional-functional syllabus'. As an alternative to the 'structural syllabus', which basically teaches the forms of language in terms of its grammatical and lexical units, the notional syllabus introduces language in functional terms, as "notions" expressed by formal linguistic items (Brown, 1980).

In 1978, Widdowson presented his point of view with a set of concepts by making a distinction between 'language as a formal system and language use as communicative events'. It was also stated by himself

that language teachers should consider the distinction, and that it might be more profitable to place more emphasis on teaching language as communication rather than as a formal system(Stern, 1983).

With a new view on the design of a curriculum based on the communicative principles, The Council of Europe Modern Languages Project draw attention to an important point that teachers should be aware of language needs of learners in order to determine what language functions would be put in a communicative curriculum for a more effective teaching. A number of studies(Munby, 1978; Shaw, 1977; Richterich, 1980; Savard, 1977; Richterich and Chancerel, 1977/80) showed that the definition and identification of language needs took the first and most important part in the procedures to make language teaching communicative (Stern, 1983). Besides, varying needs of the learners who wanted to learn a language for the expansion and enhancement of their careers caused an increasing pressure to teach languages quickly and efficiently in a given limited time. Thus, teaching language for special or specific purposes as a sub-branch of language teaching placed more importance on communication. As a result of that, knowing the communicative needs of the learners was regarded as vitally important in the preparation of this type of syllabuses, and the communicative functional/notional approach has been

of great help to achieve that purpose (Brumfit and Roberts, 1983).

All these changes brought by the approach reflect the curriculum belief that the learner with communicative competence that he will need for the use of the given language may afterwards acquire the grammar of that language more meaningfully and functionally (Brown, 1980).

Therefore, it can be concluded that since about 1970 we have, as stated by Stern (1983), witnessed an attempt to come closer to the reality of language use, and many linguists, language teachers have been actively endeavoring to give a concrete shape to this direction of language teaching.

#### 2.2.5.2. Theoretical bases and purposes

The approach has brought new insights derived from sociolinguistics, semantics, discourse analysis, speech act theory, and new developments in linguistics (Stern, 1983).

In many methods used in language teaching, the common point seems that structures and vocabulary have an importance for many methodologists. But advocates

of this approach put forward that a learner may not be efficient in his performance in that language just by knowing the structures and vocabulary of it. He may know the grammatical rules of the language perfectly, but may not be able to use the language. A language, they say, is also used for functions such as greeting, apologizing, arguing, and so on. Besides, the social context, they believe, determines how we should express our intentions, emotions, and opinions. It is also stated that we conclude whether the exchange is communicative by evaluating whether receiver and sender have mutually agreed on the meaning through the interaction in consideration of feedback provided by the receiver (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

Hence, it is emphasized that the target language is to be taught in a clearly specified social context and situation (Stern, 1983). Basically, it can be said that language is viewed in terms of function, meaning, and form in order to develop 'communicative competence' in learners who are exposed to different social situations during the learning process of that language. According to the theoretical bases of the approach, it is maintained that culture can not be put aside from language; they are closely related with each other, and that culture is not limited to the fine arts or literary language. Thus, culture is studied by observing a



native speaker's typical way of life in his society. The use of nonverbal behavior as one aspect of the culture of the target society is also taken into consideration by the Communicative Approach (Brown, 1980; Brumfit and Roberts, 1983; Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

The goal is to develop communicative competence in the learners. Communicative competence means being able to use the given language appropriately in a given social context. For that purpose, the students are provided with knowledge of form, meaning, and function. The teacher is required to help them realize that the performance of a function can be carried out by many different forms and also that it is possible to use a single form for different functions in language. The approach also requires the teacher to enable the students to make use of different communicative strategies for choosing the most appropriate form among others with respect to the given social context and the roles of the participants (Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Widdowson, 1978).

As a conclusion, the communicative approach requires the teacher to enable his students to be communicative in that language rather than to provide them with a knowledge merely on the grammatical rules and vocabulary of it.

### 2.2.5.3. Application of the Approach in the classroom

This is just an example of the type of lesson that the approach follows.

In order to develop the students' reading skill in the target language taught by the approach, the class may be given a copy of text written in the authentic language to read, and the teacher may ask the students to do the exercise 'Scrambled Sentences' after they have sufficiently studied the material presented in the text in the other communicative activities. By dealing with the exercise 'Scrambled Sentences', they unscramble the scrambled sentences of the same text to compare with the original so that they may realize the cohesion and coherence properties of language. After going through the text, the students are asked to underline, for example, the predictions in the text. Then they read the underlined predictions aloud in the target language, and the teacher writes them on the blackboard.

When it is finished, the teacher and students make a discussion about how much the writer is certain of his thoughts and feelings in his utterances in the text. After that, the students are required to tell each underlined prediction in another way with similar meaning. In the following activity, there is a game to be played with thirteen cards showing a picture of a piece of sports equipment. Before starting

it, the teacher tells them what they are going to do clearly. They make groups of five, and each group is given thirteen cards. After identifying the items on the cards and writing the names of them on the blackboard, three cards are distributed to each of four students in the group. The last card is shown to none of the members of the group. The fifth student in the group has no card and is told to make a prediction about what Tim will do next week by using the name of one of the items in his sentence in the target language. If the item in his prediction is not the one in one of the pictures the four students in the group have got, he can utter a strong statement for his prediction and check himself by seeing the picture on the card placed face down. Each student is given a chance to predict. The activity is followed by another one. The students make groups of three. One student in the group has a picture strip story. A number of successively arranged pictures which have no words beneath communicate a story. The student with the picture strip story lets his two friends see only the first picture without showing the other five pictures. Then, the second picture is shown and the two students are asked by the student with the picture strip story to predict what the third picture will show. The prediction is made for the third picture. If it is correct, the two students make their prediction for the fourth

picture which they do not see. When all the pictures are shown, a new strip story is given and roles are changed. For the other activity, the teacher tells the class what they will do clearly. This activity is a role-play. They make groups of four. One student is a boss. The others are the employees. It is supposed that their company will merge with another company. The students are asked to discuss with the boss about what changes will happen with respect to the given social status and roles. As they discuss, the teacher joins each group to help and give advice if they need. After the activity is finished, the teacher and students ask and answer questions about what language forms are more appropriate in such a situation.

In order to develop the students' listening and writing skill in the target language, the teacher may read some other predictions to hear the students' opinions and beliefs about the probability of them, and want his students to listen to, for example, the debate between two political candidates on the radio or to watch it on television at home and to write their prediction of who will win the election and why. These are read at the beginning of the next class (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

The role of the teacher is to facilitate his students' learning. He manages classroom activities,

creates situations that will contribute to the growth of communication, often uses roleplays in the classroom, and behaves as an advisor. He leads the students to work in pairs, triads, small groups, and as a whole group. He acts as a "co-communicator", too; in other words, he takes part or participates in communicative activities with his students. He is not the only authority in the classroom, as seen in some other methods. Students' interaction with one another is much more than they interact with their teacher. Therefore, this approach is not teacher-centered (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

While testing the class, emphasis is not only on accuracy or formal correctness but also on the appropriate use of the language within a given social context. The students are required to be communicative in a given situation by using appropriate linguistic utterances with regard to social status of the participants (Stern, 1983).

As a summary, it can be said that materials and teaching procedures are developed with respect to the needs analysis, for what the students need the language for is very important. In the activities, language is seen as a tool for communication, not as an object of study. Such teaching activities as scrambled sentences, picture strip stories, games,

role-plays carry a communicative intent with three features, namely information gap, choice, and feedback. By participating in these activities, the students learn how to express their opinions, feelings, and beliefs. Working in small groups increases the amount of communicative practice significantly. The skill(s) the students need are practiced from the beginning of the course. The practice is not repetitive or imitative but provides the students with natural options of language use which bring the kinds of choices that are found in spontaneous communication. As the students do the practice of the skills in the classroom, their errors are accepted as natural, and they are not overcorrected. Because the goal in communicative activities is fluency, not 100% accuracy. The students are free about what and how to say in the target language with its alternative forms. Authentic language materials such as radio or television broadcasts, weather forecasts, realia, menus, timetables, other visual and audio-visual aids, pictures, cards are widely used in the activities. It should be also noted that the teacher is to have a basic knowledge of the field in which the students will be specialized, to be fluent in the students' native language, and to use the target language with an excellent control. The teacher can use the students' native language for explanation. The teacher and students show mutual respect to each other's opinions, ideas,

and feelings (Stern, 1983; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Wilkins, 1972; 1976; Brown, 1980; Brumfit and Roberts, 1983; Widdowson, 1979; Johnson, 1982; Littlewood, 1981).

#### 2.2.5.4. Opinions for and against the Approach

It is believed by Brown (1980) that a properly designed functional/ notional syllabus can help the learners to be sensitive to the requirement of any given situation for an appropriate language.

It is expressed by Wilkins (1976) that the use of authentic materials in the application of the approach allows the students to understand more varied forms of language than they are capable of producing in the classroom, and that a functionally organized language teaching can be very profitable for a student with a sufficient grammatical knowledge in that language, and that the communicative facts of language are taken into consideration from the very beginning of the course without disregarding the grammatical and situational factors.

It is stated by Brumfit and Roberts (1983) that a functional/notional syllabus may significantly increase motivation in the learner since he is exposed to the target language with respect to his needs, and that

a syllabus based on the Communicative Approach can be quite suitable for special or specific purposes, as in the case of ESP courses, and the course, Brumfit and Roberts express, may become easier for the teacher and students if the textbook writer can focus his attention on the carefully chosen functions as he writes the teaching material.

The approach has been open to negative criticism as well. It is said by Stern(1983) that the complex relationship between form and significant factors in a conversation such as the roles of the participants, their personalities, the topic that has an important role in determining the function of grammatical units has not been revealed satisfactorily, and that the concept of appropriacy is a difficult matter to test and a difficult task, especially for non-native teachers, to decide on which base it should be determined since the students can give different answers that are perfectly appropriate to use in the same situation. Besides, the area of appropriacy, Stern believes, has not been explored completely. The other point stated by Stern is that the burden on the shoulders of the teacher is too much, for he should facilitate learning by planning the necessary teaching organizations before the class begins, and should be a guide in all teaching activities, and as a researcher and learner should have a great amount of information about learning and its nature.



Functional syllabus is criticized by Brumfit(1980) in his statement that a syllabus covering mainly functions may not adequately teach grammar, for there seems to be no base to control. Besides, it is pointed out by Brumfit that some of the activities of the approach such as putting the scrambled pictures in the right order, replacing the scrambled sentences in a logical order may not be what the learners will meet in real-life situations.

As a conclusion, it can be said that the approach has laid an emphasis on communicative activities and presented the target language through them by giving importance to fluency rather than accuracy. The approach has been so influential on current thought in language teaching that today it is hardly possible to think a language teaching without communicative component.

## **2.2.6. THE AFFECTIVE/HUMANISTIC APPROACH**

### **2.2.6.1. History**

In recent years, the term "humanistic" has drawn more attention although psychologists were interested in the concept years ago.

With his classical work Client-Centered Therapy, Carl Rogers(1951) put forward some principles about

human behavior. The idea behind his humanistic psychology has become influential on language teaching programs a great deal. For a more effective learning it has also become a fundamental requirement that the teacher should show more respect to his students' inner world and feelings.

The individual as an emotional creature with his unique personality, feelings, and inner world has become the center of interest. Therefore, many researches and studies on the affective domain (Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia, 1964; Pike, 1967; Coopersmith, 1967; Hill, 1970; Guiora et al. 1972b; Macnamara, 1975) have been carried out for a long time (Brown, 1980).

All these and other studies and research on the affective domain have had a great contribution to language learning/teaching and created a new atmosphere in language teaching settings.

#### 2.2.6.2. Theoretical bases and purposes

Since the approach is mainly based on humanistic psychology, a brief outline about what humanistic psychology is and covers will be given in this section.

In his humanistic psychology, Rogers (1951) focused his attention on the affective domain. The

affective domain is defined by Brown(1980) in a clear way:

"The affective domain is the emotional side of human behavior, and it may be juxtaposed to the cognitive side."

Brown, 1980: p.101.

It is also stated by Brown(1980) that another definition of the term was made by Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia(1964) with five levels of affectivity:

Firstly, receiving comes into play. A person must realize that he is living in an environment which has surrounded him wholly. He must willingly receive and have a tolerance for a stimulus, and direct his attention to it.

The second sevel is responding. The person should voluntarily respond to it with his own intention and have a satisfaction from the response.

The third level is valuing. He attributes a value to a thing, a behavior, an action, or a person. The characteristics of beliefs and attitudes play an important role in valuing. He accepts a value only after reaching the point of conviction that is the result of the attemption of pursuing, seeking out, and wanting it.

The fourth one is organization. He makes an organization of values, relying on his beliefs. Hence, his organization consists of a system of beliefs. By doing so, he reflects the way he sees interrelations among them by establishing a hierarchy of values within it.

The last one is his value system which helps him to understand his inner world and makes him different from others characteristically. The system consists of internalized and integrated beliefs, ideas, and attitudes and gives us clues about his world view.

The relation of all these levels to language teaching/learning is that language and human being are in a very close interrelation with each other, and human being is an emotional creature as well as intellectual. Besides, the learner is likely to have a tendency to be receptive to that language, to be responsive to its speakers and the context in which he is communicating, and to attribute a value on the communicative act of interpersonal exchange he is engaged in, since receiving, responding, and valuing exist in all human beings. The teacher therefore can make language learning more effective by understanding how an individual feels, responds, believes, and values and by showing more respect to those fundamental notions. Furthermore, in the affective side of human behavior

there may exist an explanation reflecting the mysteries of language by examining the inner being of the individual.

In his theory in humanistic psychology, the Rogers's belief, which constitutes the basic theoretical view of the approach, is expressed by Brown(1980) in the following terms:

"... inherent in principles of behavior is the human being's ability to adapt and to grow in the direction that enhances his existence. Given a nonthreatening environment, a person will form a picture of reality that is indeed congruent with reality, and will grow and learn."

Brown, 1980: p.76.

It is also expressed by Brown(1980) that the affective domain covers many factors such as empathy, self-esteem, extroversion, inhibition. In fact, they are quite a lot. All these and other factors are related to language learning, for the nature of language is very pervasive.

The purpose of the approach is to facilitate learning in a nonthreatening environment. In regard to Rogers's belief, what is needed is "real facilitators" of learning, and the teacher as a facilitator can make learning easier by establishing healthy relations

between the students and himself. In addition to that, the actual cognitive process of learning is not of importance, for it is stated that the learner, in Rogers's view, may perfectly learn everything in a properly created context (Brown, 1980).

As a conclusion, it can be said that the affective/humanistic approach is based on the theory that what is indispensable for an effective learning in language teaching settings is the creation of a humanistic atmosphere so that learners may show relatively more progress in learning the given linguistic items.

#### 2.2.6.3. Application of the Approach in the classroom

This is just an example of the type of lesson that the approach follows.

The teacher may begin the lesson by telling the students that they are going to have a conversation in the target language, after they have sit in a circle around a table, on which there is a tape-recorder. They are told that they will have the transcript of what they have talked in the conversation at the end of it. During this activity, the teacher does not participate but helps them say things in the target language when they get a difficulty, and always stands

behind the members of the group. One student says something in his native language. The teacher translates it into the target language in phrases or 'chunks'. The student repeats the chunk in the target language as the tape-recorder works. By doing so, every chunk is recorded one at a time. At the end of this activity, the teacher tells them to sit in a semicircle and to look at the blackboard. He writes each recorded sentence in the target language on the board, leaving enough space to write the corresponding one in the native language under each of them. After he has written each sentence in the target language, he underlines the first word to hear the corresponding one in the native language from the students. If they give no answer, he writes it himself. This is done in the same way for all the sentences on the board. Then, he reads the written form of the conversation as the students listen to him.

The next activity involves the practice of the pronunciation of the words in the target language in the written form. The student pronounces one word or phrase of the transcript on the board, and the teacher gives the correct pronunciation of it as many times as the student wants. This activity is carried out in the same manner with other students.

Next, the teacher requests the students to make groups of three to produce new sentences by using the words and phrases of the transcript. Each group is busy writing down new sentences. The teacher walks around and joins each group for help. When he sees a mistake in one sentence, he says the grammatically wrong sentence in the correct way. Then, sentences written in each group are read in the classroom. After that, the tape is replayed twice as the class listens.

The final phase is that he asks them to make their comments about all these activities.

In the next two classes they go on dealing with the conversation. They study the conjugations of the selected verbs used in the conversation and make small groups to produce new sentences by using the new forms. Later, the new sentences are shared by the groups in the classroom.

Then comes the reading activity in which students read the transcript. One student reads it in the target language, and another reads it in the native language. As all the students participate in this activity, the words in the transcript are studied phonetically.

After that, another activity is begun. There is a picture of a person on the blackboard. The students ask questions, supposing that they have just met him.



It is followed by the last activity in which the students deal with the reconstruction of the conversation created by themselves just before (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

The teacher's attitudes and behavior toward the students are seen very important, for it is believed that they play a significant role in the success of the class and have a great influence on that of communicative interaction. Therefore, the teacher as a counselor or facilitator communicates with his students in a close relationship and gives importance to his students' opinions, feelings, and values (Maskowitz, 1978; 1982; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Brumfit, 1982).

As a summary, learning a language is seen as a self-realization experience. Therefore, self-disclosing topics with focus on positive aspects and feelings, experiences, wishes, values, fantasies, and memories are communicated in the classroom. Positive aspects can be things one feels proud of that he has done or times when he has had success with. Teaching materials and activities are specially designed to relate the subject matter to the students' experiences, feelings, lives, and emotions, for what is important is class atmosphere rather than method or teaching materials. So the teacher and students interact with each other through a genuine communication in meaningful contexts.

Many times, the students work in small groups, for peer support and interaction are considered as necessary for learning. In the initial stages, there is often a heavy use of translation. Then, it is no longer used at later stages. Thus, the teacher is expected to have a perfect proficiency in the native language of the students and in the target language (Moskowitz, 1978; 1982; Brumfit, 1982; Brown, 1980; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Manning, 1971; Early, 1982; Daniels and Packard, 1982; Rardin, 1977; 1982; Stevick, 1982).

#### 2.2.6.4. Opinions for and against the Approach

It is expressed by Rivers (1968) that the individual needs and varying levels of competence are considered by the approach a great deal.

It is stated by Larsen-Freeman (1986) that thanks to the approach the students can have a spirit of cooperation, not competition, for they are allowed to determine the types of conversation or to prepare the curriculum with the teacher together in the early stages.

It is said by Moskowitz (1982) that humanistic techniques surprisingly do not impede fear of speaking in the target language, of hesitancy, and of reluctance in students, and that they become eager to participate

in the activities, breaking down their inhibitions to speak the language. Besides, it is believed by Moskowitz that the approach helps the students realize that all human beings are alike, no matter where they live.

It is pointed out by Brown(1980) that Carl Rogers's ideas with emphasis on student-centered teaching and communication have played a significant part in bringing about the necessity that educational process should be redefined with respect to communicative function of language and humanistic psychology.

In his criticism, Brumfit(1981) expresses that discovering the personal feelings of the students too readily may give rise to some improper situations. Besides, there is, according to Brumfit, much heavy burden on the shoulders of the teacher. Brumfit also says that language teachers think that they are expected to perform the role of psychologist in the classroom. But, there is an objection to that thought. It is stated by Moskowitz(1978) that teachers, in fact, already play that role, no matter which method they apply.

It is pointed out by Brown(1980) that a lack of teacher's direction may occur undesirably since his role is that of a counselor, and this may create serious problems in beginning classes.

As a conclusion, it can be said that the approach has given more importance to student's inner world since it has an emphasis on respect for the individual. Besides, it has encouraged personal expression and provided students with many opportunities to express themselves freely through communicative activities with emphasis on fluency. Even, the students in the early stages have been allowed to design the syllabus which reflects their own decisions about what they want to be able to say in the language to be taught. So the approach has given students freedom to learn.

## CHAPTER III

### EVALUATION OF THE SAMPLE TEXTBOOKS

#### 3.1. INTRODUCTION

Six sample textbooks based on the principles of the methods and approaches reviewed in the study will be evaluated in this chapter.

#### 3.2. A SAMPLE TEXTBOOK FOR THE GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION METHOD: TURKISH: A COMPLETE COURSE FOR BEGINNERS

The textbook has 16 lessons, and each lesson presents some grammatical points of the target language. Lesson One, for example, includes Gender, The Indefinite Article, The Plural Suffix, The Cases, and Word Order. Each lesson begins to teach a subject, for example, The Past Tense(Appendix C), firstly by giving a grammatical

explanation on the tense, then by presenting a list of verb paradigms. The learner is to memorize the given grammatical rules and the list of verb paradigms. In the explanation part, syntactic differences between the two languages are included as well, for the two languages are often compared to each other throughout the book to help the learner to make a logical analysis of the target language. Then comes the vocabulary list to be memorized by the learner. In the list, the words in the target language are given with their equivalents in the native language of the learner. The final phase involves the practice of the given rules and vocabulary of the target language through translation into the native language of the learner, and vice versa. On the last pages of the book, there is a key to the exercises to help the learner check himself whether he has translated the sentences given at the end of each lesson correctly in both directions. The book ends with an index of suffixes in Turkish.

The aim of the book is to lead the learner to see the differences between his native language and the target language, as it teaches the language through memorization, translation, and a logical analysis with much emphasis on reading and writing.

The positive points of the book are that it gets the learner to do a great deal of mental exercise, and that it does not put too much heavy burden on the shoulders of the teacher since it does not require the teacher to be creative and to make a pre-teaching preparation.

On the other hand, the book does not include real-life situations and makes no mention of how the participants in a communicative interaction modify their linguistic utterances with respect to their social status. The book may improve the learner's reading and writing ability in the target language. However, there is too much use of the learner's native language in it. Since it mainly covers grammatical points and explanations with many rules, it may create boredom in the learners and may also diminish motivation. Suprasegmental features such as intonation and stress which are significantly influential on meaning are not taught within a wide information. The learners are expected to produce correct utterances too soon through the use of very little knowledge on rules and exceptions. Besides, meaning is taught through translation which needs a special skill; every learner can not be good at translating linguistic utterances. The book seems to neglect communicative purpose in language teaching since it leads the learner to regard himself successful if he can state a grammar rule of the target language or translate the given sentences into and from his native language. The manner it teaches the language is very prescriptive for the learner. As a typical textbook of the Grammar-Translation Method, it has too much explanations and less exercises. The importance given to the culture of the target society is very little in the book.

It can be concluded that the book teaches only the facts about the target language.

### 3.3. A SIMPLE TEXTBOOK FOR THE DIRECT METHOD: A PRIMER OF ENGLISH FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS

The textbook teaches basic English in four parts.

The lessons in the first part are about comparison of objects and persons, nationality, position and possession, parts of the body and simple actions, numbers, shape-size-color with illustrations and a picture, causation, any and some, clothes, the Alphabet, and the review of all the previously taught subjects. The first part of the book also includes very briefly given explanations on rules with some examples and a list of personal and relative pronouns. The practice of the given new language material in the lessons is done with different types of exercises in the target language. All the lessons in this part are studied orally.

The second part in the textbook has 26 lessons which include prose type of texts about different subjects such as time, the year, the weather, the fire, meals, shopping, travelling, the office(Appendix D),



and many others. After the students read a specially constructed short text written with spoken everyday language in the part, they deal with the questions about the text. There are also some personalized questions to be answered by the students. Then, they are given a proverb for oral discussion or to write a composition in the target language.

The third part of the book also teaches the language with the short written texts about such subjects as Seeing London, Correspondence, Wireless, Flying. In this part, the students are given less rules but more written texts in the target language.

The last part includes some selections from the literary works of famous writers of the target society. The prose type literary works are just for pleasure and comprehension and are presented to the advance students. The literary texts are followed by a list of key words used in the literary works, and the definition of each word is given in the target language.

Then comes specimen examination papers which have a number of questions about the subjects of some lessons in each part to test the students' reading comprehension. In addition to the given questions,

the students do fill-in-the-blank type of exercises. The textbook ends with how some sounds in English are pronounced by giving a few examples with no detailed explanation.

The purpose of the book is to enable the students to think in the target language as they learn not literary but everyday spoken language mostly through oral activities which involve communicative practice. It is stated in the book that they must learn to speak English by speaking it, to understand it by hearing it, and to write it by writing it, and that the teacher is expected not to translate any linguistic item, for it is put forward that the students' listening comprehension will be developed since they will hear English spoken all the time in the classroom. Therefore, the only language used throughout the book is the target language which is studied in the lessons through step-by-step progression. As a result of the purpose, synonyms, antonyms, and paraphrases of the unknown words are widely used in the book.

One of the good points of the book is that the lessons in the parts are taught with illustrations, puzzle rhymes, proverbs, maps, pictures, and drawings which all may make teaching natural and may motivate students' interest in the target language and its

culture. In addition to that, the book provides the students with more knowledge on the culture of the target society, for culture is not limited to literary language.

As a summary guide to everyday speech, the book presents a vocabulary concerned with the commoner interests of life and also includes some articles for debates on subjects of interest to help the teacher to create a genuine communication in the classroom and to test the students' progression in learning the language.

The book leads the teacher to make use of a variety of teaching aids in the lessons. By doing so, the teacher may appreciate how teaching aids make learning more effective when they are used appropriately at the necessary time.

Teaching vocabulary contextually is another good point of the book.

Despite of all these good points, the book may be criticized by saying that it is still grammar-based although the lessons in the book provide more comprehensible input through the use of different teaching aids and the target language only than those in a textbook based on the principles of the grammar-translation,

there is still much constraint on the efforts that can provide a great deal of it, for the teacher is expected by the book to attach importance to form and to correct errors as soon as they occur. Even, one of the lessons in the book, A few Hints on Grammar, is dedicated to the teaching of correct use of some prepositions such as with, on, in, and at.

As a conclusion, the book presents the language with a more communicative use of it, even though it still emphasizes accuracy.

#### 3.4. A SAMPLE TEXTBOOK FOR THE AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD:

##### ENGLISH 900: A BASIC COURSE(2)

The textbook has ten study units.

Like the others, Unit 6(Appendix E) begins to teach English with the presentation of the fifteen Base Sentences which cover the basic structures and a basic vocabulary of the language and are related to a meaningful situation. Each of them is given a number. It is followed by Intonation Practice in which intonation patterns are introduced and practiced with a tape-recorder either in the language laboratory or in the classroom. Then comes Questions and Answers which are done for the practice of pairing and matching

the base sentences into conversational form. Next is Substitution Drills which include vocabulary and grammatical substitution techniques to teach the variation sentences. These sections of the unit mentioned above serve for providing the pronunciation practice and drill material to enable the students to use the given forms successfully. The Conversation Section is given within short dialogs to provide the students with an opportunity to practice the given material in informal conversation in the classroom. It is followed by a written text for reading practice. Next is the questions about the topic of the text. The other section contains Exercises. Some of the exercises are done orally and some of them are written drills. Fill-in-the-blanks and transformation type of exercises are given to practice word and verb forms, and some basic tenses in the language. Then, the students are presented a Word List which includes Verb Forms and Expressions used in the conversation and text.

On the last pages of the book, there are a list of irregular verbs, a word index which presents the words introduced in the units in an alphabetical order, and a key to the exercises given in the book.

The aim of the book is to teach the structural patterns, vocabulary, and pronunciation of English

mostly through listening and speaking activities with a tape-recorder in order to form new habits in the students so that they may speak the language as automatically as they speak their native language.

The textbook gives importance to suprasegmental features of the language from the beginning of the course, and it may be helpful with its exercises for the teaching of some of those features.

The other good point of the book is that it introduces in the text for reading comprehension some expressions that are frequently used by native speakers of the language in their daily life.

As the students are exposed to everyday spoken language, the book teaches the culture of the target society in the dialogs and conversations without limiting it to the literary language. The students with this book learn, for example, what a big or light breakfast is.

The book has got some negative points as well. One of them is that before teaching Intonation Practice, the book does not include any section to help the students know the meaning of the sentences they are working with.

The book forces the students to produce their utterances immediately without making an error especially

when they deal with Questions and Answers by requiring them to give correct and full sentences to the questions as soon as they are asked. This may cause anxiety in the students.

According to the teaching order of the book, structural patterns precede vocabulary, and the emphasis in the book is on structural patterns rather than meaning. In addition to that, language forms are given in an insufficient contextualization throughout the book. The dialogs in the book are not designed to be used to negotiate meaning. Because form is more important than the content of them in the book. It is no mean feat to memorize such a dialog as in the Unit 6(Appendix E). The sentences used in it are good examples to an unnatural and contrived use of language.

The book puts much emphasis on pattern drill, and it teaches the lessons through little memorization of dialogs and texts, for memorization of the dialogs is facilitated by going through a rich amount of the drills. It can be said that pattern practice makes very little attempt to meet the requirement of interest and relevance which are very important for the students. Substitution Drills do not aim at providing the students with real communication, for the manipulation of structures is what the purpose of the drills is. With the drills,

the book shows its rejection to cognitive learning. But it teaches the grammar of the language step-by-step within a sequence of structures in an inductive manner by leading the students to work out the rules on the basis of the dialog and pattern practice.

As a conclusion, the book carries an impression that the new language has no capability to convey thought, but to reflect grammatical relationship, and it teaches the formal properties of the language through mechanical drills with emphasis on oral accuracy. Therefore, the students with well-acquired mechanical speech habits may still be unable to think in the language or to speak it in natural social contexts, for they are not provided by the book with meaningful practice and meaningful learning.

### 3.5. A SAMPLE TEXTBOOK FOR THE COGNITIVE-CODE APPROACH:

#### SPANISH FOR COMMUNICATION

The textbook teaches new words and forms with visual aids through contrastive comparisons, explanations, definitions either in the target or native language or in context, and by demonstration to make meaning clear as much as possible, and it attempts to help the students to be able to conceptualize the structures and to use the forms by providing them with new material



as the basis by which they can begin to make a progress slowly and consciously through the use of given concepts in order to be able to express themselves communicatively in the performance activities. In other words, the textbook teaches phonological, semantic, or syntactical aspect of the target language in such a way that the students can grasp the meaning of the concepts in the book.

Before dealing with the exercises, the students are provided with all the information they may need to understand the concept(s) of subject matter. The exercises in the book(Appendix F) are presented with a frame format in which there is all the information the students may make use of in a self-teaching approach to the understanding of the language system. The first thing to be done is to establish comprehension of the English system in the students, and to lead them to relate it to the Spanish. So the students with this type of exercises learn how to make a conscious selection of word or form, and they answer them in the target language by making use of some given clues in their native language. Therefore, the purpose of the exercises in the textbook is to complete the understanding process which has been begun at the beginning of the lesson, to help the students remember the forms taught before, and to provide the students

with an opportunity for the demonstration of the comprehension of usage.

It may be realized that there is a difference between cognitive exercises and audio-lingual drills. The learner is expected to have automatic responses through conditioning by drills. But, cognitive exercises do not aim at triggering automatic, nonthoughtful responses which are immediately reinforced by the teacher, and they are done in independent study situations.

The advantage of using cognitive exercises is that the teacher can spend more class time for application activities if the class is provided with a successful meaningful learning.

The final portion of the unit in the textbook includes communicative activities. The book presents reading and listening comprehension passages so carefully that the students can see how the forms learnt before are used contextually and communicatively. As the students deal with the communicative activities, the book leads them to make use of consciously acquired competence and to express their messages or opinions in the target language. With the material in the final portion of the unit, the book enables the students to answer questions about the listening or reading comprehension passage, to ask and answer personalized

questions, to complete sentences, to describe pictures, and to communicate in a given real-life situation such as having an interview by using the target language.

So, the sequence of the materials to be taught in the textbook leads the students to progress from comprehension to competence and then to performance by presenting to the students the parts to be learnt and then a total communicative picture in meaningful learning, meaningful practice, and meaningful application activities with emphasis on all for language skills which are seen as complementary to each other.

But, the book attaches more importance to learning which may be defined as a conscious process. Yet, language teaching with any material should focus on encouraging acquisition, on providing input that stimulates the subconscious language acquisition potential all normal human beings have. It should be also noted that learning does not necessarily turn into acquisition in every case. A performer who can use complex structures in the language may not know the rule consciously.

As a conclusion, the book teaches language as a subject matter of form and meaning in a communicative manner with the requirement of an intellectual activity throughout the learning process.

### 3.6. A SAMPLE TEXTBOOK FOR THE COMMUNICATIVE(FUNCTIONAL/ NOTIONAL) APPROACH: BUILDING STRATEGIES(2)

The textbook has 16 units which cover grammatical structures of the target language with emphasis on developing skills of discourse within a wide range of communicative settings in order to teach the learner important discourse functions such as description, narration, instruction and explanation in such a manner that the four language skills are practiced with equal emphasis on each of them with a variety of spoken and written-text types, visual and recorded materials, activities and games presented in real-life contexts with respect to the learner's own experience and his communicative needs.

Unit 14, which was chosen as a sample unit (Appendix G), begins to teach English with a dialog recorded on a tape for the practice of listening and understanding. In the unit, a press release which includes a very brief information about a person is also presented to the students. The aim of the dialog is to increase the students' listening comprehension, to introduce new language items in a context to show their function, and to improve pronunciation and intonation. The dialog is followed by comprehension questions. The book provides the students with another activity

for the listening comprehension by presenting a recorded material "The Radio Bristol Quiz" in the Extension Part of the unit.

For the practice of speaking, the students work in pairs to ask and answer the questions in Set 1 about the person in the dialog, using the press release. They practice the new structure and vocabulary, as they deal with this activity. When it is finished, they ask and answer the questions in the book about their own life this time, working in pairs.

For the practice of writing, a short paragraph is given as an example in the unit, and the students write a paragraph about one of their friends or relatives by making use of it. Another activity involves completing a chart presented in Set 2 to enable the students to use the new structure and new vocabulary in the written language. Then the class is divided into twos, and one student in each pair makes and completes another chart for his partner's life by taking turns after getting the necessary information through oral exchange. The other activity presented by the book for the writing section is that the students write a short biography about themselves by making use of the given article as a guide.

For the reading comprehension, the students read the article about the autobiography of the person introduced in the dialog at the beginning of the unit, and do the questions to answer what each paragraph in the article is about. In the Extension Part, there is another article, the subject of which is on a very famous singer's life story.

The Oral Exercises include role-plays and dialogs. The students are required by the book to work in pairs for the role-play, supposing that one student in each pair is the singer introduced at the beginning of the unit, and the other one is the interviewer. Then they perform it. Another role-play is also presented in the Extension Part. The aim of the oral exercises is to give the student practice in manipulating the structures, and to make him aware of their function in a broader context, so that he will know how and when to use them.

The unit ends with the section which provides the students with a checklist of the structures, functions, and vocabulary taught before by giving example sentences, a summary of the grammar in a substitution table and a list of the new words and phrases.

The aim of the book is to present the language the student may need to take an active part in a wide

range of social situations so that he may be able to talk about himself, his personal preferences and experience, express his own opinions, and realize different degrees of formality, attitudes and moods in given settings.

One of the good points of the book is that the activities for listening comprehension and the dialogs presented in it contain real and natural use of the language with emphasis on everyday spoken language. Besides, the language in them is taught with a wide range of accents and dialects.

The book can help the students to see how they can apply the grammar as they practice and use grammatical forms not in isolation, but in meaningful contextual situations with different functional purposes through the use of dialogs, role-plays, oral exercises, reading and writing activities. So their motivation may increase to a great extent. Also, oral exercises, role-plays, dialogs, reading and writing activities contribute to the development of creativeness in their performance, for the book encourages personal expression and free style of writing. The exercises for the practice of writing in the units may develop their ability to express the orally practiced information, ideas and attitudes in appropriate written form of the language

as well. In addition to that, the book teaches the language in such a manner that the students can relate their own experience to what they practice in these communicative activities. So, learning becomes meaningful to them.

By the book, the student becomes more sensitive to the concept of appropriacy.

The units in the book present the language in realistic, social and human situations in which the student can play a variety of social roles and show a better performance.

The book provides the students with interesting and imaginative subjects, situations. Therefore, they may find language learning enjoyable.

The linguistic items and information are presented in the book with respect to whether they will be of direct use to the students, since their needs are given more importance.

Each unit in the book leads the student to see that one grammatical form may have different meanings and be used for different functions.

The book includes a rich information about the culture of the target society. While teaching



it, it makes use of pictures, photos, maps, articles from newspapers, illustrations, and drawings. It also includes authentic language to allow the student to be familiar with it and to be exposed to a rich variety of language use so that he may make use of it in his performance.

In spite of these advantages of the book mentioned above, the teacher, however, may feel that he is to have more experience in what situation, which structures, words, and suprasegmental features can be used more appropriately in the language since the book gives more importance to the concept of appropriacy.

The other point is that the teacher should have a wide information about the culture of the target society, for the book presents it not in a limited range.

As a conclusion, it can be said that the book draws the student's attention to the communicative value of what he is learning rather than to its formal aspects as it teaches strategies for handling particular language functions without any grammatical explanation.

3.7. A SOURCEBOOK FOR THE AFFECTIVE/HUMANISTIC APPROACH:  
CARING AND SHARING IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASS

In this section, there will be actually no evaluation of any textbook based on the humanistic approach but that of humanistic exercises which are introduced in a sourcebook on humanistic techniques for language teachers who will apply this approach in their lesson. The main reason is that it is hardly possible to find a textbook based on the approach, for what is important is class atmosphere rather than method and teaching materials. It is explained by the writer of the book, Gertrude Moskowitz(1978), that:

"I see \_\_\_\_\_ the first thing you want to know is what are you supposed to do with the materials you already have and are expected to use in your foreign language classes. The answer \_\_\_\_\_ use them! Humanistic techniques can be included to supplement, review, and introduce your already existing materials. The reality of the situation is that almost every foreign language program uses commercially prepared materials, which are usually a large expenditure for the school district. The intention is not to discard these. Include an awareness activity wherever one relates to what the students are studying or where you find it appropriate."

Moskowitz, 1978: p.23.

Before the book introduces 120 humanistic exercises, one of which is presented in Appendix H, it is explained to language teachers how to fit them in humanistic exercises. It is supposed that the topic of a reading passage in a textbook is about exchanging gifts. The teacher may choose the topic of gifts and ask the students the question of what gift they would like more than anything in the world to have. So, such an exercise may be used to develop the ability to speak or to write in the target language.

Humanistic exercises can be helpful for the teacher to have a real communicative use of language in the classroom, for they provide the students with many opportunities to express their own opinions as they make comments or discussions during or at the end of the exercises.

Since students' feelings, opinions, values, and beliefs are recognized in humanistic exercises, they can become eager to participate in the activities and show a willingness to use the language once they have realized that they are given importance and shown respect. So, positive attitudes toward each other develop, and this makes the classroom a lively and nonthreatening setting.

Through the use of humanistic exercises, the atmosphere created in the classroom provides students with learnings and an environment that may facilitate the achievement of the full potential they have.

Humanistic exercises help students to see that personal growth and cognitive growth are two dimensions of humans which can not be thought separately.

By dealing with humanistic exercises, it may be possible to establish healthy relationships in the classroom. This may be contributive to learning. Because if students have negative feelings toward their classmates or the teacher, they are likely to show a rejection or to be critical to learning all the time.

The teacher is provided with a great degree of flexibility as he designs the curriculum which includes humanistic exercises, for the linguistic purposes of such exercises cover a wide range of teaching points.

As a criticism against such exercises, it can be said that the teacher may need a relatively long time to make a plan about which exercises are more related to the subject of the lesson, and about

how to present them in the classroom more efficiently before the class begins.

The second point is that the teacher should choose and explain the topic so carefully that it does not cause the students to deal with their negative sides as they practice the language with a humanistic exercise. Otherwise, it may give rise to some undesirable results because of a lack of awareness of the teacher.

There may be some humanistic exercises to which one student may not want to respond when it is his turn as he deals with one of them, for the thing he wants to say is not appropriate for him to share, or not important enough.

So, the book with humanistic exercises relies basically on the emotional side of human beings, and aims at bringing about the desperately needed changes in education toward a humanistic teaching of language.

### 3.8. CONCLUSION

The evaluation of the sample textbooks representing different approaches has shown that each book has its advantages and disadvantages. None of the textbooks is completely good or completely bad. Therefore, the

exploitation and use of such textbooks effectively is left to the resourcefulness and creativeness of the language teacher. He/she could adapt the textbook according to the needs of his students.

## CHAPTER IV

### SUGGESTION TOWARD AN ECLECTIC APPROACH

#### 4.1. FUNDAMENTALS OF THE ECLECTIC APPROACH

The suggested approach emphasizes creating a humanistic atmosphere in the classroom and takes some specific features of the Communicative Approach and the Direct Method.

The theoretical assumption of the approach is that the better students feel about themselves and others, the more likely they are to achieve. Developing healthy relations, recognizing interdependence, expressing one's feelings, achieving one's potential, sharing oneself, and giving and receiving support constitute the emphasis, for they are seen as conducive to learning. So, the approach encourages self-actualization. Teachers are expected to give importance to students' intellectual

and emotional sides, to promote the positive psychological growth of students, and to be aware of that there is increased attention when they want to talk about what they want to say and are attentive and interested. The teacher should help the student find a meaning in given facts.

Since students have a range of experience, interests and knowledge of the world which they can share, learning may occur more effectively if the teacher can stimulate them to make their own contributions. Therefore, the approach aims at integrating the subject matter and personal growth dimensions into the curriculum. The content of it relates to the feelings, experiences, lives, memories, emotions, hopes, aspirations, beliefs, values, needs, and fantasies of students. As the student talks about his own growth and development, shares what is important to him, and participates in personally reinforcing interaction, he is fully involved in the communicative interaction with his classmates and teacher.

The syllabus to be followed in the application of the approach teaches grammar with focus on form, meaning, and function in such a way that the student will see the immediate practical application of what he is learning while covering the more important structures of the language introduced in a graded sequence. Based



on that syllabus, the new structure and new words are taught in context rather than in isolation through the use of visual, audio-visual teaching aids, realia, paraphrases, synonyms, antonyms, drawings, pantomime, demonstration. Students are not asked to memorize the new words. The teacher may select only two or three students for the practice of pronunciation of the words, and they repeat individually.

Communicative exercises are intended to help the student to be aware of the influence of attitude to listener/reader or situation on the choice of language form. In the exercises, the four skills are practiced with emphasis on communication. To develop students' listening skill, the teacher may present a dialog that contains language items introduced in realistic, human and social situations and ask them to discuss, or to summarize it, or to give answers to the questions about it. The important point is that they should be able to distinguish the important words in spoken English while listening. The teacher may use a tape recorder in the classroom. The practice of the speaking skill is performed through the use of oral exercises, open dialogs, role-plays, games, and songs. For the practice of reading, the teacher may give a reading passage of authentic language, ask the students to find the functions being taught in the written text,

want them to say them in another way with similar meaning, and require them to ask and answer some questions about the topic of it. The use of authentic materials may give students practice in real English and provide them with a wide range of language use. The practice of writing skill is done with the exercises which aim at enabling the students to use the language more creatively as they practice a function or topic with an appropriate structure during the writing of, for example, a free composition.

Most of the activities are carried out to help students become fluent and increasingly accurate. The four language skills practiced in the activities are developed in a communicative manner with no priority to any of them, for it is believed that the student should not be presented only with language that is within his productive range. As students deal with the activities, an error may occur. In such a case, the teacher should be prepared to accept it not as evidence of carelessness, or unsuccessful teaching, but as that of the fact that the student who has made it is in the learning process. The teacher may correct only those errors that cause semantic confusion, and those that are very often made. In the activities, the teacher may use the mother tongue to give the learning goals of each lesson, and to give the background setting

for dialogs, listening and reading passages without constant shifts from one language to another.

The suggested approach is a learner-centred one. The teacher is not the focus of everything that happens in the classroom. He may have a less important role. Interaction in the classroom is mostly student-to-student. The task of the teacher is just to manage learning in such a way that he observes, notes points that need further work, and helps students as necessary.

So, this approach views the school as a place where students come to have a high regard for themselves as learners and as human beings, and it views the classroom as a place full of learning activities in which students participate enthusiastically and authentically, as a place where each student is given a genuine respect and seen as a human being by the teacher and involved in living learning.

#### 4.2. APPLICATION OF THE APPROACH

For this section, Unit Three The First Lesson (Appendix I) in An English Course for Turks(Intermediate 1) was chosen as a sample unit, in which The Simple Future and The Simple Future + 'if' and 'when' clauses are introduced, to teach it in an eclectic manner through the use of the approach.

As mentioned in Section 1.1.4., the time allocated to teaching English in Turkish public junior high schools is only 3 periods per week, and each period lasts 40 minutes. The following application has been developed for a week. It is assumed that the periods are distributed as two periods one day, and one period the following day.

After warming up the class, the teacher announces that they are going to learn The Simple Future + 'if' and 'when' clauses with its functions. Using a calendar, he may begin to teach the lesson by saying, "Yesterday, the date was February 2nd. Today, it is February 3rd. Tomorrow it will be February 4th." Then, he asks the students, "Which month are we in now?" They say, "We are in February now." The teacher directs another question: "Which month will follow February after the end of it?" They say, "March will follow February after the end of it." The next question from the teacher to the class is: "In which month will you be on holiday?" They reply it by saying, "We will be on holiday in June."

In the next activity, the teacher distributes a handout, on one side of which there is a formal letter(Appendix J), and he tells that every student will put it face down on the desk, so that no one

will see the letter. Firstly, the teacher introduces the setting and context. After that, the tape is played. They listen to it, trying to understand some details in the letter. Then, the teacher explains new vocabulary and expressions. The tape is played again. When it is finished, he asks questions to check how much they have understood the details.

For the next activity, the class is divided into twos and deals with an open dialog(Appendix J) on the same side of the handout. One student in the pair takes the role of Jack, and the other student performs the role of Peggy. The task of the students is to complete the conversation by making use of the letter. As they deal with the open dialog, the teacher joins each group for help as necessary.

When it is finished, the students participate in another activity, in which they are required to work in pairs to communicate with each other in the target language about travel arrangements, using the chart(Appendix K) on the other side of the handout.

It is followed by another activity, in which the students make groups of five. Each group completes and fills in the questionarie(Appendix L) on one side of the second handout. After it is finished, the groups have a discussion in the classroom by telling their

predictions and making their comments on them. They are expected to support their own predictions as well.

Next is the activity which is carried out with a map(Appendix L) on the same side of the handout. After dividing the class into threes, the teacher explains the topic by saying, "Suppose that you have got an opportunity for a world tour with your two friends. Think about which cities on the map you will visit, what you will do there, which things you will take with you, and how you will feel yourself when you are about to set off." Each group is given a chance to perform the activity to the class. As one group talks about their future plans in the target language, the other groups may ask questions to learn more about its members' feelings, beliefs, opinions. At the end of this activity, the first two lessons are finished.

On the following day, the last lesson of the week begins with the reading activity, in which the teacher tells the class that they will work in pairs as they read a written text(Appendix M) presented on the other side of the second handout and underline the sentences having a prediction to find out how many predictions are used in each topic. Then each pair writes down some questions about the text and asks them to other pairs. This activity is followed

by another one in which the students read the personal letter presented in the textbook and compare it to the formal one used for the listening comprehension to see what specific differences they have. They express their opinions as they discuss it.

To practice the writing skill in the target language, the students work in pairs and select one of the dialogs introduced in the textbook. Each pair writes an extension part to the dialog they have selected in a free style by using the linguistic items being taught. When the writing is finished, they read it. Each pair's written work is discussed, and comments are made on it by the class.

Before the students participate in the next activity, the teacher gives them time to get comfortable and asks some relaxing questions to get them ready for the fantasy, in which they experience the ideal school day from the time they awaken in the morning until they leave for home at the end of the school day. When they begin to imagine the day in the classroom, they close their eyes for five or seven minutes. At the end of the given time, the teacher asks them to open their eyes. He divides the class into threes. Each member in one group tells the other members of the group what his/her ideal school day was like,

taking turns. Then everyone tells the most important thing they envisioned in their ideal school fantasy to the total class. When it is finished, they write the fantasy they experienced, using the new structure, for example, "In my fantasy school there will be no tests." It is followed by a discussion about what types of things the students would like to see changed and how many of these can be changed.

At the end of the lesson, the teacher assigns a homework. He asks the students to project into the future five years from now and suggests that they may consider a number of things such as where they will live, how they will spend much of their time, which occupation they will have, what will be the most important thing in their life, and so on as they write it at home.



## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSION

The main aim of this study is to present a methodological suggestion to ELT teachers in Turkish public junior high schools for teaching the target language in an eclectic manner. To achieve this, the six language teaching methods, three of which are actually known as an approach, were reviewed to select good points from some of them. In addition to that, six sample textbooks based on each of the methods reviewed in the study were evaluated for the same purpose. Then, the Eclectic Approach as a suggestion for ELT in public junior high schools was built on the base constituted by those good points as the fundamentals of the approach for an effective language teaching with the materials available.

Teaching the target language by the suggested approach brings about the necessity for some certain modifications of the current language teaching programs to improve ELT in secondary schools. It is thought that teacher training programs should be modified to provide teacher trainees with knowledge on the nature of language and learning, and on language teaching approaches and methods. Teacher training programs should also be prepared in such a manner that they become aware of the psychological and sociological factors in language teaching, and the student's strategies he has already got while learning his native language. Besides, showing respect to one's ideas, opinions, feelings, beliefs, and inner world should be emphasized in teacher training programs to create a more positive environment. To make them more proficient in their field, pre-service and in-service training programs on the new developments, scientific studies related to language teaching/learning, new classroom techniques will be of great help.

It is believed that it may be more profitable to make the language lesson elective for the students in secondary schools and to increase the hours allocated to language teaching.

So, preparing the language teaching curriculum along the lines of the suggested approach may give rise to creating such a learning situation and humanistic education that the students in secondary schools are given real chances to help them to achieve their full potentiality and to realize that human beings are worth showing respect.

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## APPENDIXES

### APPENDIX A

A Sample Unit from An English Course for Turks:  
Teacher's Book Elementary I.

## UNIT ONE

### The First Lesson:

#### A. Pronunciation:

Pronunciation of the plural suffix: /-s /-à/ /-iz/.

#### B. Structure:

1. Numbers
2. Plural of nouns
3. But, only
4. They are

#### Vocabulary

one/wan/	plane/pleyn/
two/tuw/	hospital/hóspitəl/
three/θriy/	room/ruwm/
four/for/	shop/şop/
five/fayv/	bridge/bric/
six/siks/	roof/ruwf/
seven/sévon/	office/ófis/
eight/eyt/	farm/farm/
nine/nayn/	friend/frend/
ten/ten/	boy/boy/
eleven/ilévon/	tail/to:l/
twelve/twelv/	only/ównliy/
thirteen/θortiyñ/	count/kawnt/
fourteen/fortiyñ/	they are /ðey ar/
fifteen/fiftiyñ/	
sixteen/sikstiyñ/	
seventeen/sevontiyñ/	
eighteen/eytiyñ/	
nineteen/nayntiyñ/	
twenty/twéntiy/	

## BOOKS SHUT

## A. Pronunciation

Say the following. Students listen.

/-s/	/-z/	/-iz/
cats	flies	oranges
shirts	dogs	watches
clocks	cars	buses
stamps	trees	brushes
handkerchiefs	umbrellas	glasses
	apples	dishes
		dresses
		houses

Say again with the students repeating after you.

## B. Structure

B1  
Numbers

Teach counting from one to twenty in the following way:

- a. Count from one to twelve. Students listen.  
(use rising, rising falling intonation.)  
one, two, three ..... twelve

- b. Write the figures on the board to teach meaning.

Pointing to the numbers pronounce them and have the students repeat.

- c. Check comprehension by showing the figures on the board.  
The whole class responds.

- d. Following the steps teach the numbers from 13 to 20.

B2  
Plural of  
Nouns

Using charts 1 a and 1 b do the following drill. Pay attention to the three different pronunciations of the plural suffix:

/-s, -z, -iz/

a. Point to and pronounce the chart items from one to four in contrastive pairs. Students listen.

cat	cats
clock	clocks
stamp	stamps
handkerchief	handkerchiefs (the form handkerchieves -z/ is also common)

b. Do the same thing again. This time have the students repeat after you.

c. Following steps a and b use the chart items from 5 to 10.

d. Following steps a and b use the chart items 11 to 20.

e. Count the objects in the classroom.

T: (Counting the walls) One, two, three, four walls.  
(Counting the windows) One, two, three windows.

### Count

f. Teach the word 'count' and then ask the class to count various objects such as the walls, windows, desks, chairs.

T: Count the walls.

Class: One, two, three, four walls.

g. Put some books, pens, pencils, handkerchiefs, etc. on the table. Holding up a number of books, pencils, etc., count them. Students listen. (You can take pens, etc., from the students. "I've got" does not necessarily mean "I own them.")

T: One, two, three.  
I've got three books.  
One, two, three, four.  
I've got four pens.

h. Have some students count their books, pencils, etc.

T: Ali, count your books.

Ali: One, two. I've got two books.

T: Ali has got two books.

Class: He's got two books.

T: Sevim, count your pencils.

Sevim: One, two, three.

T: Sevim has got three pencils.

Class: She's got three pencils.

Continue with other students and objects.

Introduction of 'but' and 'only'.

a. Hold up your books, pens, etc. (more than one) and have a student hold up his book, pen, etc. (Note that 'one' is stressed.

T: (Holding up two pencils) Ali, hold up your pencil.  
(Ali holds up his pencil.) I've got two pencils, but he's only got one.

Class: You've got two pencils, but he's only got one.

Continue with a few other objects in the classroom, e.g. books, pieces of chalk, handkerchiefs, pens, bags.

Introduction of 'they are'.

a. Review "Where is it?"

T: Alper, take your book and put it in your bag.  
Where is your book?

Alper: It's in my bag.

T: Günhan, take your pencil and put it in your pocket.  
Where is your pencil?

Günhan: It's in my pocket.

Continue with more students.

b. Ask the students to carry out various orders.

B 3  
But  
only

B 3  
They are

T: Eray, take two pieces of chalk. Put the pieces of chalk on the table. (Eray carries out the order.)

T: The pieces of chalk are on the table.

Class: The pieces of chalk are on the table.

Continue with:

Three books	on the desk.
Two pencils	in the bag.
Five matches	under the box,

c. Have various objects on our desk. Take some of them and put them somewhere else. Students watch and listen.

T: (Putting the books on the chair.) Where are the books?  
They are on the chair.

(Put the pencils on the books.) Where are the pencils?  
They are on the books.

d. Have the students carry out orders.

T: Ali, put the books on the table.  
Where are they?

Ali: They are on the table.

Continue with a few more students and objects.

Vo aban- Pointing to the appropriate Chart II a pictures, pronounce the  
lar, following words. Students listen.

plane/pleyn/	room/ruwn/
roof/ruwf/	shop/sop/
hospital/hospitol/	bridge/bric/
office/ofis/	farm/farm/

a. Have the students repeat the words above. Check for correct pronunciation.

b. Pointing to chart II a pronounce the following sentences. Students listen.

1. The pilot is in the plane.

2. The fireman is on the roof.



3. The nurse is in the hospital.
4. The typist is in the office.
5. The dentist is in the room.
6. The butcher is in the shop.
7. The grocer is in the shop.
8. The air-hostesses are on the plane.
9. The engineer is under the bridge.
10. The farmer is on the farm.

c. Looking at Chart II a say the sentences above and have the students repeat after you.

d. Using Chart II a do the following drill.

T: Where is the pilot?

Gr. A: He's in the plane.

T: Fireman.

Gr. A: Where is the fireman?

Gr. B: He's on the roof.

f. Using Chart II a ask questions with 'who'. Class, groups or individual students answer.

T: Who is in the plane?

Class: The pilot is.

T: Who is on the roof?

Class: The fireman is.

Continue with all Chart items.

g. Have the groups do the following drill.

T: The plane.

Gr. A: Who is in the plane?

Gr. B: The pilot is.

T: The roof.

Gr. A: Who is on the roof?

Gr. B: The fireman is.

## BOOKS OPEN

## Part I : Structure

Students repeat after teacher:

- T: Look at picture one. A book.  
 Class: A book.  
 T: Look at picture two. Books.  
 Class: Books.  
 T: Look at picture three. He's got two books.  
 Class: He's got two books.

Introduce the other pictures. Students repeat.

Do the following.

- T: Look at picture one. Is this a thick book?  
 Class: Yes, it is.  
 T: Is it open?  
 Class: No, it isn't. It's shut.

Continue with the adjectives given below.

- Picture 2 thick, open, shut.  
 " 4 - 5 big, small.  
 " 7 - 8 big, small, open, shut, empty, full.

Do the following.

- T: Look at picture 3. Has he got two books?  
 Class: Yes, he has.  
 T: Look at picture 3. Has he got four books?  
 Class: No, he hasn't.  
 T: He's got two books.

Repeat with pictures 6 and 9.

Teach the dialogue following the instructions in the Introduction.

**Part II : Reading**

Teach the new words: 'friend' /frend/, 'boy' /boy/, 'tall' /to:l/.

Do the reading following the instructions in the Introduction.  
Ask questions such as:

- Where is Jack?
- Where are his friends?
- Who is at the blackboard?
- Has he got two pens, too?

**Part III : Drills.**

A, B, C Drills should be done orally in class first and then given as homework.

D. Teach the reading of the rhyme beating the correct rhythm on your desk with your hand or pencil. Practise until the students have memorized it.

**Part IV : Dictation.**

Give the dictation following the instructions in the Introduction.  
(Use the tape, if available.)

Write the plurals of these nouns:

1. a box; four
2. a shirt; two
3. an apple; six
4. a dress; eight
5. a piece of chalk; ten

Read the following, and if you wish, use as a dictation passage.  
Jack/is in the classroom./His friends/are in the classroom, too./  
Are they short? /Yes,/ they are. /Jack's got one box/. I've got  
three boxes.

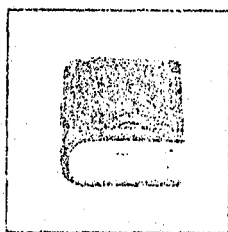
## APPENDIX B

A Sample Unit from An English Course for Turks:  
Elementary I.

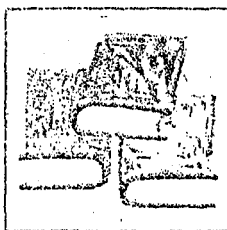
# UNIT ONE

## The First Lesson

### PART I. STRUCTURE



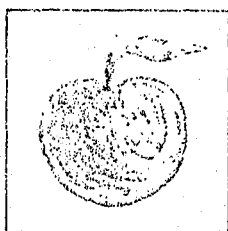
a book



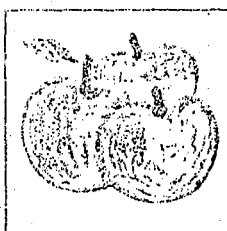
books



I've got two books.



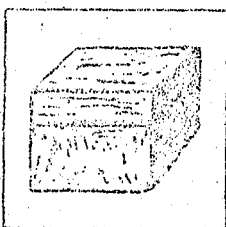
an apple



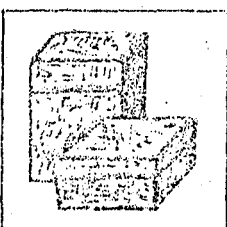
apples



He's got three apples.



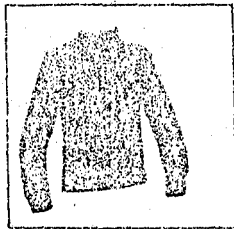
a box



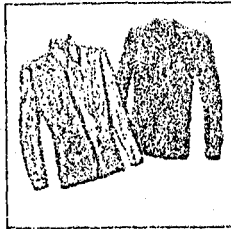
boxes



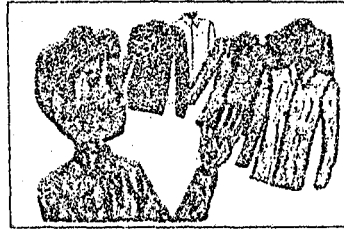
She's got four boxes.



a shirt



shirts



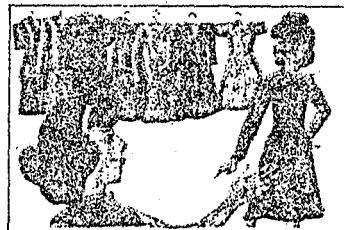
I've got five shirts.



a dress



dresses

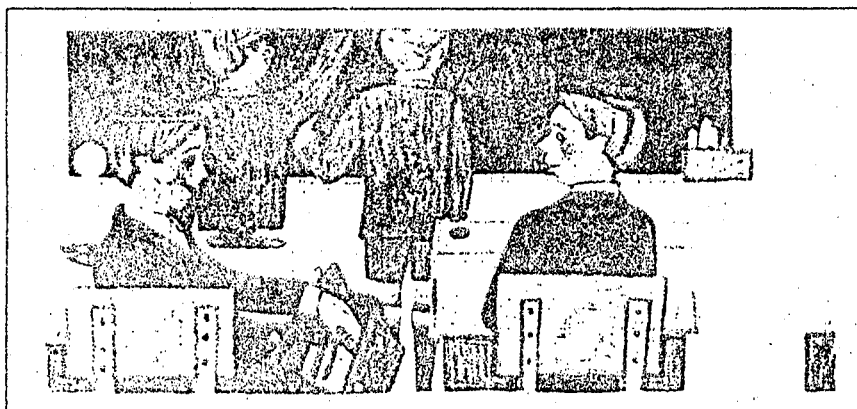


She's got seven dresses.



- Teacher: Come here, Ali. Write your name on the blackboard.  
 Ali : The duster is here, but where are the pieces of chalk?  
 Teacher: They're in that box, aren't they?  
 Ali : Oh, yes. Here they are.

PART II.  
READING



Jack and his friends are in the classroom. Two boys are at the blackboard. They're short boys. They're not tall. Jack is at his desk. He's got two pencils but only one pen on his desk. His books and notebooks aren't on his desk. They're in his bag.

PART III.  
LEARNING DRILLS

A.

one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen, sixteen, seventeen

11 12 13 14 15 16 17

eighteen, nineteen, twenty

18 19 20

B.

*Fill in the blanks.*

1. I've got *two* books.
2. He's got ..... shirts.
3. She's got four .....
4. I've got ..... apples.
5. He's got six .....
6. She's got ..... dresses.

**C.**

*Fill in the blanks.*

1. The pilot *is in* the plane.
2. The fireman ... .. the roof.
3. The nurses ... .. the hospital.
4. The typist ... .. the office.
5. The dentist ... .. the room.
6. The butcher ... .. the shop.
7. The grocers ... .. the shop.
8. The air-hostesses ... .. the plane.
9. The engineer... .. the bridge.
10. The farmers ... .. the farm.

**D.**

One, two, three, four,  
The tall man is at the door.  
Five, six, seven, eight,  
Eleven students are late.  
Nine, ten, nine, ten,  
Look at the picture and count the men.

**PART IV.  
DICTATION**

Jack is in the classroom. His friends are in the classroom, too.  
Are they short? Yes, they are. Jack's got one box. I've got three boxes.

## LESSON THREE

43

## 82. THE VERB 'to be': PAST TENSE

(1) Under the English verb 'to be' are included a number of words of different origins (be, am, is, are, was) and the same is true in Turkish. We have already met the present tense (§ 67). For the infinitive, *olmak* is used, which properly means 'to come to be, become, occur, mature'. The past tense is based on a stem *i-*, to which are added the past suffixes shown in § 81:

*idim*, I was  
*idin*, thou wert  
*idi*, he was

*idik*, we were  
*idiniz*, you were  
*idiler*, they were

These forms, which are unaccented, are used either as independent words or, especially in conversation, as suffixes. In the latter case, the first *i* disappears after consonants and changes to *y* after vowels, the remainder of the word undergoing the fourfold vowel harmony.

*adam idi* or *adandı*, it was the man  
*müdür idiniz* or *müdürdünüz*, you were the director  
*kitap idi* or *kitaptı* (§ 44), it was the book  
*yorgun idik* or *yorgunduk*, we were tired  
*sinemada idiniz* or *sinemadaydınız*, you were at the cinema.

(2) The interrogative *mi*<sup>4</sup> usually combines with *idim*, etc.:

*hazır mıydın* (for *mi idim*), was I ready?  
*hazır mıydın*, wert thou ready?  
*hazır mıydı*, was he ready?  
 etc.

*meşgul müydüm* (for *mü idim*), was I busy?  
*yorgun muydum* (for *mu idim*), was I tired?  
*tembel miydim* (for *mi idim*), was I lazy?

*Note*: The past tense of *olmak*, 'to become', is regular: *oldum*, *oldun*, *oldu*, etc. So *asker olmak* means 'to be or to become a soldier', but *asker idim* (*askerdim*), 'I was a soldier'; *asker oldum*, 'I became a soldier'.

## 83. THE VERB: NEGATIVE

(1) The negative of all verbs, except for those parts of 'to be' which are based on the stem *i-*, is made by adding *me/ma* to the stem. To the negative stem so formed are added tense- and



other suffixes. The main accent in the sentence comes on the syllable before the *me/ma*.

*istemek*, to want; *istedim*, I wanted  
*istememek*, not to want; *istemedim*, I did not want  
*bakmak*, to look; *baktınız*, you looked  
*bakmamak*, not to look; *bakmadınız*, you did not look  
*olmak*, to become; *oldum*, I became  
*olmamak*, not to become; *olmadım*, I did not become

(2) The past tense of *olmamak* when it means 'not to be'; in other words, the negative of *idim* (§ 82) is:

*değil idim* or *değildim*, I was not  
*değil idin* or *değildin*, thou wert not  
*değil idi* or *değildi*, he was not  
*değil idik* or *değildik*, we were not  
*değil idiniz* or *değildiniz*, you were not  
*değil idiler* or *değildiler* or *değillerdi*, they were not

(3) The negative interrogative is formed as explained in §§ 73, 82 (2): *Bakmadınız mı?* 'Didn't you look?' *Olmadım mı?* 'Didn't I become?' *Hazır değil miydik?* 'Weren't we ready?'

#### 84. 'TO HAVE'—*Var, Yok*

The words *var* and *yok* ('existent' and 'non-existent') are used for 'there is' and 'there is not' respectively: *Bu şehirde iyi bir otel var mı?* 'Is there a good hotel in this city?' *Odamda su yok*, 'There's no water in my room'. These two words are employed where English uses the verb 'to have', thus: *Bir kardeş-im var (dır)* ('a my-brother existent is'), 'I have a brother'; *iş-iniz yok mu?* ('your-work non-existent?'), 'Have you no work?'. Answer: *var*, 'I have', or *yok*, 'I have not'. *Para-m yok*, 'I have no money'. An alternative translation for this is *ben-de para yok* ('in-me money non-existent'). The latter does not denote such absolute penury as *param yok*, but means rather 'I've no money on me'.

Past tense: *müdür-in otomobil-i yok-tu* ('the director's car was-non-existent'), 'the director had no car'; *bir komşu-muz var-dı*, 'we had a neighbour'.

*var, yok* are used only in the present tense and with those parts of *olmak* based on the stem *i-* (see § 183). Otherwise the requisite part of *olmak* is used alone: 'we shall have a holiday' becomes 'an our-holiday will be'.

## LESSON THREE

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*Note*: Distinguish between *vardı* (§ 82), 'there was', and *vardı*, 'he arrived', past tense of *varmak*.

85. The object of a verb is often not expressed when it is quite clear from the context: 'He showed me the coat, but I didn't like (it) so I didn't buy (it)'. Numerous examples will be found in the Exercises.

86. THE SUFFIX *-li*

(1) The addition of *-li* to a noun makes an adjective or noun meaning 'characterized by or possessing whatever the original noun represents'. The resemblance to the English suffix *-ly*, as in *shapely* from *shape*, is a useful aid to the memory, but is sheer coincidence.

*Bizans*, Byzantium; *Bizanslı*, Byzantine  
*Londra*, London; *Londralı*, Londoner  
*kıymet*, value; *kıymetli*, valuable  
*uzun boy*, long stature; *uzun boylu*, tall  
*orta*, middle; *orta boylu*, of medium height  
*mâna*, meaning; *mânalı*, significant  
*rutubet*, moisture; *rutubetli*, moist, damp  
*ev*, house, home; *evli*, married  
*köy*, village; *köylü*, villager  
*sen*, thou, *ben*, I; *senli benli*, informally (cf. § 67, *Note*)  
*resim (-smi)*, picture; *resimli*, illustrated

(2) *-li* is also added to adjectives of colour, thus: *kırmızı*, 'red'; *kırmızılı*, 'dressed in red'.

(3) If *-li* is added to a phrase containing a qualifying noun the possessive suffix is dropped: *Osman ad-ı* ('Osman its-name'), 'the name "Osman"'; *Osman ad-li bir genç*, 'a young man named O.' ('O.-named'); *23 Nisan tarih-i* ('23 April its-date'), 'the date 23 April'; *23 Nisan tarih-li mektub-unuz*, 'your letter dated 23 April'.

87. THE SUFFIX *-siz*

*-siz* means 'without':

*akıl*, intelligence; *akılsız*, stupid  
*son*, end; *sensuz*, endless  
 *fayda*, use; *faydasız*, useless  
 *edep*, good breeding; *edepsiz*, ill-bred, mannerless  
*sen*, thou; *sensiz*, without thee  
*o*, he; *o-n-suz* (§ 70), without him  
 So *kıymetsiz*, 'valueless'; *mânasız*, 'meaningless'.

## Vocabulary 3

<i>ada</i> , island	<i>kardeş</i> , brother or sister; <i>kız-</i> <i>kardeş</i> , sister
<i>adres</i> , address	<i>kaynak</i> , source, spring
<i>ağaç</i> , tree	<i>kazanç</i> , profit, gain
<i>ana</i> , <i>anne</i> ,* mother	<i>kılık</i> , aspect, costume, 'get-up'
<i>asıl</i> , <i>gerçek</i> , real, genuine	<i>maalesef</i> , unfortunately
<i>bahçe</i> , garden	<i>memleket (-ti)</i> , country, land
<i>başka</i> , other, different	<i>mâmur</i> , official, Civil Servant
<i>başlıca</i> , chief, principal	<i>meyva</i> , fruit
<i>belki</i> , perhaps	<i>niçin</i> , why?
<i>bile</i> (follows the word it modi- fies), even	<i>oda</i> , room
<i>boş</i> , empty, vacant	<i>oğul (-ğlü)</i> , son
<i>büyük</i> , great, big	<i>otel</i> , hotel
<i>cumhuriyet (-ti)</i> , republic	<i>palto</i> , overcoat
<i>çok</i> , many, much, a lot of	<i>pasaport (-tu)</i> , passport
<i>devlet (-ti)</i> , State	<i>perişan</i> , untidy, disordered
<i>efendi</i> , master	<i>polis</i> , police, policeman
<i>eser</i> , work, effect	<i>saat (-ti)</i> , hour, watch, clock
<i>fakat</i> , but	<i>sabah</i> , morning
<i>Fâtiḥ</i> , Conqueror (Sultan Meh- met II)	<i>sarı</i> , yellow
<i>halk (-ki)</i> , people, the common people	<i>sene, yıl</i> , year
<i>içki</i> , alcoholic drink	<i>sergi</i> , exhibition, display
<i>ihisar</i> , monopoly	<i>sokak</i> , street
<i>iskele</i> , quay, landing-stage	<i>şapka</i> , hat
<i>kapalı</i> , closed, covered	<i>taşınmak</i> , to move (house)
	<i>vakit (-kii)</i> , time
	<i>yatak</i> , bed

## Exercise 3

(A) *Translate into English*: (1) İstanbul sergi-si-ne gitmek istedik, fakat vakt-imiz yoktu. (2) Polis memurları pasaport-um-a bakmadılar bile. (3) Arkadaşlar-ımız dün başka bir ev-e taşındılar, değil mi? (4) Bu sabah Adalar iskele-si-nde siz-i bir saat bekledik; niçin gelmediniz? (5) Sigara alınak istedi fakat dükkân kapalı-ydı.—Başka bir dükkân yok mu-ydu? (6) Bahçe-miz-de bir elma ağac-ı var, fakat bu yıl meyva vermedi. (7)

\* *anne* is used only in Istanbul Turkish, and then only in the literal sense; in provincial dialects and in metaphorical uses *ana* is used: *anaber*, 'main line'; *anayol*, 'main road'

## LESSON THREE

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Kardeş-iniz-i sokak-ta perişan bir kılık-ta, palto-suz şapka-sız gördüm. (8) Yatak oda-m pek rutubetli-dir. Otel-iniz-de boş bir oda var mı?—Maalesef yok. (9) Uzun boylu çocuk müdürün oğlu-u mudur?—Hayır, onun bir kız-ı var, oğlu yok. (10) Fâtih, 1453 sene-sinde (yıl-ında) İstanbul-u Bizans-lı-lar-dan aldı. (11) İçkiler inhisar-ı Cumhuriyet-in büyük bir eser-i, devlet-in başlıca bir kazanç kaynağı idi. (12) (Bizim Köy) ad-lı kitab-ı oku-ma-dınız mı?

(B) *Translate into Turkish*: (1) Is your sister married? (2) He wanted to go to another hotel. (3) Is this cigarette-box new?—Yes, my mother gave it to me. (4) Perhaps he found our address in the telephone-directory. (5) Our apple-trees have given a lot of fruit this year, haven't they? (6) The girl in yellow is Orhan's sister. (7) We waited for her at the station but she didn't come. (8) My sister wanted to buy their house, but I didn't like it, it's very damp. (9) Have you left your passport at the hotel? (10) The people is the real master of the country.

## APPENDIX D.

A Sample Lesson from A Primer of English for Foreign Students.

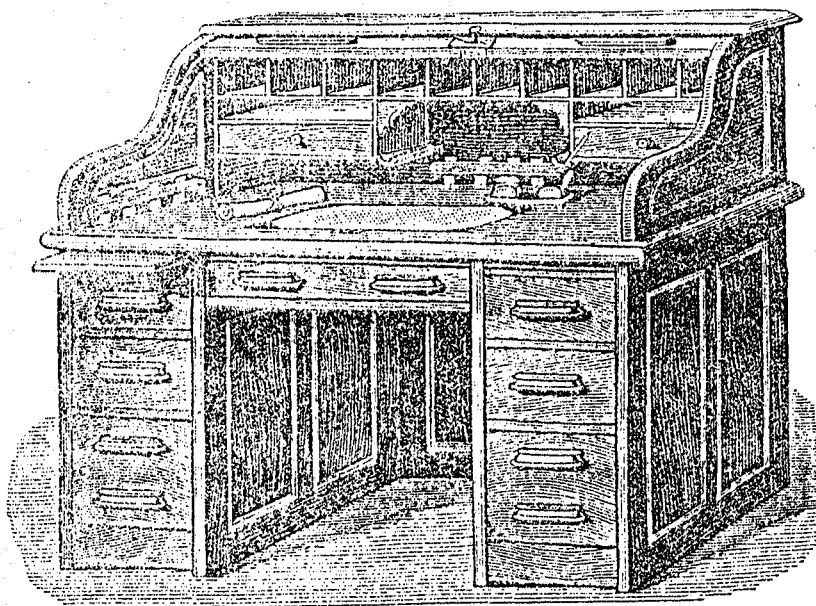
60

## A PRIMER OF ENGLISH

4. In what part of England is Newcastle, and what does it export?
5. Where is shipbuilding carried on?
6. Explain the use of a crane.
7. What do you call the part of a ship in which the goods are stored?
8. What are the docks lined with?
9. Name some articles of clothing.
10. Can England produce plenty of wheat?
11. Does Germany lack beer?
12. Why do you need clothes?

**THE OFFICE.**

1. This morning I had to see some one on business, and for this purpose I called on him at his office.



DESK.

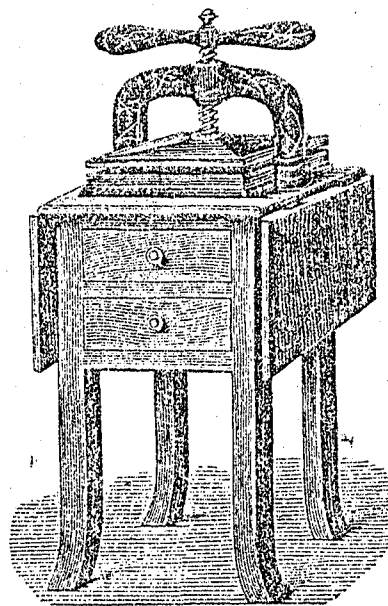
When I arrived at the building named on his card I found that it was full of offices. So I looked at the

list of names in the entrance and found "Cox and Robson" (his firm) had their office on the third floor.

2. So I went up in the lift and, as I stepped out, found this name facing me on the glass panel of a swing-door, which I pushed open. There were already two people waiting when I entered; but, seeing the word "inquiries" written on one of the sliding glass panels which separated us from the clerks inside, I knocked on it and was soon answered by the office-boy, to whom I gave my card, stating that I had an appointment for half-past eleven with the manager. He said, "Just take a seat one moment, please," which, of course, I did.

3. Inside, the clerks were busy writing in ledgers, and one of them was seated at a table writing a letter on a typewriter. He was copying it from the shorthand notes which had been dictated to him by the manager. At the other end of the room the cashier was receiving payment of a bill from some one who stood on the other side of the counter.

4. Just then I heard an electric bell ring, and the next moment the office-boy again slid back the glass panel and announced that the manager was now ready to see me if I would step forward. "This way, sir, please," he said, and I followed him down a corridor, at the end of which was the manager's room.



LETTER PRESS.

On the door I read these words, "Private, please knock." The office-boy knocked, and having received permission to "Come in!" opened the door and left me in the presence of the manager.

5. He was sitting at his writing-table, which was covered with the morning's correspondence and many other papers. Under the table there was a waste-paper basket, into which he had just thrown an old piece of blotting-paper, and along the top of it there was a row of pigeon-holes. In one corner was a press for copying letters.

6. "Good morning, sir. What can I do for you?" he said. I told him my business, and five minutes later I was going down in the lift to the ground-floor, very well pleased with the result of my interview, as I had obtained an order for a safe.

---

Business is business.

---

*N.B.*—The possessive 's is seldom used for inanimate objects which are, instead, preceded by *of*. Thus we say—

The man's hat.

but

The top of the desk.

The roof of the house, etc.

As an exercise, the above piece should be read through, the pupil substituting the Future Tense throughout; *e.g.* "To-morrow I shall have," etc.

25703.

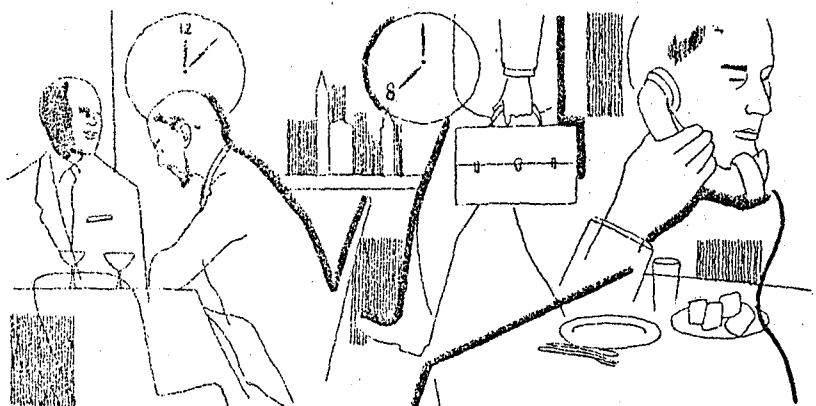
Mr. Gray, the manager, speaks to his clerk, Mr. Black.	<p>"Ring up two five seven nought three          three          On the telephone, Black,          And ask Messrs. Simpson and Bunce          If their manager's back.</p>
Mr. Black rings up.	<p>And, if so, if he'll call here at once          On an urgent affair."</p>
Messrs. Simpson and Bunce answer his call.	<p>"Two five seven nought three, if you please.          Thanks. Hullo! Are you there?"          "This is Simpson and Bunce. Who are you?"</p>
Mr. Black delivers his manager's message.	<p>"Pure Bread Co. If your Mr. Day          Is back, will he come down to Kew          To see our Mr. Gray</p>
Messrs. Simpson and Bunce regret that their manager is away and suggest a substitute.	<p>On an urgent affair?" "He's away.          Won't be back for a week.          Will it suit if, to save a delay,          We send down Mr. Meek?"</p>
Mr. Black is doubtful.	<p>"But does Meek understand our machines?"          They're quite special, you know."</p>
Messrs. Simpson and Bunce are confident.	<p>"Oh yes! He knows how many beans          Make five. He shall go."</p>
Mr. Black reports the result to his chief, Who is dissatisfied.	<p>"Mr. Day is away, sir; but Meek          Is coming at once."          "You never can find what you seek          From Simpson and Bunce!"</p>



## EXERCISE XXIII.

1. How did the writer reach the third floor of the building?
2. On whom was he calling?
3. What was written on the outer door of the office?
4. What did he see on entering?
5. What did he do next?
6. What were the clerks doing while he waited?
7. Who showed him to the manager's room?
8. Where was the manager sitting?
9. What was under the table?
10. What was on the table?
11. Was his interview successful?
12. What is a safe made of?
13. Can you write shorthand?
14. Is there a swing-door to the class-room?
15. Do you know how to typewrite?
16. What do you say when some one knocks at the door?
17. Is there a lift in this building?
18. Where do you throw waste-paper?
19. On what floor is this room?
20. Who receives and pays out money in an office?
21. Give the contrary of **up, top, forward, safe, late.**
22. Give the Past Definite of **find, tell, leave, say, go.**
23. How do you know when it is time to leave school?
24. With what do you dry your writing?
25. What must you do when you want to speak to some one on the telephone?
26. What pupils are away to day?
27. What do you seek in a dictionary?
28. Why was Mr. Gray dissatisfied?
29. Why was Mr. Black doubtful?
30. Of what Co. was Mr. Gray the manager?

## APPENDIX E

A Sample Unit from English 900: A Basic Course(2)
 UNIT **6** TALKING ABOUT  
 YESTERDAY'S  
 ACTIVITIES


- 226 What time did you get up yesterday morning?  
 227 I woke up early and got up at 6 o'clock.  
 228 My brother got up earlier than I did.  
 229 Did you get dressed right away?  
 230 Yes, I got dressed and had breakfast.  
 231 What kind of breakfast did you have?  
 232 What time did you get to work yesterday morning?  
 233 I left the house at 8 o'clock and got to work at 8:30.  
 234 Did you work all day?  
 235 Yes, I worked from early morning until late at night.  
 236 At noon I had lunch with a friend of mine.  
 237 I finished working at 5:30 and went home.  
 238 After dinner I read a magazine and made some telephone calls.  
 239 I went to bed at 11:30 p.m.  
 240 I went to sleep immediately and slept soundly all night.

## 68 UNIT SIX

## INTONATION

226 What time did you get up yesterday morning?

227 I woke up early and got up at 6 o'clock.

228 My brother got up earlier than I did.

229 Did you get dressed right away?

230 Yes, I got dressed and had breakfast.

231 What kind of breakfast did you have?

232 What time did you get to work yesterday morning?

233 I left the house at 8 o'clock and got to work at 8:30.

234 Did you work all day?

235 Yes, I worked from early morning until late at night.

236 At noon I had lunch with a friend of mine.

237 I finished working at 5:30 and went home.

238 After dinner I read a magazine and made some telephone calls.

239 I went to bed at 11:30 p.m.

240 I went to sleep immediately and slept soundly all night.

## UNIT SIX 69

## QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

1. BILL: What time did you get up yesterday morning, John?  
JOHN: I woke up early and got up at 6 o'clock.
2. FRED: What time did you wake up yesterday morning, Paul?  
PAUL: I woke up at 6 o'clock.
3. HELEN: Did you get up early yesterday morning, Betty?  
BETTY: Yes. But my brother got up earlier than I did.
4. ALICE: After you got up, did you get dressed right away?  
BETTY: Yes, I did. I got dressed right away and had breakfast.
5. EDWARD: What kind of breakfast did you have yesterday morning?  
HENRY: I had a big breakfast yesterday.
6. HARRY: George, what kind of breakfast did you have yesterday?  
GEORGE: I had a good breakfast.
7. MARGARET: What time did you leave the house yesterday morning?  
HELEN: I left the house at about 8 o'clock.
8. BETTY: What time did you get to work yesterday morning?  
MARGARET: I got to work on time yesterday morning.
9. JOHN: Did you work all day yesterday, Bill?  
BILL: Yes, I did. I worked from early morning until late at night.
10. PAUL: Did you work all day yesterday?  
FRED: Yes, I did. I worked from 9 o'clock until 6 o'clock.
11. HELEN: Did you work all day yesterday, Betty?  
BETTY: No, I didn't. I worked until noon yesterday.
12. HARRY: Didn't you work hard all day yesterday, Bill?  
BILL: No, I didn't. I worked from 9 a.m. until noon.
13. MR. GREEN: What time did you go out for lunch yesterday?  
MR. BROWN: I went out for lunch at about 12:30 yesterday.
14. BILL: What did you do after dinner last night?  
PAUL: After dinner I made some telephone calls.
15. JOHN: Did you go to sleep immediately last night, Henry?  
HENRY: Yes. I went to sleep immediately and slept soundly all night.

## 70 UNIT SIX

## SUBSTITUTION DRILLS

1. What time did 

you
we
they
she
he
John
Mr. and Mrs. Brown

 get up yesterday morning?
2. What time did you 

get up
wake up
get dressed
go to bed
leave the house
get to work

 yesterday? Was it early?
3. 

I
We
They
She
He
Helen
Henry and Nancy

 woke up early and got up at 6 o'clock.
4. You 

woke up
got up
got dressed
got to work
had breakfast
left the house
finished working

 early yesterday, didn't you?
5. What 

kind
sort
type

 of breakfast did you have yesterday morning?

## UNIT SIX 71

6. What time did you 

get to work
get to your office
get to school
get to the university
get home

 yesterday? Was it late?
7. 

We
I
You
She
He
Harry
Helen and
Bill

 left the house at 8 o'clock and got to work at 8:30.
8. Did you work 

all day yesterday
all morning yesterday
all afternoon yesterday
all night last night

 , Mr. Brown?
9. I worked from 

early morning
early in the morning
8 o'clock in the morning
about noon

 until 9 o'clock last night.
10. At noon I had lunch with 

a friend of mine
some friends of mine
my wife
my wife and children
my brothers and sisters
11. I finished working at 5:30 and went 

home
home with a friend of mine
to a friend's house
to Mr. Brown's house
to a restaurant

## 72 UNIT SIX

12. After dinner I read a magazine  
read a book  
listened to the radio  
watched television  
read for a while and made some telephone calls.

13. I went to bed at about 11:30  
around 11:30  
close to 11:30  
after 11:30  
at exactly 11:30  
at 11:30 sharp last night.

14. Did you go to sleep immediately  
right away  
early  
late last night, Bill?

15. I  
You  
Harry  
They  
She went to sleep immediately and slept soundly all night.

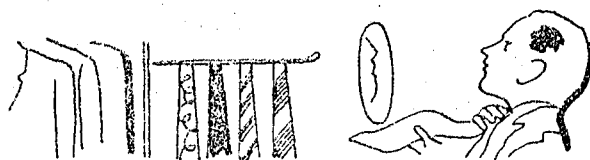
16. In the morning  
At noon  
After lunch  
Before dinner I made some telephone calls.

17. After work I went home for dinner  
to eat  
to eat dinner.

18. I read a book for a while  
until late at night  
until 11:00.

## UNIT SIX 73

## CONVERSATION



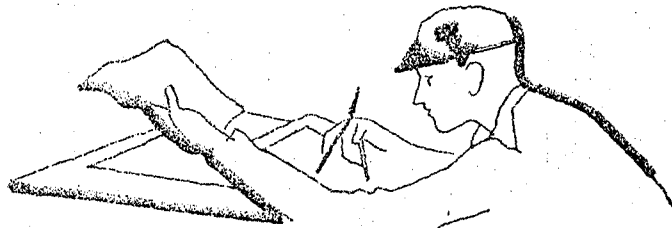
1. MR. BROWN: What time did you get up yesterday morning?  
 MR. GREEN: I woke up at 6 o'clock and got up right away.  
 MR. BROWN: What time did Mrs. Green get up?  
 MR. GREEN: She got up at about the same time as I did.  
 MR. BROWN: Did you get dressed right away?  
 MR. GREEN: Yes, I did. I got up and got dressed immediately.  
 MR. BROWN: What sort of breakfast did you have yesterday morning?  
 MR. GREEN: I had a big breakfast. I usually have a big breakfast.  
 MR. BROWN: What kind of breakfast did your wife have?  
 MR. GREEN: She had a light breakfast. She usually has a light breakfast.  
 MR. BROWN: Did you have juice for breakfast yesterday morning?  
 MR. GREEN: Yes, we did. We both had juice for breakfast.
  
2. BILL: Did you leave the house at about 8 o'clock yesterday?  
 JOHN: I don't remember what time I left the house yesterday.  
 BILL: What time did you get to work yesterday morning?  
 JOHN: I'd say it was about 9 o'clock when I got to work.  
 BILL: You worked hard all day yesterday, didn't you?  
 JOHN: Yes, I did. I worked from early morning until late at night.
  
3. FRED: Did you go out for lunch yesterday, Paul?  
 PAUL: Yes, I did. I went out for lunch at about 12:30.  
 FRED: Who did you have lunch with?  
 PAUL: I had lunch with a friend of mine yesterday.  
 FRED: What time did you finish working yesterday afternoon?  
 PAUL: I finished at about 5:45. I went home at 6 o'clock.  
 FRED: What did you do after dinner last night?  
 PAUL: After dinner last night I made some telephone calls.



## 74 UNIT SIX

4. HELEN: Betty, did you go to bed late last night?  
 BETTY: I don't remember what time I went to bed.  
 HELEN: Did you go to sleep immediately last night?  
 BETTY: Yes. I went to sleep right away.  
 HELEN: Did you watch television after dinner last night?  
 BETTY: No, I didn't watch television. I read a magazine.  
 HELEN: I didn't go to work yesterday. Did you?  
 BETTY: Yes, I went to work. I got to work on time yesterday.  
 HELEN: Who did you have lunch with yesterday, Betty?  
 BETTY: Let's see . . . I had lunch with a friend of mine.  
 HELEN: Do you have lunch at the same hour I do every day?  
 BETTY: I think so. What time do you have lunch every day?
5. HENRY: I got up at about 6 o'clock yesterday morning. Did you?  
 EDWARD: Yes, I got up at 6 o'clock, too.  
 HENRY: I didn't have breakfast yesterday morning. Did you?  
 EDWARD: No. I didn't have breakfast yesterday, either.  
 HENRY: You worked hard all day yesterday, didn't you?  
 EDWARD: Yes, I did. Did you work hard all day?  
 HENRY: Yes. I worked from 7:00 in the morning until 6:00 p.m.  
 EDWARD: And I worked from 7:30 a.m. until 8 o'clock last night.  
 HENRY: What kind of lunch did you have yesterday?  
 EDWARD: I had a very light lunch yesterday.
6. GEORGE: I didn't go to bed until 11:30 last night.  
 HARRY: I didn't go to bed until about 11:30, either.  
 GEORGE: This morning I woke up at exactly 6 o'clock.  
 HARRY: I woke up this morning at exactly 6 o'clock, too.  
 GEORGE: I had juice, oatmeal and toast for breakfast yesterday.  
 HARRY: I did, too. I had orange juice, oatmeal, and dry toast.  
 GEORGE: I left the house at 9 o'clock this morning.  
 HARRY: I left the house later than you did. I left at 9:30.  
 GEORGE: I read a magazine after dinner last night.  
 HARRY: I read the same magazine you did last night.  
 GEORGE: I slept soundly all night last night.  
 HARRY: I didn't sleep very well last night.

## READING PRACTICE



## Mr. Jonathan Thomas

My name is Jonathan Thomas and I'm an engineer. Usually, I get up early, have breakfast, and go to work at eight o'clock. I work hard all day, finish working at about 5:30 p.m. and go home right away. I have dinner at 7 o'clock and usually go to bed around 11 p.m. Yesterday, I didn't wake up until 8:00 a.m. I got up immediately and got dressed. I had juice and toast and left my house at 8:45. I was an hour late and didn't get to work until 9 o'clock. I worked all day and didn't have lunch. I finished working at 7:30 last night and went home at 8 p.m. I was two hours late and didn't have dinner until 9 o'clock. After dinner I read the newspaper for a while and made some telephone calls. I listened to the radio for two hours and went to bed at midnight. I didn't go to sleep immediately. I slept just six hours last night. I didn't sleep very well.

## Questions

1. What is Jonathan's last name and what does he do?
2. Does Jonathan usually get up late?
3. What time does Jonathan usually go to work?
4. Does he usually work hard?
5. What time does he usually finish working each day?
6. What time does Jonathan usually have dinner?
7. What time did Jonathan wake up yesterday morning?
8. Did Jonathan have a big breakfast yesterday morning?
9. How late was Jonathan yesterday morning?
10. What time did he have lunch yesterday?
11. Did he finish working at 5:30 p.m. yesterday?
12. What time did Jonathan go home last night?
13. How late was Jonathan? When did he have dinner?
14. What did Jonathan do after dinner last night?
15. How many hours did Jonathan sleep last night?
16. Did he sleep soundly?

## 76 UNIT SIX

## EXERCISES

## 1. Use the right word.

close	day	around
o'clock	until	sort
sharp	immediately	wife
soundly	noon	woke

- a. She worked from early morning \_\_\_\_\_ late at night.
- b. It is \_\_\_\_\_ one o'clock.
- c. They went home \_\_\_\_\_ after work.
- d. Jonathan was here at \_\_\_\_\_ for lunch.
- e. We went to bed \_\_\_\_\_ to 11:30 p.m.
- f. Did you sleep \_\_\_\_\_ last night?
- g. I read books and magazines all \_\_\_\_\_ yesterday.
- h. She was here at ten o'clock \_\_\_\_\_.
- i. What \_\_\_\_\_ of lunch do you want?
- j. He \_\_\_\_\_ up late yesterday.
- k. I'll meet you at exactly two \_\_\_\_\_.
- l. My \_\_\_\_\_ makes breakfast for our daughters.

## 2. Use the right form of the verb.

*Example:* I wake up early every day. Yesterday, I *woke* up late.

- a. Frank gets up at 7:00. Yesterday, Frank \_\_\_\_\_ up at 8:00.
- b. She works on Monday night. Last Monday she \_\_\_\_\_ until 10:00 p.m.
- c. They have toast for breakfast. Yesterday, they \_\_\_\_\_ toast for breakfast.
- d. Martha finishes her work at 5:00. Yesterday, Martha \_\_\_\_\_ her work at 5:00.
- e. We read the newspaper all morning. Yesterday, we \_\_\_\_\_ the newspaper all morning.

## UNIT SIX 77

- f. Today my husband makes breakfast. Yesterday, my husband \_\_\_\_\_ breakfast.
- g. They go to bed early. Last night they \_\_\_\_\_ to bed early.
- h. I sleep soundly every night. Last night I \_\_\_\_\_ soundly.
- i. George leaves the office late at night. George \_\_\_\_\_ the office late last night.
- j. Nancy listens to the radio. Nancy \_\_\_\_\_ to the radio yesterday.
- k. My cousin watches television. Yesterday, my cousin \_\_\_\_\_ television.
- l. What time do you get up? What time \_\_\_\_\_ you get up yesterday?
- m. She has breakfast with her brother. She \_\_\_\_\_ breakfast with her brother yesterday.
- n. Jane reads a book every day. Last night Jane \_\_\_\_\_ a book.

## 3. Change to negative sentence.

Example: I watched television. I *didn't* watch television.

- a. They worked hard yesterday. They \_\_\_\_\_ hard yesterday.
- b. She had breakfast right away. She \_\_\_\_\_ breakfast right away.
- c. They finished their lessons. They \_\_\_\_\_ their lessons.
- d. Mom and Dad went home last night. Mom and Dad \_\_\_\_\_ home last night.
- e. I slept soundly last night. I \_\_\_\_\_ soundly last night.
- f. We woke up late yesterday. We \_\_\_\_\_ up late yesterday.
- g. My brother left late. My brother \_\_\_\_\_ late.
- h. He made dinner for us. He \_\_\_\_\_ dinner for us.

## 4. Use the right verb form.

Example: We didn't watch him yesterday. We *aren't* watching him now.

- a. We didn't work hard yesterday. We \_\_\_\_\_ working hard now.
- b. She didn't have lunch yet. She \_\_\_\_\_ having lunch now.

## 78 UNIT SIX

- c. They didn't finish it yesterday. They \_\_\_\_\_ finishing it now.
- d. He didn't go home last night. He \_\_\_\_\_ going home today.
- e. Martha didn't sleep soundly last night. Martha \_\_\_\_\_ sleeping soundly tonight.
- f. We didn't get up early yesterday. We \_\_\_\_\_ getting up early today.
- g. He didn't leave late last Monday. He \_\_\_\_\_ leaving late today.
- h. You didn't make dinner yet. You \_\_\_\_\_ making dinner now.

## WORD LIST

children	immediately	sharp	soundly
exactly	kind	sore	type

## Verb Forms

do, does, doing	listen (to), listens (to), listening (to)
did ( <i>past</i> )	listened (to) ( <i>past</i> )
finish, finishes, finishing	make, makes, making
finished ( <i>past</i> )	made ( <i>past</i> )
get, gets, getting	read, reads, reading
got ( <i>past</i> )	read ( <i>past</i> )
get dressed, gets dressed, getting dressed	sleep, sleeps, sleeping
got dressed ( <i>past</i> )	slept ( <i>past</i> )
get up, gets up, getting up	watch, watches, watching
got up ( <i>past</i> )	watched ( <i>past</i> )
go, goes, going	wake up, wakes up, waking up
went ( <i>past</i> )	woke up ( <i>past</i> )
have, has, having	work, works, working
had ( <i>past</i> )	worked ( <i>past</i> )
leave, leaves, leaving	
left ( <i>past</i> )	

## Expressions

go to sleep  
 make telephone calls  
 right away

## APPENDIX F

Some Cognitive Exercises from Spanish for  
Communication

*Forms of the articles and plurals*

- 1 The sounds represented by the letters *a, e, i, o,* and *u* are called (a) consonants (b) vowels.
- 2 All the other letters, such as *p, c, b, g, m,* etc., stand for sounds which are called.....
- 3 All English words must begin either with a vowel or a consonant sound. This tells us when we must use *a* or *an*, the two forms of the indefinite article. Look at these two columns of words and notice the sound with which each noun begins.

a pen	an apple
a book	an eagle
a cow	an iceberg
a girl	an ocean
a man	an umbrella

The indefinite article form *a* goes with words which begin with a ..... sound; *an* goes with words which begin with a ..... sound.

*a* goes with consonant sounds; *an* with vowel sounds. (When a consonant letter is not spoken, you use *an*: an hour.)

- 4 Do *a* and *an*, in *a pen* and *an apple*, have different meanings? no (Two forms having the same function may have the same meaning.)
- 5 Spanish, like English, has two forms of the indefinite article. You have already learned them. They are *un* and *una*. But Spanish is just the opposite of English. The *last* sound of a word (with very few exceptions) tells the Spanish speaker when to use *un* or *una*. Look at these two columns of words and notice the last sound of each noun.

un libro	una mesa
un rodeo	una silla
un santo	una casa

The indefinite article form *un* goes with nouns which end in the vowel .....; *una* goes with nouns ending in the vowel.....

*un* with *o*; *una* with *a* (The few exceptions have to be memorized.)<sup>5</sup>


*ESTABLISHING A CONTEXT OR SITUATION*

Ask the indicated questions in Spanish.

1. You are talking with your teacher, and you want to know where he is from. You ask. ¿ \_\_\_\_\_ ?
2. You are talking with your friend, and you want to know where she is from. You ask. ¿ \_\_\_\_\_ ?
3. You are talking with your friend María, and you want to know if she is from Madrid. You ask. ¿ \_\_\_\_\_ ?
4. You are talking with Mr. Sánchez, and you want to know whether he is Mexican. You ask. ¿ \_\_\_\_\_ ?

## APPENDIX G

A Sample Unit from Building Strategies(2)



**Pax Records**

*Press Release*

LAURA DENNISON

1955 Born in Bristol

1960 Started school

1973 Went to Bristol University

1974 Joined a folk group

1975 Married Tony Harper


1976 Left university


1977 Won folk song competition

1978 Birth of daughter, Jody  
Recorded song 'The Price of Peace'  
(Number 1 in Top Twenty)

1979 American, South American and  
European tours.  
Went to live in Los Angeles.

Laura's new single 'women are people too'  
is in your record shop now.





*Mike Sanders interviews Laura Dennison, a folk singer, after a concert.*

MIKE: That was a beautiful performance, Laura. And welcome back to Bristol.

LAURA: Thank you. Now, your questions. Oh, good, you've got my press release.

MIKE: Yes. You were born here in Bristol, weren't you, in 1955?

LAURA: That's right. I was born not far from this theatre, actually. But I grew up in the suburbs.

MIKE: And your parents?

LAURA: They came from Ireland originally. My father was a Customs Officer at the docks.

MIKE: Is he still there?

LAURA: No, he died about three years ago.

MIKE: Have you got any brothers or sisters?

LAURA: No, I'm an only child.

MIKE: Mmm. And then you went to university?

LAURA: Yes, for three years. That's where I wrote the song "The Price of Peace".

MIKE: And got married!

LAURA: Yes.

MIKE: How long have you been singing professionally?

LAURA: Oh, quite a long time! Actually, I've been singing *professionally* since 1978 when I recorded my first song.

MIKE: And now you're a world famous star, a composer and a mother. How do you manage to do it?

LAURA: Do what?

MIKE: Combine a career with a family?

LAURA: Are you married with a family, Mr Sanders?

MIKE: Yes, but . . .

LAURA: Well, do you find it difficult to be a journalist *and* a father?

MIKE: But . . .

LAURA: Think about it, Mr Sanders. Goodbye!

Did Laura grow up in the country? *No, she grew up* . . . . .

What nationality were her parents? *They were* . . . . .

What did her father do? *He was* . . . . .

Is he still alive? . . . . .

Does Laura come from a big family? . . . . .

Where did she compose her first song? *When she was* . . . . .

Where did Laura meet her husband?





## Talk about events in people's lives

I was born *in* 1955.  
 He died three years *ago*.  
 I went to university *for* three years.  
 I have been singing professionally *since* 1978.

1. Work in pairs. Ask and answer questions about Laura Dennison's life, using the press release.

a) Use *in* with dates, like this:

When did Laura go to university?  
*In* 1976.  
 When did she get married?  
 When did she win the folk song competition?  
 When did she tour South America?

b) Use *ago* with numbers of years; count back, like this:

When did Laura join the folk group?  
*(If it is 1980 now)* Six years ago.  
 When did she leave university?  
 When did she record her first song?  
 When did she tour America?

c) Use *for* with numbers of years; count up, like this:

How long did Laura go to school for?  
 For 13 years.  
 How long did she go to university for?  
 How long has she been married for?

d) Use *since* with dates, like this:

How long has Laura been singing?  
 She has been singing since 1974.  
 How long has she been singing professionally?  
 How long has she been living in America?

2. Work in pairs. Ask and answer these questions.

When did you first start school? *When I was* .....  
 or *In* .....  
 When did you leave school? ..... *ago*, or *I haven't left yet*.  
 How long did you stay at school? or How long have you been at school? *For* ..... *years*.  
 How long have you been living in your present home? *I have been living there for/since* .....  
 How long have you been studying at this school? *For/since* .....  
 How long have you been learning English in this class? *For/since* .....  
 How long have you been learning English with your present teacher? *For/since* .....  
 How long have you been using this book? *For/since* .....

Rod Nelson is Canadian. He comes from Montreal. He is an engineer. At the moment he is living in Bristol in the south west of England. He has been living there for several months. He works in a small firm called Weston Aeronautics. He has been working there for four months.



3. Read about Rod Nelson. Write a similar paragraph about a friend or relative. Say:

1. who they are
2. what they do
3. where they live
4. how long they have been living there
5. where they work/study
6. how long they have been working/studying there.

UNIT 14

**GET 2** Ask and talk about people's background

Where were you born? I was born in Bristol.  
 Where did you grow up? I grew up in Bristol.  
 Where did you go to school? I went to a comprehensive school.  
 What did you do after that? I went to university.  
 I went to work.  
 I went abroad.

1. Complete this chart:

<i>Background</i>	I was born in ..... (place, country)
<i>Early life</i>	I grew up in ..... I went to school at ..... for .....
<i>Career</i>	After studying at ..... (school), I left and went to ..... (place of work, university, college) to work/study.
<i>Other information</i>	I am an only child/I have got ..... (brothers/sisters, etc.)

2. Work in pairs. Ask your partner about his/her past life. Make notes of his/her answers. Then make and complete a chart for your partner's life.

3. 

**Background to the STARS**

**LAURA DENNISON**, famous singer and star of the Top Twenty, was born in Bristol. Her parents originally came from Ireland. Laura's father was a Customs Officer in the Bristol docks. Unfortunately, he died a few years ago.

Laura, who is an only child, grew up in the suburbs of Bristol. She started her education at a local school and then moved to a large, modern comprehensive school in another part of the city.



After leaving school when she was 18, Laura went to Bristol University for three years to study history and economics. While she was at university, Laura joined a university folk group and started singing. It was at this time that she wrote her famous song 'The Price of Peace'. Soon after finishing her university career, Laura joined another group and began to earn money with her performances and with her songs.

When she was 21, Laura was married to Tony Harper who was a student in the same year. Laura and Tony have two children - a daughter, Jody, and a son, Daniel. For several years the Harper family have been living in a beautiful farm house in the country outside Bristol, but recently they decided to leave Britain and move to Los Angeles.

4. There are four paragraphs in Mike Sanders' article. Which paragraph is about:

- Laura's career? .....
- Laura's background? .....
- Other information about Laura? .....
- Laura's early life? .....



5. Write a short autobiography (about yourself). Use Mike Sanders' article as a guide. Use your notes from Exercise 1.

## Oral Exercises

### 1. Confirm dates

You are Laura Dennison. Mike Sanders is interviewing you. Look at the biographical details in the Press Release on page 105. Confirm dates of your past life.

You were born in the middle-fifties, weren't you?  
*Right. I was born in 1955.*

And you went to university in the early seventies?  
*Right. I went to university in 1973.*

You were born in the middle fifties, weren't you?  
And you went to university in the early seventies?  
You joined a folk group a year after, didn't you?  
And you got married in the middle seventies?  
Your daughter was born in the late seventies?  
And you recorded a hit song in the same year?

### 2\*. Talk about general points of time Answer according to what you think.

When did you start these exercises?

*Oh, (just a few minutes) ago.*

When did you start using this book?

*Oh, (a few months) ago.*

When was the Second World War?

*Oh, (a long time) ago.*

When did you start these exercises?

When did you start using this book?

When was the Second World War?

When was the American Civil War?

When was your birthday?

When did you start school?

### 3. Ask how long people have been doing things

I live in Bristol.

*Oh, how long have you been living there?*

Rod works at Weston's now.

*Oh, how long has he been working there?*

I live in Bristol.

Rod works at Weston's now.

Paul and Sue both study at the Polytechnic.

We always go to Scotland for our holidays.

Barbara works near the new shopping centre.

My brother is studying in America.

### 4\*. Say when and how long ago you did things Answer according to your situation.

When did you first start studying here?

*(Four years ago. In 1976.)*

And how long have you been in this class?

*(For two years. Since 1978.)*

When did you first start studying here?

And how long have you been in this class?

When did you begin learning English?

And how long have you been using this book?

When did you last have a holiday?

And how long have you been working in your job?

### 5. Correct information about people's past lives

Read about Elvis Presley on page 111 before you do this exercise. Then correct the information.

Elvis was born in 1977.

*No, that was when he died.*

He died in 1935.

*No, that was when he was born.*

Elvis was born in 1977.

He died in 1935.

He won several talent competitions when he was a young man.

He met Colonel Parker when he was 30.

People criticised Elvis when he was middle-aged.

### Open Dialogue

Talk to Mike Sanders about your past life.

MIKE: Hi! Do you mind if I talk to you?

YOU: .....

MIKE: Well, my questions are quite short. First, I'd like to know where you were born.

YOU: .....

MIKE: I see. And I suppose your parents were born in the same place.

YOU: .....

MIKE: Tell me something about them.

YOU: .....

MIKE: You've got some brothers and sisters, haven't you?

YOU: .....

MIKE: Mmm. Where did you first go to school?

YOU: .....

MIKE: Tell me something about your later education.

YOU: .....

MIKE: Do you mind if I ask you some questions about your private life?

YOU: .....

MIKE: Well, actually, I am in a bit of a hurry, so it doesn't matter. I'm afraid I've got to go.

UNIT 14

**EXTENSION**

1. Mike Sander's notebook.

Notes for future articles on Bristol personalities

GERALDINE BEVAN - detective story writer

Background - born Edinburgh, Scotland 1938. Father novelist, mother teacher. Parents from Wales originally.

Only child.

Early education - village school.

Later education - Edinburgh High School for Girls.

Early career - journalist in Edinburgh, later London.

Wrote first successful detective story at 20.

Later career - still writing successful books (all bestsellers)

Other information - won the 'Best Detective Story Writer of the Year' award in 1977. Married - husband now dead.

Note - Miss Bevan does not like talking about her private life.

IVOR JONES - boxer

Background - b. Swansea, South Wales, '55. Father miner. m. shop assistant. Parents living. Middle child of 5 brothers.

Early education - local primary school. Swansea.

Later education - Aberdale Comprehensive.

Early career - Left school at 15. Worked in docks.

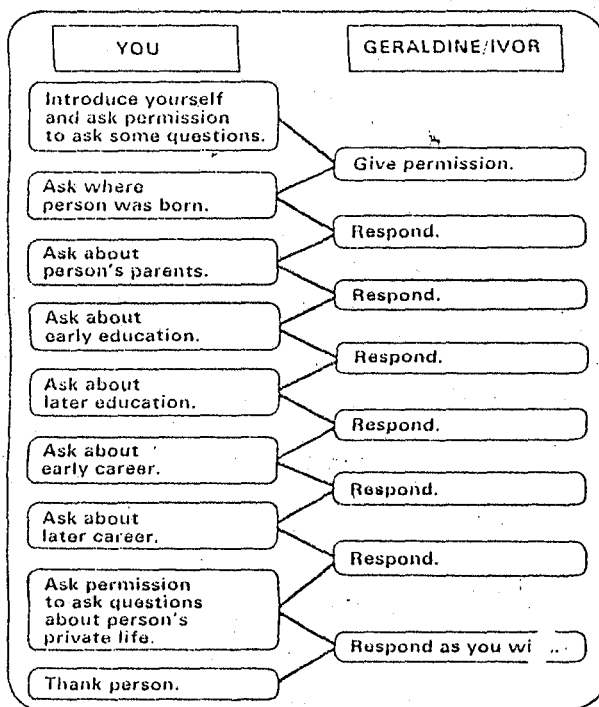
Started boxing in youth club at 17.

Later career - Won light-weight championship - Olympic Gold Medal, Montreal, '76. Became professional '78.

Other information - Married, 2 children, wife gymnastics teacher. Going to leave Britain to live in Spain.

N.B. Ivor likes talking about his family.

2. Work in pairs. You are a newspaper reporter. Your partner is Geraldine Bevan or Ivor Jones. Interview her/him, using Mike Sanders' notes, like this:



3. Listen to the Radio Bristol quiz 'Alive or Dead?' Try to guess the name of the person before the members of the quiz panel. Make notes:

Is the person alive or dead?  
 a man or a woman?

What is his/her nationality?  
 occupation?

Stop your tape and write down the answer if you think you have guessed it.

# ELVIS PRESLEY

born January 8th 1935  
died August 16th 1977

Elvis Aaron Presley was born on January 8th 1935 in East Tupelo, Mississippi. His two brothers died a birth. Elvis grew up in a poor blue religion home which was typical of the deep south of the United States. His parents Vernon and Gladys Presley were kind and loving.

While he was still a child, Elvis won several talent competitions. Later after he left school, he worked as a cinema usher and a truck driver. This was the job Elvis always said he liked best.

The first person to realise that Elvis was a good singer was Sam Phillips, the owner of a record company called Sun Records. But the man who really guided Elvis's career was Colonel Tom Parker. Colonel Parker became Elvis's manager in 1955 and soon made him into a world famous rock and roll star.

By 1956 Elvis Presley had won six gold discs. These were the first of many which he won during his life. When he was young, Elvis had many critics—particularly from the older generation. They thought that Elvis was dangerous to the morals of young people. But as people's attitudes have changed since 1950, and Elvis Presley helped to change them.

Elvis was born in East Tupelo, Mississippi. He was the only child of Vernon and Gladys Presley. He was a poor boy and worked as a cinema usher and a truck driver. He was a good singer and won several talent competitions. He was guided by Sam Phillips and Colonel Tom Parker. He won six gold discs by 1956. He was a world famous rock and roll star.

When and where was Elvis Presley born?

How old was he when he died?  
Was he an only child?

How would you describe Elvis' early life—happy or unhappy?  
What were Elvis' parents like?

How did he show his talent for singing?

When did he become really famous?

Who guided his career?

What did some parents say about young Elvis Presley?

Do you know the names of any Elvis Presley records?

What do you think about them?

Which modern singers and entertainers do you like?

### CHECK

Now you can:

1. Ask about the past

When was he born?  
How long did you go to school for?  
How long has she been singing professionally?

2. Talk about the past

He was born in 1935.  
He was born 45 years ago.  
I went to school for seven years.  
She's been singing professionally for three years.  
She's been singing professionally since 1978.

3. Ask about people's past lives

Where were you born?  
Where did you go to school?  
What did you do after that?

4. Talk about your past life and other people's past lives

I was born in Cardiff.  
He went to school in Cardiff.  
She left school and went to work.

### Grammar

When	were you		I		in 1958.
Where	was	he	He	was born	twenty years ago.
		she	She		in Cardiff.
		born?			

I				
We	have			
You		been living in Cardiff	since 1965.	
They			for 14 years.	
He				
She	has			

### Words and phrases

star (pop star)  
folk singer  
song  
group  
customs officer  
docks  
hit  
peace  
composer

competition  
comprehensive school  
background  
history  
economics  
detective  
novelist  
bestseller  
miner

gymnastics  
talent  
Top Twenty  
successful  
lightweight  
loving  
religious  
alive  
dead/died  
real

fictional

originally  
ago  
since

be born  
grow up  
get married

record a song  
combine  
tour  
go abroad  
earn  
realise  
guide  
change  
manage  
sing  
begin

## APPENDIX H

A Humanistic Exercise from Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class.

## 134 \* Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class

activity. There may not be time for the students to talk about each of the special events of their lives. Those listening can ask questions.

The class can be asked to write about each event either as a means of preparing for the activity or as a follow-up to it. Conclude the exercise by asking students to express their reactions to the experience and what they learned from it.

*Comments:* You can ask students to write down a list of the highlights they think of in chronological order, including their approximate age at the time. Then tell them to select eight of the most special events to sketch on the dittos. In this way they will have an opportunity to come up with more events and to place a priority on them. In giving the assignment, mention a couple of highlights from your earlier years as examples of what you mean.

EXERCISE 62. SOMEONE SPECIAL<sup>5</sup>*Purposes:*

## Affective--

To reflect over one's life to trace those who have had an impact on it

To appreciate those who have been a positive force in one's life

## Linguistic--

To practice the past tense(s)

To practice the use of adjectives describing positive qualities

To practice the skill of writing

*Levels:* All levels

*Size of groups:* About five

*Materials needed:* The assignment completed by the class

*Procedures:* Discuss with the class how throughout our lives we are influenced by others. Sometimes the influence is positive and other times it is negative. However, in everyone's life there are some individuals who have had a strong impact on us. Our direction of life changed because of them. The influence might be a way of thinking, acting, or doing something in a different way. It could be a change of attitude, belief, or plans that occurred.

Ask the students to think of all the people who greatly influenced their lives in a positive way from their earliest years to the present. Then have them decide who had the greatest influence of all. Ask the students to write a description of what this person was like and how he or she changed the course of their lives. Tell the students to be prepared to share this experience with others in the group they will be in. If they have a snapshot or some tangible remembrance of this person, request that this be brought in as well.

When the assignment is due, put the students into groups of about five. One



## All About the Exercises \* 135

at a time, the group members should tell the story of the most influential person in their lives and share any pictures or relics brought in with the others. You can provide questions to guide the composition and the discussion, such as:

1. How old were you when you met this person?
2. What was this person like?
3. Do you still see this person?
4. How did this person influence you?
5. How would your life be different if you had not met this person?
6. Have you ever tried to have the same kind of influence on the lives of others that this person had on you? If so, under what circumstances?

In the total class, a number of students can tell who their influential person is and how their life is different as a result of this contact. Reactions to the exercise and/or a discussion of what was learned from it can follow.

*Comments:* When giving the assignment, make it clear that the person chosen as the most influential should have done *positive* things which in turn brought about a positive influence. Otherwise some students will come up with people who did very negative things to them, which they combated by going in the opposite direction.

This exercise can be a warm experience as it often brings back feelings of appreciation, caring, and closeness.

EXERCISE 63. SECRET AUTOBIOGRAPHY<sup>6</sup>*Purposes:*

## Affective--

To have students share a number of important things about themselves that others may not know as yet

To arouse the curiosity of students in one another

## Linguistic--

To practice writing in the past tense(s)

To afford practice in listening comprehension

To practice the vocabulary of giving one's age

*Levels:* Intermediate to advanced; latter part of beginning level

*Size of groups:* Total class

*Procedures:* Students will have to complete the written assignment to carry out the activity. Here is how you can announce it:

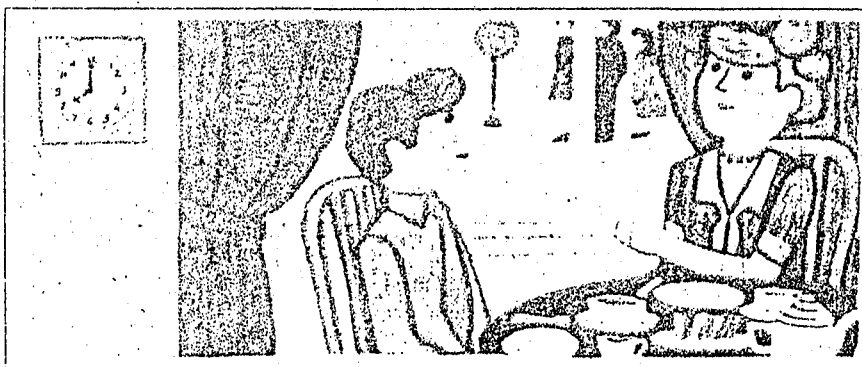
## APPENDIX I

A Sample Unit from An English Course for Turks  
Intermediate I to teach it by the Eclectic Approach.

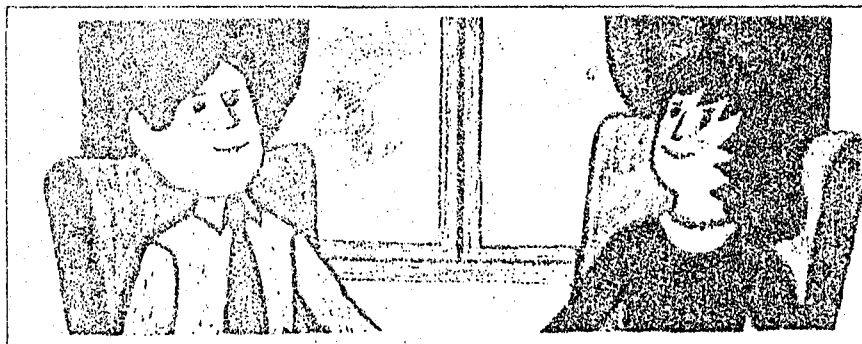
## UNIT THREE

### The First Lesson

#### PART I. STRUCTURE



- Mother : If you don't hurry up, you'll miss your train.  
 Son : What time is it?  
 Mother : It's eight o'clock.  
 Son : Then I've already missed it. I'll go by bus.  
 Mother : Then you must run. The next bus will be here in a few minutes' time.  
 Son : Then I won't go to school at all.



- Husband : I think it will rain this afternoon.

Wife : I'm sure it will rain this afternoon. Look at those clouds.  
 I shall take my umbrella and raincoat.  
 Husband : Where are you going to?  
 Wife : I'm going shopping.  
 Husband : If it rains, I shall go to the cinema.  
 Wife : That's a good idea. I shall go to the cinema first. Then I'll  
 go shopping

A. I'm sorry I can't stop now.  
 I'm in a hurry.  
 B. All right, I'll telephone you later.  
 A. I won't be home until eight o'clock.  
 B. Will you be in your office this afternoon?  
 A. Yes, I will.  
 B. Good, I'll call your office.

Ahmet : It's Ali's birthday next Tuesday.  
 Ayse : How old will he be?  
 Ahmet : He'll be fifteen.  
 Ayse : Have you bought him a present?  
 Ahmet : No, not yet.  
 Ayse : Good  
 Ahmet : Why?  
 Ayse : Because it's my birthday today. You can buy me a present  
 now

Study These

A.

I think	I shall buy that car. he will come tomorrow. they will enjoy the film. we shall go to Turkey this year. the teacher will be late. Ali will pass his examination.
I'm sure	the train will leave later. you will like Bodrum. Michael will sell his guitar. we shall see him tomorrow. the plane will leave at eight o'clock. the history examination will be difficult.

B.

When she comes,	he'll give her her present. I'll make some tea. we'll listen to some records. I'll turn the television on. I'll show her those photographs. she will be very tired. they will go to the theatre. she will want to sleep. she will play the guitar. he'll sing an Italian song. she'll dance with Bill.
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C.

If they're late,	they won't catch the plane. they'll stay with us tonight. they won't visit the museum. he will be very angry. she will cook some chicken. they'll telephone. he won't go to the airport. they'll take a taxi from the station.
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## PART II.

## READING

Michael Smith has just received a letter from his Turkish pen - friend, Ercan. Ercan is going to England in the summer. He has written a short letter to Michael about his holiday. Here is the letter:

Dear Michael,

I shall arrive in England on 7<sup>th</sup> July. I arrive at Heathrow Airport in the afternoon. I shall take the bus from the airport to the terminal. You will meet me at the terminal, won't you?

I want to see a lot of places in England. First I will go to Buckingham Palace. Will the Queen be in London in July? I want to see the soldiers

outside the Palace. Are there always soldiers outside the Palace? The soldiers wear very big hats, don't they?

I shall go to the Houses of Parliament too. Will you come with me? You have visited the Houses of Parliament, haven't you? Can I go inside? I shall bring my camera, I want to take a lot of photographs.

Shall I bring my umbrella too? It's always raining in England, isn't it? Will your brother be at home in the summer? Has he finished studying at university? Does he still play the guitar? I shall buy some records in England. Do you want some record of Turkish music? I shall bring you one or two.

I shall write again soon.

Yours,  
Ercau

P. S. You won't forget to send me a map of London, will you?

### PART III.

#### LEARNING DRILLS

##### A.

Use *shall* or *will* in the blanks to complete the sentences.

Look at the example :

1. Ahmet is fourteen now. *He will be fifteen next year.*
2. I'm thirteen now. Tomorrow is my birthday.  
I .....
3. This month is January. Next month .....
4. Today is Thursday. Tomorrow .....
5. He's a pilot. Today he's in Paris. Tomorrow ..... in Ankara.
6. Today is the last day of September .....
7. Tom is sixteen years old now. Next year .....
8. It's nine o'clock now. After one hour .....

##### B.

Look at the examples. Do the same :

- i) A. You must finish your homework.  
B. *I'll finish it this evening.*
- ii) A. Have you read that book yet?  
B. *No, but I'll read it tomorrow.*

1. A. You must write to your uncle.  
B. ....
2. A. Have you bought the tickets yet?  
B. ....
3. A. You must clean your shoes.  
B. ....
4. A. Have you told him to come yet?  
B. ....
5. A. You must post that letter.  
B. ....
6. A. Have you visited your aunt yet?  
B. ....
7. A. You must telephone your mother.  
B. ....
8. A. Have you finished writing those letters yet?  
B. ....
9. A. You must study that German lesson.  
B. ....
10. A. Have you paid for those books yet?  
B. ....

C.

Answer these questions with the time adverbials given.  
Look at the example :

- A. When will he start school?  
(next year)
- B. *He'll start school next year.*
1. A. When will she finish those exercises?  
(this afternoon)
- B. ....
2. A. When will they be in Germany?  
(next month)
- B. ....
3. A. When will they go skiing?  
(in December)
- B. ....
4. A. When will they sell their car?  
(soon)
- B. ....

5. A. When will she go dancing?  
(tomorrow evening)  
B. ....
6. A. When will his car be ready?  
(next week)  
B. ....
7. A. When will he start university?  
(in October)  
B. ....
8. A. When will they go on holiday?  
(in July)  
B. ....
9. A. When will they buy a television?  
(next month)  
B. ....
10. A. When will he play the guitar?  
(later)  
B. ....

D.

Complete the following sentences :

1. If it rains, I'll take my umbrella
2. When we go to Kuşadası, we shall swim and sail.
3. If Mary telephones, we .....
4. When he arrives at the station, she .....
5. If he goes to Ankara, he .....
6. When his breakfast is ready, he .....
7. If they can buy tickets, they .....
8. When their train comes, they .....
9. If the teacher is absent, the students .....
10. When the play begins, the girl .....

## APPENDIX J

A Formal Letter and an Open Dialog to be used  
in the Application of the Eclectic Approach.

## Weston Aeronautics

Avon Trading Estate, Jubilee Drive, BRISTOL 9

Tuesday July 15th

Dear Mr and Mrs Cooper,

Travelling - Travel arrangements

I enclose details of your travel arrangements for your journey to Toulouse on Saturday 19th July, for you and your wife.

A company car will arrive at your house at 8 a.m. to take you to the airport. The driver will have your tickets. Please make sure that you have your passports.

The plane leaves at 9.30 a.m. and check-in time is at 8.30. Your baggage allowance is 20 kilos each. The flight to Toulouse will take an hour and a half. Breakfast will be served during the flight.

There will be a representative of the company at the arrival gate to meet you at Toulouse. He will have a card saying 'Mr and Mrs J. Cooper - Weston Aeronautics'. He will take you to your hotel in the city centre. He will have some French currency for your immediate use.

I hope these arrangements are satisfactory and that you both have a pleasant journey.

Yours sincerely,

*Freda Curtis*

Freda Curtis  
Personnel Officer

1. Jack and Peggy discussed the journey to France. Complete their conversation, using the information in the letter.

PEGGY: Has the Personnel Officer sent all our travel arrangements for the 19th?

JACK: .....

PEGGY: Then everything is all right, isn't it?

JACK: .....

PEGGY: Well, then, how will we get to the airport?

JACK: .....

PEGGY: But what about the tickets? They haven't sent them - why?

JACK: .....

PEGGY: Oh, I hope he doesn't forget them! 8 o'clock is very early. Will we get anything to eat during the flight?

JACK: .....

PEGGY: Oh, that's good. But what about when we get to the other end - in Toulouse? Will anyone meet us?

JACK: .....

PEGGY: Well, that sounds all right. What about money? We haven't got any French francs yet.

JACK: .....

PEGGY: Fine. And where are we going to stay?

JACK: .....

PEGGY: Lovely! I'm looking forward to that. By the way, Jack, how will the person meeting us know who we are?

JACK: .....

PEGGY: Well, everything is arranged, then. I don't know why you are getting so worked up!



## APPENDIX K

A Chart to be used for the Practice of Speaking Skill in the Application of the Eclectic Approach.

TRAVEL ARRANGEMENT ALTERNATIVES	
	<i>Alternatives</i>
1. Transport to airport	airport bus taxi company car lift from a friend
2. Food during flight	breakfast lunch dinner light snack juice/tea/coffee
3. Arrival and meeting arrangements	travel courier/special bus company representative/company car my parents/car nobody/airport bus
4. First night accommodation	hotel in city centre my parents' house with friends on the night train to (Milan)

4. Work in pairs. Talk about travel arrangements using the chart.

Ask and answer like this:

1. How will we get to the airport?

We'll take the airport bus. *or*

A friend will give us a lift.

2. Will we get anything to eat during the flight?

Yes, we'll get ..... *or*

No, we'll only get .....

3. Who will meet us when we arrive?

A travel courier will meet us with a special bus.

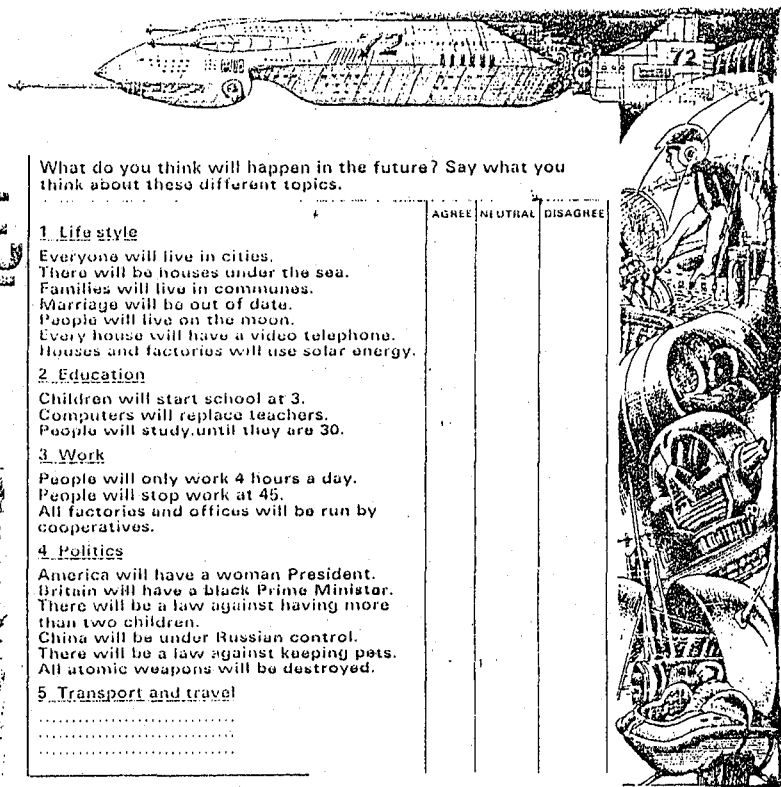
4. Where will we spend the first night?

We'll spend it at/in/on/with .....

APPENDIX L

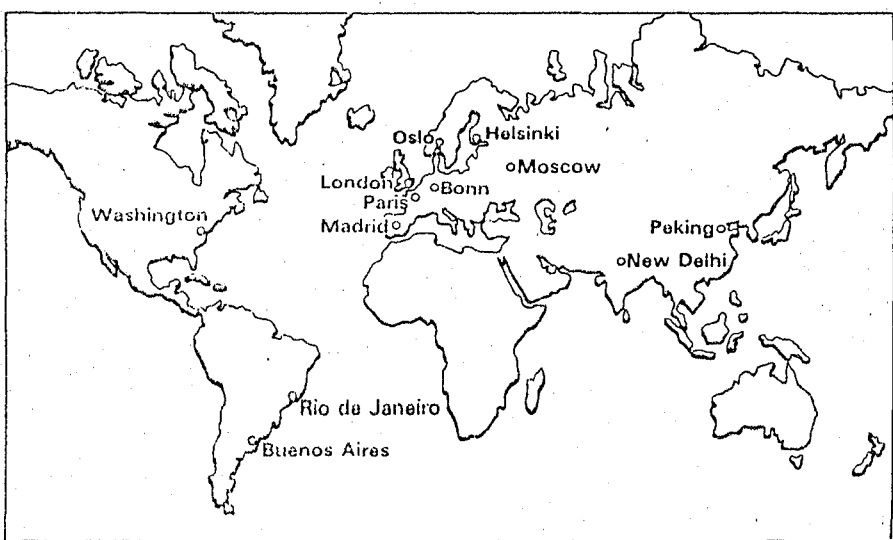
A Questionnaire and a Map to be used in the Application of the Eclectic Approach.

**LIFE IN THE 21<sup>st</sup> CENTURY**  
**WHAT WILL IT BE LIKE?**



What do you think will happen in the future? Say what you think about these different topics.

	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE
<p><b>1. Life style</b>            Everyone will live in cities.            There will be houses under the sea.            Families will live in communes.            Marriage will be out of date.            People will live on the moon.            Every house will have a video telephone.            Houses and factories will use solar energy.</p>			
<p><b>2. Education</b>            Children will start school at 3.            Computers will replace teachers.            People will study until they are 30.</p>			
<p><b>3. Work</b>            People will only work 4 hours a day.            People will stop work at 45.            All factories and offices will be run by cooperatives.</p>			
<p><b>4. Politics</b>            America will have a woman President.            Britain will have a black Prime Minister.            There will be a law against having more than two children.            China will be under Russian control.            There will be a law against keeping pets.            All atomic weapons will be destroyed.</p>			
<p><b>5. Transport and travel</b>            .....            .....</p>			



## APPENDIX M

An Authentic Reading Passage to be used in the  
Application of the Eclectic Approach.

5. **IN THE YEAR 2001**

In the home, cookers will be set so that you can cook a complete meal at the touch of a switch.

Television will provide information on prices at the nearby shops as well as news and entertainment. Videophones will bring pictures as well as sound to telephone conversations.

Machines will control temperature, lighting, entertainment, security alarms, laundry and gardening.

Lighting will provide decoration as well as wallpaper.

At work, robots will take over most jobs in the manufacturing industries. Working hours will fall to under 30 hours a week. Holidays will get longer. Six weeks will be the normal annual holiday. Men and women will retire at the same age.

Our leisure will be different too. The home will become the centre of entertainment through television and electronic games. More people will eat out in restaurants than they do today; also they will have a much wider variety of food available. In Britain, there will be a change of taste towards a more savoury-flavoured menu. New synthetic foods will form a regular part of people's diets.

Foreign travel will increase; winter holidays will become more popular than summer ones. Also non-stop flights from Britain to Australia and New Zealand will be cheap and easily available. Hobbies and education will become increasingly important.

6. Work in pairs. Read the article on Life in 2001 and count the number of predictions for each topic:

<i>Topic</i>	<i>Number of predictions</i>
Home	.....
Work	.....
Leisure	.....