LINGUISTIC THEORY AND TESL PRACTICE:
SOME RECENT TRENDS

by

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I would like to dedicate this Master's Report to my husband, Paul, who supported me both intellectually and emotionally throughout my entire program of study at Kansas State University. Although I truly love to research and write about areas of interest in both literature and language studies, there have been times when the pressures of academic life have muddled my mind, making clear thinking and writing impossible. Paul has been better able than anyone else to help me distinguish the essential from the nonessential obligations and, thus, has given me a fresh outlook on my degree work.

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A functional knowledge of the English language is one of the primary requisites for communicating internationally in 1980. Foreign leaders and dignitaries must know this language to avoid being swept up into misunderstanding and conflict with the United States, Great Britain, and other English-speaking countries. A knowledge of English is also important for foreign nationals, Hispanic Americans and other minority groups entering the U.S. military and the American university system. Perhaps more crucial, and certainly more far-reaching than the language needs of dignitaries, military attachés, and college students are those needs of the many immigrants who come to the U.S. from such countries as Cuba, Vietnam, and Korea and who need to learn the fundamentals of English for simple survival in their new environment. For these people, as well as for other non-native English speakers, methods of teaching English as a second language (TESL) are continually being reviewed and revised as linguists and educators search for the most efficient and effective devices for teaching English to foreign speakers.

The purpose of this report is to look at TESL (also known as ESL) in relation to the major linguistic theories which have affected it from the early 1950's through the present. While there are approaches affecting TESL other than the ones I will

discuss, the following appear from my research to predominate in the past two or three decades.

A logical starting point in an examination of linguistic doctrines underlying TESL is a discussion of the basic differences between structural linguistics and generative-transformational grammar, the two linguistic theories most widely applied to TESL.[1] Perhaps the most useful description of those linguistic philosophies which spawn ESL methods can be accomplished by a thorough comparison and contrast of the two. Because both linguistic schools consist of scientists, it is necessary to describe first their views of science in order to understand their further developments and applications of these to ESL.

The structural linguists originally developed their procedures in an attempt to find an objective method of describing a strange language as it is spoken by native speakers. Their first concentration was primarily anthropological work in learning about the language habits of the American Indians. In the course of their studies, these linguists rejected the traditional prescriptive views of what is "right" and "wrong" in a language for the more scientific method of observing and recording language data which would form hypothetical models they would later test.[2] Their scientific method is Baconian; they observe a phenomenon, form a hypothesis, devise experiments to test it, revise the hypothesis accordingly, and declare its validity. In their preoccupation with observable data, structuralists break speech down into the analyzable bits of language called phonemes and morphemes which then make up words and sentences. As

scientists, they see no way to analyze meaning--semantics--so they pay no attention to it in the process of describing the language.[3]

The generative school originated in 1957 with Noam Chomsky's Syntactic Structures. Unlike the structuralists who are involved in science as collectors and categorizers of language data, the generativists use science to attempt to understand the mental phenomenon behind language.[4] The generativists reject the rigorous objectivity which the structuralists apply to the study of the language and use their intuitions instead. First they invent (hypothesize) a rule; then, they create sentences to both obey and break the rule. The sentences are then tested on native speakers who judge them as grammatical or non-grammatical as predicted by the hypothesis. This is often the confirmation of the hypothesis.[5] Further, generativists reject description as the primary job of linguistic science and concern themselves with the idea that something is occurring between a speaker and a listener. They subordinate the importance of a native speaker's imperfect performance in his language in order to look at his competence in speaking an infinite number of well-formed sentences.[6] Thus, the generativists emphasize the internal structures which constitute the creative power of language rather than the observable data (i.e. phonemes and morphemes) of the spoken language.

The particular views of science held by both the structuralist and the generativist dictate, to a great degree, the development of their other major language theories. Two of the primary issues with which this report must deal are the

definition of language and the language acquisition theory, both of which have heavily influenced teaching methods for the non-native student of English.

There is a sizeable difference between what constitutes language for the structuralist and for the generativist. The structuralists, says spokesman Charles C. Fries, view speech as the primary form of language. In effect, speech is language and writing is merely a representation of it. One must master the set of habits for oral production and reception (speech), or even silent reading in the new language will be a tedious process of translating and searching for meanings in one's native language.[7]

In his concern for the primacy of speech, the structuralist concentrates much of his effort on accurately recording native speaker utterances when formulating or testing a hypothesis. His method is to record native speech indiscriminately and, because correctness does not enter into his focus, he never judges forms as right or wrong. Instead, he concentrates on such items as phonemes (distinctive sound features), intonation, pitch, rhythm, facial expressions and even hand gestures as they are considered crucial to describing (and learning) a specific language.

Conversely, the generative linguist views speech phenomena as merely aspects of language; in other words, language is more than just speech. While the structuralist cares mainly about concrete and observable language data, the generativist feels that the mind, even though it cannot be directly observed, plays a great role in language formation.[8] In other

words, humans not only verbalize their thoughts; they first
think those thoughts in a non-verbal mode. Concepts are formed
in a "deep structure" of language before they take one of many
possible verbal forms. This indicates a creative capacity
inherent in the human mind and in human language, which depends
on a meaningful need of expression to work fully. In the gen-
erative view, language is innovative; there are an infinite
number of sentences which a speaker can create from a finite
number of rules. When one can create new sentences and think
in a language, he has a true grasp of its possibilities.[9]

Different views of the nature of language lead, natu-
rally, to different theories of language acquisition. In the
structural theory of language acquisition, the linguist allies
himself with behavioral psychology as developed by Skinner and
applied to structuralism by Leonard Bloomfield.[10] According to
Bloomfield, language is merely a set of habits which are broken
down into bits and learned through conditioning. A child first
babbles, then he hears sounds which he attempts to repeat; this
is imitation. Third, he associates a sound with an object (such
as "da" with a "doll"), called classical conditioning. Fourth,
he develops displaced or abstract speech which occurs when he
refers to the doll when it is out of sight. Finally, through
operant conditioning, his speech is perfected by its results:
if he says the word "doll" correctly, he receives it; if not,
his parents may respond by repeating the word with him until
he says it correctly.[11] This theory clearly indicates that if
a language is to be learned, certain habits must be ingrained
in the learner. The stimulus-response paradigm says that we

learn our language simply by mimicry, memorization (mim-mem), and analogy. The behaviorally oriented structuralists see no reason to attempt to explain what is happening to cause this language learning, believing, as Bloomfield might say, that in dividing scientific labor, the linguist is to deal only with the speech signal (reaction-stimulus); there are other scientists who are more competent in dealing with problems of physiology and psychology.[12]

Not only do the structuralists believe that language is a set of habits, but they also believe that each language is different and must be learned from a clean slate. A learner must forget old habits to start fresh with the sounds, constructions, and meanings of the new language.[13] In each language, the speaker is faced with more than a different vocabulary to learn; he must become accurate in the sounds, rhythms, and intonations as well as the structural forms (the various word classes and inflections) and arrangements of the elements of a sentence or phrase.[14] Because there is so much to be learned, structuralists see the learning task as simplified when one is taught only the language, not about it (i.e. such rules as taught in traditional prescriptive grammar classes). Grammatical rules, then, are seen as merely a description of the habit and a summary of native speaker behavior which may unnecessarily complicate the actual habit formation.

The generative language acquisition theory differs considerably from the structuralist theory. Where the latter believe that habit formation is the entire process, the generative linguists see language as governed by mental--unconscious

or intuitive--rules of grammar to which each speaker has access.[15] This allies them with cognitive psychology and causes them to look inside the brain for the ability to learn languages. Within the brain, they hypothesize, lies genetic equipment which they call a Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Because of the size and organization of the human brain, the generativists maintain that man is the only creature built to learn languages.[16] The basic hypothesis is that the LAD is "species specific" and each creature's LAD is genetically different. For example, the porpoise's LAD is different from the human LAD with the result that porpoises can communicate with each other and humans can communicate with each other, but a porpoise and a human are incapable of inducing rules of each other's language. Because there is no evidence that any two species intercommunicate, the hypothesis that such intercommunication is impossible stands.[17]

The LAD, then, is a set of rules which takes in and works through human language data. This induces a grammar, or set of rules, which allows a human to produce his own speech acts. Because the LAD is assumed to be universal to all humans (all humans with the proper physical apparatus can, theoretically, learn language), there is an underlying assumption that all grammars have identical forms deep in their structures. Thus, there is an underlying sameness among Chinese, French, and English, for example.[18] Because each speaker has a common genetic basis and each language contains similar features, the generativists do not treat language as merely habits to be learned. While some patterns must be set (behaviorally), it

is viewed as far more valuable for the speaker to internalize (cognitively) the rules which allow the speaker of the language to create new utterances.

Each of the theories about language offered by structural and generative linguists dictates to some degree the methods they develop for teaching language, specifically for teaching English as a second language. An examination of four of the major TESL texts will demonstrate how the theories transfer into methodology. The structurally-based texts are Fries and Lado's English Sentence Patterns (ESP)[19] published in 1957 and the accompanying English Pattern Practices (EPP)[20] published in 1958, which were developed at the University of Michigan, an institution deserving a great deal of credit for much of the original and continuing research in TESL. Of the generative-based texts, one is Robert Krohn's English Sentence Structures (ESS),[21] a 1971 major revision of Fries and Lado's ESP accomplished by adding generative principles to the original structural exercises. This text was also developed at the University of Michigan. Finally, William Rutherford's Modern English: A Text for Foreign Students (ME)[22] published in 1968 will also serve to illustrate a generative linguistic orientation to TESL. Using lessons which are comparable in subject matter wherever possible from these ESL texts, I will demonstrate how the linguistic theories previously outlined have been translated into methodology. It is important to remember at this time that my task is to present the structural and generative theories as they are most widely divergent from each other. Therefore, even though many of the types of

ESL exercises found in these texts are common to both linguistic schools, they will not be discussed; the points of the greatest opposition will best show how the structural and generative theories lead instructors to different methods for TESL, and consequently, to the more recent doctrinal developments in the field.

The structuralist view of science which causes the linguist to look at language as analyzable so long as it is observable and recordable as human speech also led Charles C. Fries to re-label and re-classify the English language. He was dissatisfied with the traditional labels of noun, verb, adjective, and adverb because they were "contaminated with non-scientific connotation."[23] Fries renamed these word groups only after testing words in varying positions of the sentence; he invented the labels of Class I, II, III, and IV words which seem to satisfy the scientific need for an objective description of English. The "classes" remove the learner from the traditional labels of noun, verb, adjective, and adverb to which they correspond, and are found in every lesson in both the ESP and EPP texts. Whenever Fries and Lado refer to a verb, for example, it is called a "Class II word," while a noun is a "Class I word."

A second effect of the need for scientific objectivity in teaching English appears in the structural texts as the use of the description of a word's affix rather than the traditional label. For example, in Lesson 19 in ESP, the passive structure is taught by describing it as the "BE + the -ED/EN form of a Class II word" (ESP, p. 481). In describing the form of the

words rather than using their traditional labels, the structuralists believe that the learner can sooner habitually use the -es/-en affixed rather than waste time groping for a label to talk about them. Another example of this description of the form of the word occurs in the inflections a word may take. For instance, ESP's lesson on the DO form of a question calls the student's attention to the change in verb form from the first person singular ("I study") to the third person singular ("he studies") by examples producing "the -S form of Class II words in contrast to the simple form." Examples such as "Mary studies" and "he has" are given to illustrate the different form of the "-S" inflection (ESP, p. 14). Again, the purpose of such description of the inflectional changes in words is to simplify for the student the forms he must incorporate into habit.

By the time that the generative texts for TESL were written, linguists recognized that there is no need to re-label English form classes as Classes I, II, III, and IV because the corresponding labels of noun, verb, and so on are still useful. Since their view of science causes them to see language as cognitive, using brain work, generativists do not feel the need to disguise the word classes with new "non-contaminated" labels meant to erase bad connotations and to aid memorization. The generative pattern exercises make use of such traditional labels as active, passive, object, subject, and past participle as in ESS Lesson 19 on the passive structure (ESS p. 206). One example is in the passive structure where the "BE + -ED/-EN"

of the structural texts is labeled as "BE + Past Participle" and the italics in the example correlates the "are written" to the form of "BE + -EN" (ESS, p. 206). The student learns not only that there is a form to be used but also that the form has a name.

The Rutherford text, ME, uses labels which go beyond the bounds of the traditional and structural practices and are truly generative in meaning. He not only uses traditional labels such as noun phrase, count noun, and article, but he also uses the generative word for a substitution of one construction for another--Transformation. After initially introducing the process of transformation, Rutherford requires his students to remember its meaning and merely labels the act as "T" while he applies it to such transformations as T-yes/no (simple questions), T-Wh (interrogative questions), and T-Neg (a negative statement) (ME, pp. 2-3). The generative labeling, then, is of a higher cognitive level than that of the structuralist because it requires that students begin to understand and internalize the constructions that work in English rather than simply recognize an inflection or affix and memorize its use.

Because the structuralists view speech as primary in a language, they label their approach to TESL "Audio-Lingual (A-L)"--they are concerned with speech and listening primarily and reading and writing secondarily.[24] According to Fries, this means that the initial emphasis for the student should be on the mimicry of a native English speaker, generally the teacher.[25] The student needs to begin to recognize and discriminate English

sound features which distinguish meanings; for example, by hear-
ing and repeating the phonological difference between "man" and
"men," a student should begin to distinguish between their mor-
phological difference which designates one as singular and the
other as plural.[26] Another lesson for the student of ESL is to
cover the pattern of sounds he has learned in context; i.e.
using real English sentences, he hears the word stress, intona-
tion patterns, pitch at phrase ends, and stress which make up
rhythm. He continues these lessons with phonological drills of
vowels and consonants and pattern practices designed to make
habits out of the new pronunciation.[27]

The Audio-Lingual approach is transferred easily into
the structural texts. All drills are oral; in fact, even home-
work exercises are done orally. In the first phases, especially,
the view is that written practice can do little toward strength-
ening the new pronunciation and intonation habits. One way that
oral practice is accommodated is through picture charts in EPP.
Each lesson is connected to a chart in the back of the book.
Lesson 4 on "BE + -ing," the present progressive, in ESP works
in conjunction with the pattern practices in EPP. Once the
lesson is introduced, the student is directed to open to Chart 1
in EPP and to close the book proper. Twelve pictures of objects
such as a comb, brush, fork, and an apple are shown. The
instructor then begins the pattern drill while the student
repeats the pattern and associates the vocabulary with the
pictures:

   Teacher: I'm looking for a comb.
   Student looks at picture #1 and repeats: I'm
    looking for a comb (ESP, p. 46).

In addition to mere association of picture to vocabulary
in the pattern, the student is instructed in pronunciation via
phonemic transcription and intonation patterns. Using the same
lesson, one finds the phonemic transcriptions of the comb, brush,
fork, and apple on the page adjacent to the chart--the student
has been familiarized with the phonemic alphabet since the begin-
ning of the course. Also, when the instructor asks the student
to reopen his book to the pattern practices, he finds phonemic
transcription of the first sentence of each pattern. For example,
the notation for, "I'm looking for a comb," is [aɪm lúkɪŋ fər ə kom]
(ESP, p. 46). This allows the student to see what he is saying
and facilitates home practice when he cannot always hear the
native speech as an example.

Finally, the authors chart the intonation patterns for
the first sentence of every exercise so the student can see
where the normal English speaker will raise and lower his voice
in pitch: "I'm looking for a comb" (ESP, p. 46). This care in
noting intonation patterns shows the deep concern the struc-
turalists feel about approximating the pronunciation of native
speech.

The generative linguists also see the necessity for oral
drill to instill new pronunciation and intonation habits in the
non-native speaker; however, they also feel that it is important
to remember that language is a cognitive act and it is only when
one can think in the new language that he will have true power
over it. Generative proponents feel that too much time is taken
in classrooms with simple repetition and drill without consider-
ing the meaning of the phrasing involved. The meaning must be

vital to the student's culture and lifestyle or he will be like a parrot hearing and repeating mere words and phrases. Many people, for example, have heard tales of the foreigner who has just arrived in America and the first words he learned were obscenities which he repeated eagerly, not knowing what they meant. The generativists strongly emphasize that because a human can understand and then create new sentences, he must be allowed material which asks him to listen, comprehend the message, and then communicate further.[28]

This emphasis on understanding the meaning of what one is drilling is found in both ESS and ME. In ESS, for example, Lesson 2 deals with simple questions requiring simple yes/no answers. After repeated drill requiring a specific answer as part of the pattern, Exercise 8 asks the student to listen to the question and provide a true answer. To the question, "Is the book green?" he may respond, "Yes, it is," or "No, it isn't." To "Does Mr. A. speak Spanish?" the teacher substitutes a student's name and each name potentially changes the answer (ESS, p. 16). This type of drill requires that the student begin to think in the language in order to answer the questions.

Rutherford takes the thinking drill a step further with two additional types of exercises. One is called the Garbled Speech/Guided Reply. The word "shrdlu" represents the garbled speech which the student must decipher while practicing a construction such as the present progressive:

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Teacher:    Tonight he is staying in shrdlu.
Student 1:  Where's he staying tonight?
Student 2:  He's staying (in town).  (ME, p. 23).
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Not only does the student #1 have to create a question to get information about "shrdlu" but student #2 must understand the question and form an appropriate answer dealing with a place where one could stay.

The second type of creative exercise found in ME requires a free reply from the student. There are questions which he must answer on his own using only the patterns he has internalized for help. The questions are sequences to help the student tell a story and still force him to think of original aspects on his own:

> What are you doing after class today? Answer . . .
> Then what do you do? Answer . . .
> What are you doing at four o'clock tomorrow
>   afternoon? Answer . . .

and the questions continue to create a free reply dialogue (ME, p. 23). Exercises like these occur throughout both generative-based texts and emphasize the generative belief that language learning is more than having a simple grasp of the elements of speech; it also requires a creative ability (and therefore, a need for practice) to think in the new language.

The basic difference between the structural and generative views of language acquisition stems from the psychology each linguistic school allies itself with. The structuralists' use of behavioral psychology causes them to view language as mere habit to be acquired step by step. The need to comprehend meanings of words is subordinated to the need to develop a firm habit from which to draw in the future. As Fries states in his instruction to teachers of ESL in Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language, a person has learned a new language when

he masters first the sound system ("he can understand the stream of speech and achieve an understandable production of it. . . .") and second, when he makes the structural devices, or arrangement of words, an automatic habit.[29] Robert Lado continues this idea in his preface to EPP when he states that it is a great mistake to "think that understanding the rules of the constructions in a language will result in ability to use the language for communication." It is more important, he continues, to practice the patterns of the language until they can be used with little or no effort (EPP, p. XV).

Thus, both Fries and Lado have stated the crux of the structural method for TESL. The belief that the student learns through a stimulus-response paradigm dictates a methodology of mimicry, memorization and pattern drills. The mim-mem is handled through the AL approach and the closed book drills. Basically, the mim-mem method illustrates that the meaning of what is said is subordinate to the pronunciation, intonation, and accuracy of word forms.

The pattern drill requires listening to the instructor's statement of question and making the appropriate (usually a given) response. For example, in Lesson 1 on the simple question requiring a yes/no answer, the exercises state a pattern and then require substitutions of either Class I or Class IV words:

> Pattern: Is the lesson interesting?
> (good) Is the lesson good? and
>
> Is the alphabet important?
> (the lesson) Is the lesson important?
> (ESP, p. 3).

With some variations, of course, this type of pattern drill continues throughout both the ESP and EPP texts. Again, their major job is to impress on students the English structures and arrangements as habits through sheer repetition and substitutions of known vocabulary.

Just as the structural alliance with behaviorism guides their methodology into stressing habit formation, the generative compatibility with the ideas of cognitive psychology guides their methodology into explaining language internalization. While Lado and Fries assume that habits are formed through drills, Krohn and other generativists assume that rule internalization results from such drills.[30] Because they are concerned with the mind, the genetic LAD common to all humans, they seem to sense a need that intelligent human beings have to understand not only the meanings of the words in the context of their lives but also the rules of the structures within the language. With a clear grasp of the structures, the generativists feel that a human can then think and create in that language to a fuller capacity.

This belief leads to drills requiring creative responses but also a thorough explanation of some of the processes and transformations occurring. One good example of a thorough explanation and how it aids the student is found in the present progressive section of Lesson 4. In the structural ESP, students are instructed in a short comment not to use the "-ing" form of the Class II words "See, Like, Be, Want, Understand, and Know" in this pattern (ESP, p. 33). There is no reasoning given behind such a rule but one assumes that an intelligent student

may wonder, "why not?" Krohn answers this question in ESS by listing the same words and explaining that they are indicative of states or situations rather than actions or events and hence cannot be "progressive." For example: "He wants the book now," is correct whereas "He is wanting the book now," is not (ESS, p. 38).[31] The student benefits from such an explanation because he learns that these are not merely forbidden verbs; they have a different type of meaning which bars them from the present progressive.

A second illustrative instance of how the generative linguists feel that an explanation may help the student to internalize a rule occurs in the passive structure section of Lesson 19. In Fries and Lado's ESP, the drills do not allow for the use of all the sentence information:

> Active: Napoleon wrote that letter many years ago.
> Passive: That letter was written many years ago.
> (ESP, p. 182)

The perceptive student may wonder what he can do with the deleted information concerning the fact that Napoleon was the writer. In the same lesson in ESS, Krohn answers the question by explaining that one has a choice and may use the subject of the active sentence by preceding it with the preposition "by" and inserting it after the verb:

> Active: Napoleon wrote that letter many years ago.
> Passive: That letter was written by Napoleon many
>   years ago. (ESS, p. 209).

Because Krohn also uses patterns without the prepositional phrase addition, he is allowing the student more choice in how

he may want to create passive structures in his own use of the language.

Finally, in Rutherford's ME, the generative use of explanations is still more fully demonstrated. Each section of the book includes an Explication to explain and a Verification to demonstrate the point via sentence pattern practice. The explication of the passive, for example, completely shows a four-step transformation process: 1) the actor being replaced as subject by the thing acted upon; 2) a form of Be introduced between the auxiliary and verb; 3) the verb becoming past participle; and 4) the optional rendering of the NP subject to "by + NP" in the final sentence position (ME, p. 313). By showing a sentence going through each step of the transformation, Rutherford indicates the importance of knowing what is happening to the sentence structure so that one can later reproduce the change. Internalization of rules, say the generativists, allows for creativity of the type everyone possesses in his native language.

The two linguistic schools of structuralism and generativism were important for ESL in past years because each one introduced and promoted a teaching methodology designed to help non-native speakers learn English as a second language. Both the AL and cognitive approaches to the problem of second language learning have a sound basis in linguistic theory, a fact which probably accounts for their large following of linguists and educators in the ESL field. Structuralism and generativism are still important today as a basis for sound TESL methodology; however, the primary focus appears to have been removed from

them as, in the last ten years or so, ESL researchers began to move beyond strict linguistic doctrine to find new approaches to TESL. Structurally-based researchers began to see a need for more cognitively based instruction while many generative-based researchers began to look into other sciences to find innovative and effective methods for TESL. One can still see obvious uses of the AL and cognitive approaches, but the tendency seems to be to use them as a base upon which to build newer textbook and classroom techniques. Following this tendency to view ESL as a more open field accepting of approaches other than the AL and the cognitive, the last three to five years have seen linguists and educators utilizing the many new TESL approaches combined with the older AL and cognitive methods. Eclecticism, as it has been termed, allows educators and textbook writers to give attention to the individual student's learning needs and also to the instructor's teaching preferences. The movement beyond structural and generative doctrine, and the current eclecticism in ESL, can be better understood through the following examples and explanations.

The structuralist AL approach to language learning maintains its belief that the mechanical mim-mem and pattern drills, designed to produce new habits, are useful and necessary practice towards fluency. These drills can be found in many new and old ESL texts, so strong is the belief in mechanical drill effectiveness. However, the apparent trend at present is toward improving the drills to reproduce "real" language and to allow for student manipulation of the language.[32] According to David

Davidson, there is a weakness inherent in the traditional tech-
niques of mimicry and choral response which do not allow for cog-
nitive reasoning and grammar rule acquisition.[33] This interest
in cognitive reasoning is evidence of the movement beyond standard
linguistic doctrine in structuralism. In his article on the cur-
rent approaches to grammar teaching, he illustrates some of the
ways that the desire for cognitive learning in the students is
being approached. Davidson cites studies and methods created by
instructors and linguists which are designed to add new contextual
information to the drills as well as to stimulate each student's
cognitive reasoning. Note that while it may appear that the
structuralists have become generative in their thinking because
of the new emphasis on cognition, their basic AL drill methods
have remained largely unchanged.

In fulfillment of the desire to create learning situations
which are pertinent to the students' lives, the AL approach has
been modified to include "meaningful drills" and "communicative
drills" in addition to mechanical drills. A meaningful drill is
one where the teacher cues one student with a statement and a
second student must create an appropriate question to get the
answer:

        Instructor: John's outside.
        Student 1:   Where's John? [34]
        Student 2:   John's outside.

This type of drill is reminiscent of Rutherford's fixed question-
free reply drills where one element of the drill must be created
out of its context. It is certainly a more meaningful drill than
the simple pattern drill of early Lado and Fries' EPP and ESP,

but it does not solve the student's dilemma of creating a natural question/answer conversational dialogue without a teacher's cue.

Communicative drill, designed by Wilga M. Rivers to answer this problem, creates situations relevant to students' lives and forces them to think about the meanings and consequences of what they say in these situations. An example of this type of drill is to set up the statement: "I would tell _____ to _____," and ask the student what he would tell his sister to do if he was doing his homework and she started talking.[35] Rivers challenges the students further by asking them to distinguish between the appropriateness of the response to one's sister as compared to the same response to one's parents. The communicative drills are designed to aid in conversation ability and are far more free in design and scope than the regular pattern drills.

In a slightly more traditional manner, von Elek and Oskarssen devised dialogues in 1972 which center upon real life (contextual) situations. Following fifteen or so exchanges on a topic like buying a car, students complete written exercises. The spoken drill follows: 1) The students listen to the dialogue being read by a native speaker; 2) they listen again and read the text as they do so; 3) they repeat italicized words in context; 4) they repeat the entire dialogue in sections; and 5) they take one role of the dialogue while the instructor takes the other.[36] The move towards cognition in such a drill has primarily been made through the dialogue subject--buying a car; it is a relevant topic as many people are faced with the problem. In addition, the act of reading the dialogue has been introduced

into the traditional AL drill of listening and repeating. Both the relevant topic selection and the reading practice are designed to help a student move toward autonomy in the target language, English.

A slightly more original, and certainly more cognitively oriented, method in the "new" Audio-Lingual approach to ESL is called the Global Method and was created by John Schumann (1972).[37] His concept is to use audio-visual equipment, such as the filmstrip, to produce dialogues and original responses to the details of an illustration or photograph. Through questions about the objects and actions of the pictures, the students are forced to learn new vocabulary and concepts to express themselves--the experience of being in a new, real life situation is approximated. Schumann further appeals to the cognitive aspects of language learning by devising grammar drills which require students to learn and use the grammar through communication--in other words, rule internalization. An example of this drill is to begin with a picture of a boy at his desk:

Instructor:	Who is that? (requires a knowledge of subject)
Student:	(That's) Paul.
I:	What's this? (complement)
S:	(This is/It's) a room.
I:	Where is Paul? (object of a preposition)
S:	(He's) in his room/at his desk.
I:	Whose room is it? (possessive)
S:	(It's) Paul's/his (room).
I:	What's he doing? (verb)
S:	(He's) working.

Notice how this drill requires that the student create an appropriate response both in the situational context and in the sentence structure; these are two ways it has moved beyond traditional structural doctrine.

There are other examples of how the enlightened structuralists have explored beyond the standard approaches toward cognition in language learning and these appear to be representative of the trend. Davidson sums up the techniques which structuralists are employing in their new focus on cognitive reasoning and rule acquisition in TESL as: the use of drills which encourage natural and extended communicative conversation, an early push toward autonomy in using the language, the use of visual aids in stimulating utterances, an early introduction to reading and writing (apparently, because they retain a strong belief in the primacy of speech, this has not been emphasized as much as the other techniques), and the formal presentation of grammatical structures.[38] Basically, these techniques illustrate the new emphasis that, as Robinett says, "the goal within the language classroom today is to prepare the student to use the language outside the classroom."[39] In theory, then, the structural viewpoint has expanded to include cognition while in methodology they have changed to allow for more meaningful contexts while using many of the older AL drills as well as some newer drill-forms designed to stimulate powers of reasoning in the target language.

Because of the structural linguists' adaptation of cognitive modifications into the AL method and because the generativists still utilize some AL drill methods, the distinction between the two linguistic schools is certainly less clear than it was twenty years ago. The difference, though, is still recognizable because from the very beginning of their language

instruction, students of generativists are required to think about the language and comprehend its possibilities for its use beyond classroom vocabulary and situations.[40] Autonomy and manipulation of the language become prime targets which are viewed as reachable because of the belief that language acquisition is a cognitive process requiring active brain work. In the next few paragraphs, I will capsulize some of the newer generative methods designed to enhance language learning using much the same order that Davidson used in his discussion of the same. The movement beyond doctrines becomes apparent as knowledge outside linguistics and education are incorporated into the methods, a phenomenon that Thomas Scovel sees as one of the major changes in ESL during the past decade. One can see the contributions of several disciplines in the newer methods: descriptive and inferential statistics, developmental and cognitive psychology, clinical psychology, and anthropology and sociology.[41] These disciplines have helped to broaden the generativists' view of language acquisition and the necessary methods for ESL much as the acceptance of a need for cognition has broadened the structural methods to include contextual situations and reasoning.

In 1972, Caleb Gattegno introduced an ESL method called the "Silent Way." In this, he emphasizes teacher silence and elevates learning over teaching. Using basic visual tools such as Cuisiniere rods (small sticks of varying length and color), color coded letter charts for pronunciation, basic word charts, and situational drawings (like those in Schumann's Global Method), the instructor models vocabulary and structures only

one time and then elicits responses with gestures like nods and counting off the words of an utterance on the fingers.[42] Unlike the AL method, there is no written pattern drill or mim-mem; students are forced to listen carefully and make analogies to figure out appropriate utterances. Anything in the surroundings is eligible for becoming a language tool, so meaningful context can be taught to a great extent in the classroom. The movement in this method is toward developing a greater capacity in the students' use of their reasoning power.

A method similar to the "Silent Way" is the "Community Language Learning" devised by Charles A. Curran in 1976. Here, again, the instructor is relegated to the status of language counselor while the students must take the active role in their learning. Five to ten students tape a conversation between themselves for twenty minutes; the instructor is nearby as a resource person. Later, the students play the tape back and listen to themselves; at a second replay, students write a transcript of the tape which the instructor reads to decide which grammatical structures need further work.[43] This method, while it must allow for some sort of traditional group instruction, motivates students by giving them the opportunity to work on structures they want to know in order to carry on conversations with their classmates—a skill leading to autonomy. It also aids in the development of a language community which provides psychological support for the risks that language learning necessarily involves.[44]

Among the newer ESL methods stemming from clinical and developmental psychology is the "Total Physical Response," from

James Asher, which teaches the imperative command before other sentence structures. Students listen and obey commands on the premise that listening comprehension, and not speech skill, has "the largest possible transference to the other language skills."[45] The "Rapid Acquisition" approach of Winitz and Reeds is similar in that speech is discouraged until a high degree of listening comprehension is achieved. There is a heavy reliance on problem solving to learn the language's rules.[46] A third, and very interesting, new approach to TESL comes from Georgi Lozanov (1975). His program is psychologically oriented in that it is designed to develop a "child-like spontaneity" in students who role play with a pseudonym and a "biography" designed to suit the culture of the target language. In a pleasant atmosphere, the learning consists of memorizing word groups and corresponding grammatical rules with immediate practical application. In daily four hour sessions, students review through oral conversation in the target language, learn new material with the necessary grammar and translation, and spend one hour in "seance"--a form of yoga relaxation to heighten their concentration while the new material is passively reviewed for them.[47] These three methods are all far from the traditional language learning methods of pattern and substitution drill and formal dialogues; however, they all express the generative viewpoint that language acquisition is very much an exercise requiring brain work rather than passive memorization.

An interesting innovation for TESL in the form of a new, workable grammatical system is Robert Allen's "Sector Analysis"

or "X-Word Grammar" (see the text by Kunz, 1976). Much like Fries in the 1950's, Allen was not satisfied with the explanation of English grammar and he searched for a system of grammar to employ in utterance creation. Basically, the difference between this grammar and others is that it is construction- rather than word-oriented. An example of how the X-word grammar works is that it asks students to identify and group X-words which are words like am, is, do, did, have, and could used to initiate yes/no questions. Later, they find X-words in statements and then turn the statements to yes/no questions where they must identify the subject of the X-word.[48] How well this system works as a description of English grammar is not being questioned here; its importance for TESL is that it helps beginning speakers towards early autonomy in forming spoken questions and negative statements while they begin a writing program. Obviously, too, this statistical "grammar" goes beyond the traditional generative approach to TESL.

One of the major effects of the old AL approach was that writing and reading were subordinated to speaking and listening because of the primary belief that speech is language; although the generativists believe in theory that there is more to language than speech, they were much like the structuralists and practiced very little writing in ESL. Now, one of the major changes of the generative approach to ESL is the increased use of writing as a teaching tool. Two methods in writing for TESL which bear mention are "Sentence Combining" and "Basic Composition." The sentence combining is based on generative-transformational

theory and the premise that all sentences are generated from deep
structures--a process which is considered intuitive for native
speakers but which can be acquired by the non-native through
practice of combining kernel sentences.[49] Taylor's composition
course, on the other hand, attempts to teach theme writing skills,
not just sentences, to lower level students (again, the emphasis
is on early autonomy in the target language). He uses a very
controlled procedure employing cloze passages (where a student
must supply words which have been systematically deleted from the
text), question answering, and the construction of questions for
given responses (much like the structural meaningful drill only
this is in written and not spoken form).[50] Because Taylor's
method is highly structured so that students may use, for
example, only forms of BE in the present tense, Taylor expects
students to gain manipulative ability over the language.

Although there is an obvious sharing of basic TESL
methods between the structuralists and the generativists in the
present, there are still enough differences between the two lin-
guistic schools which are incorporated into their methodologies
to separate them. The structuralists are still primarily AL
oriented although they have pushed beyond doctrine to address
cognitive concerns. The generativists still use some AL drill,
as before, but seem to reach further beyond their original cog-
nitive concerns into other scientific disciplines to find answers
for student problems in reaching early autonomy and language
manipulation. The result has been a movement beyond doctrine
in the search for TESL methods and materials. So much for the

scientific research. The next area one must look at in order to see most clearly how the linguistic doctrines are affecting TESL is the educational materials directed at both instructors and students of ESL.

Having reviewed various essays and instructional materials for teachers and teacher trainees, we can see that the instructors of ESL are viewing the field eclectically. Because of the many changes in theoretical viewpoints in linguistics and psychology, two fields closely related to ESL, the pedagogical methods reflecting them over the years have changed.[51] As one can deduce from the numerous new ESL methods previously discussed, there is still such a lack of precise knowledge about language acquisition that ESL is viewed as an open field, free for innovation and experimentation.[52] Teachers are recognizing that there are no easy solutions and that each individual must open his mind and try and retry ESL methods to see what will work best for him and for his particular class.

One illustration of this point comes from the review of William Rutherford's _Modern English_ which was newly revised in two volumes in 1977 to include more contextual exercises, explanations of grammar with reference to social situations, principles for choosing among alternative grammatical structures and focus on English beyond sentence levels.[53] Rutherford discards all the purely manipulative drills from the text in favor of the above. For example, most units in _Volume one_ begin with a dialogue on some pertinent subject such as a visit to the doctor or going on a diet. Then, new vocabulary is listed in categories

by verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. There are also ques-
tions to answer about the dialogue and a dialogue variation which
provides synonymous sentences and phrases for original dialogue
sentences. Rutherford uses sentences with the same sound patterns
for speech practice and short paragraphs about which questions are
asked and synonymous sentences provided for reading practice.
Writing is not ignored as there are dictation exercises and short,
written substitution drills using a given word form such as the
article or words like "some/any, a lot of/much--many, a little--
a few" (p. 134, Vol. I). All of these exercises are written with
realistic situations in mind. Most chapters even include prac-
tice with "speech act" to help students understand and use such
phrases as "How do you do?/How are you?" (Unit I) and "As a mat-
ter of fact" (Unit 3) in context. Even Rutherford, a generativ-
ist in his earlier text, is working toward more firmly based
cognitive and natural situations for learning in ESL.

In her review of the second edition of Modern English,
Helen Carney stresses that while most AL users in 1968 were
unsure of the "pedagogical value of a linguistic theory which
professed to have next to nothing to say about either how lan-
guage is learned nor about how insights gained into the nature
of langunge might be applied in the classroom," the instructors
in TESL have changed and, "one of the ways in which some of us
have changed over the years is that we no longer demand absolute
answers to complex questions."[54] The change Carney refers to is
eclecticism--a drawing upon several theories and methodologies
to accomplish a single purpose--and she heartily endorses

Rutherford's text as one that devotes time to the use of the language as well as to its form.[55] It is significant that Rutherford's reviewer was not only against or afraid of his text originally but that she also states in her review the general status of ESL as an eclectic field today.

A second illustration of the reality that ESL teachers are being instructed in the benefits of the new eclecticism lies in the abundance of literature discussing and teaching about ESL. Books such as Croft's Readings in English as a Second Language: For Teachers and Teacher Trainees (1980), Rivers and Temperley's A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English: as a Second or Foreign Language (1978), Brown's Principles of Language Learning and Teaching (1980), and Robinett's Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (1978) are all excellent examples of the instruction given to those already teaching in the ESL field as well as those just entering it. B. W. Robinett is representative of the professional feeling of eclecticism as she sums up the status of her field:
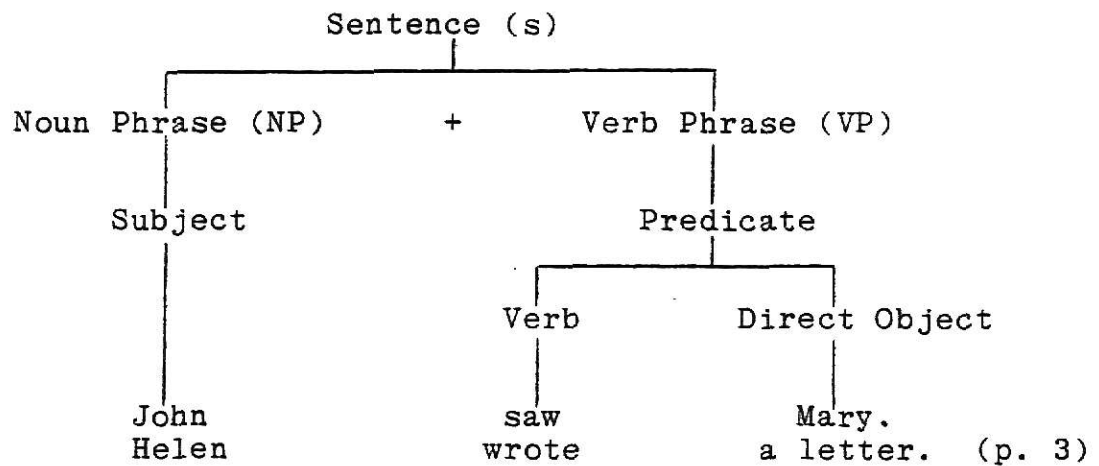
> Theories of linguistics and psychology are not
> what the teacher actually takes into the class-
> room; language teaching is much more than a mere
> blending of these theories. Learning depends
> upon many variables which cannot be controlled,
> such as the age of the students, size of class,
> motivation of both students and teachers, the
> personality of the teachers, and so forth. Thus,
> no one approach can be expected to produce the
> same results in all cases; nor should one approach
> be used to the total exclusion of another. The
> most effective aspects of the grammar-translation
> [i.e. traditional] audio-lingual, and cognitive
> approaches can usually be seen in all classrooms
> in which learning takes place.[56]

As Robinett indicates, there are various ways to teach in the ESL classroom. We have seen through this report the basic AL (structural) and cognitive (generative) approaches grow from their infant, inflexible stages to adolescence in the flexibility of their movement beyond doctrine towards new TESL methods. Assuredly, they will continue to grow and develop new methods as new language theories are explored and tested. In teaching practice, instructors of ESL are realizing the benefits of both approaches as well as the newer innovations as they view TESL eclectically. A final illustration of the use of the linguistic doctrines in ESL can be made through an examination of their employment in the classroom in recently published textual materials. In order to make the review representative of the field today, I have chosen two text series published by the highly respected English Language Services, one series which constitutes the major military instructional materials from the Defense Language Institute English Language Center (DLIELC), and one series to represent the average ESL text published by Prentice-Hall, Inc.

William Sheeler's <u>Grammar</u> <u>and</u> <u>Drillbook</u> published by the English Language Services in 1978, clearly combines the structural and generative approaches into an eclectic text for TESL. Sheeler's focus tends to be more generative, first from the standpoint of his subject matter--grammar--and second, from his terminology. He makes grammatical explanations which he expects students of the intermediate to lower advanced levels to understand by themselves.[57] He uses traditional labels such as

"subject" and "predicate" and attaches them to generative tree
diagrams to explain English sentence structures:

```
                            Sentence (s)
                                 |
        ┌────────────────────────┴────────────────────┐
Noun Phrase (NP)            +             Verb Phrase (VP)
        |                                        |
     Subject                                 Predicate
        |                                        |
        |                            ┌───────────┴───────────┐
        |                          Verb               Direct Object
        |                            |                        |
      John                          saw                     Mary.
      Helen                        wrote                 a letter.   (p. 3)
```

Sheeler focuses strongly on the description of common
sentence patterns like the ones above but he also gears his
exercise towards meaningful communication in context. In his
lesson on appositives, for example, he uses sentences like, "He
drives a Toyota, a small Japanese car," (p. 142) and "Kim, a
Korean student, lived with them for a year," (p. 143) to appeal
to the non-native speaker with details about foreign, possibly
home, countries.

More towards AL practice, however, Sheeler devotes con-
siderable space early in the drillbook to intonation and stress
patterns of speech. He apparently views speech as comparable in
importance to rule internalization. After a thorough section on
word and phrase stress and high-to-low pitch on pages 4-5, he
requires their practice in each unit which shows new vocabulary
and stress/pitch patterns. See, for example, Section 11 which
explains the stronger stress on the second noun in nominal
phrases: gráss skírt, sílver wátch, stóne hóuse (p. 119).

Sheeler's eclectic approach is obvious even in these few examples as he stresses both speech and grammar internalization, made possible through reasoning and explanations. He combines structural theory with generative theory and though he leans more heavily toward cognition, he clearly draws upon both linguistic schools.

The New English Course (1979) by Edwin Cornelius is a six volume text also published by the English Language Services. The author states his purposes in his preface:

> The approach of the course is based on a view that learning another language involves an intellectual process (cognition) and that lesson material must be presented, explained, practiced and experienced in all modes--listening, speaking, reading, and writing--for students to develop the desired competence in the language.[58]

Cornelius is saying, in essence, that his is an eclectic approach born of a recognition--much like Robinett's--that students need all the help they can be given through language theory and methodology in ESL.

One of his main objectives in the series is to allow students to develop their ability in comprehending natural language-- "aural comprehension"--in "everyday conversations." Thus, Cornelius makes great use of classroom tapes and labs (p. T11-12) as well as dialogues designed to be realistic and relevant for young adult and adult learners (p. T14). His intention is to give early high priority to listening and speaking for greatest autonomy and to gradually shift to reading and writing skills in the more advanced stages (p. T12).

Cornelius sees a need for some risk-taking in language learning, so he believes in explanations of unknown material but at the same time, he stresses that over-explanations do not allow a student to think and apply analogies. Learning a language is very much a cognitive process to Cornelius. An example of how he practices these beliefs in the classroom is the "small group" work of two to three students. Here, as in Curran's Community Language Learning, the teacher is present as an observer to help only when necessary so that the students increase their own participation in the learning process. In addition, students in Cornelius' program are often given the instructor's role to give them greater autonomy and responsibility (p. T13). Students who must think of their own exercise questions are being forced to create original utterances in the target language. When Cornelius adds these practices geared toward language manipulation to the student-centered group work and the abundance of substitution and intonation drills and pattern practices found in the series, the result is an ESL text with a truly eclectic approach.

The third textual series I will comment upon is the American Language Course (ALC) a publication of the DLIELC. The importance of the ESL methods employed by this military program lies in both the fact that it is the only sanctioned material used for TESL in the U.S. Air Force and Army and the fact that many foreign countries have adopted the ALC textual series in its entirety for teaching ESL to their native speakers.[59] Some background information on the Defense Language Institute will be helpful.

The DLIELC originated in the early 1950's as an attachment to the Air Force's pilot training program; its purpose was to help eliminate the language communication problems which occurred when foreign nationals joined the program. Most of the course was directed toward teaching the vocabulary and special expressions important for pilot training; this systems approach was labeled Instructional Systems Development and is now used throughout the ALC to direct the training in the target language to those technical skills the trainee will need in his job.

During the 1960's, because more foreign military students began entering more specialized types of U.S. military professional and technical training, the need for more diverse materials from the Institute grew. In the beginning, the students were mostly officers from all over the world, college educated in their countries with some background in English. The "Elementary" (1100, 1200, 1300 and 1400) and "Intermediate" (2100, 2200, 2300, and 2400) volumes suited their needs. As more truly elementary students with little or no English background entered the ranks, particularly as enlisted personnel, and as more foreign countries adopted the ALC to teach English to their people, the DLIELC prepared a "Basic" series (500, 600, 700, and 800). Finally, they developed the highest level series (2500 and 2600) for the more functionally capable students in very advanced training.

The linguistic orientation of the ALC texts, published in 1966 and reprinted each year through 1979, is structurally based in the AL method. According to Victor E. Smilgin, Chief

of the Curriculum Branch at DLIELC, this is the material orienta-
tion, "because, on the one hand, while they were being developed,
that's what there was, and on the other hand, given the functional
approach we had adopted on principled grounds, the skill needs of
the students accorded directly with the audio-lingual skill hier-
archy of listening, speaking, reading, and writing."[60] The texts
that the ALC uses today, then, are still structurally oriented
because the DLIELC changes from a proven method very slowly.
They see themselves as consumers of the language research market
because their main role is as an operational government agency,
and while they have been aware of the gradual "shift toward a
more cognitive approach," they have waited for more experimen-
tally researched reports in ESL (p. 2). A part of the decision
not to radically change their TESL methods stems from the fact
that most research has been conducted on college-bound level
students but that none of that research is applicable as a whole
system to the ability level and technological material needs fac-
ing the DLIELC.

According to Smilgin, however, the DLIELC is not wholly
satisfied with its present materials and this is how the mili-
tary program fits into the scope of this report. They are inter-
ested in trying some of the newer "attractive ideas" which can
both update old texts and deal with a new priority on raising
reading skill levels. Smilgin outlines the changes being made
in the present ALC materials:

> The basic design of the new (about 33% drafted)
> general English materials (as opposed to our
> specialized "functional"-ESP-materials) is to

emphasize communication, using the framework of
the practical everyday situations our students
actually face (barracks, mess hall, bank, etc.).
We have tried to analyze what students actually
have to do with English in these situations . . .
and develop materials to assist them to meet
their "survival" needs. Reading (rather, pre-
reading) is introduced from day one, as is
cursive writing. Grammatical "rules" are dis-
cussed explicitly, though briefly, before and/or
after reinforcement activities. Lessons have
introductory readings and/or dialogues (short)
to introduce the theme of the lesson. On a some-
what more cosmetic level, there is a wholesale
increase in the amount of visual aids, i.e. pic-
tures in the book, illustrations (and graphs and
charts at later stages as specialized reading
skills). We have taken great pain to "clean up
our act" on the EEO front. Pictures depicting
people include females and minorities in non-
traditional roles, i.e., pilots, mechanics, doc-
tors, etc. We will continue to use the language
laboratory not for mechanical repetition/manipu-
lation activities, but as interactive devices
(P. 3).

These changes in the <u>ALC</u> should be completed in about two years

and they are obviously part of the lean towards an eclectic use

of the linguistic doctrines and methods in ESL. The more cog-

nitive needs such as reading and writing are being addressed,

apparently in an effort to help non-native English speaking

military personnel cope with their everyday life in addition to

functioning on the job. More meaningful exercises dealing with

situations that military personnel must face daily are designed

to emphasize communication. At the same time, the AL methods

stressing listening comprehension and speaking skills will not

be totally disposed of because they continue to contribute to

the DLIELC's major mission of teaching English so its military

students can function in their various jobs.

The final text series that I chose to represent the average ESL text is actually a set of three books by John Chapman. called Adult English (1978) and published by Prentice-Hall, Inc. The series is aimed at the achievement of early autonomy in the target language through the context of real-world experiences in exercises, reading passages, and illustration.[61] For example, Unit I in Book I consists of photographs of real people like a pharmaceutical clerk and an office worker about which there are reading passages. Students listen and repeat, then read the passages aloud to other students; afterwards, they must answer yes/no to questions about the passages (Book I, p. 1-3). There is a strong push towards making the situation realistic with photography of people that students might meet anyday; at the same time, the AL approach is clearly behind the "listen and repeat" and yes/no questions. Indeed, Chapman tends to use the language-as-habit idea in many of his exercises. In Book II, for instance, the photographs in Unit 4 present telephones while the dialogues deal with going through a receptionist to talk to a friend and a doctor (p. 33) while a reading passage explains the receptionist's job (p. 35). Again, the context is useful for the ESL student; it is essential to learn to talk on the phone in English. However, neither the dialogues nor the reading passages ask the student to create new utterances. He need only repeat and memorize, or look to the passage to answer true/false statements--a decidedly structurally-based AL drill.

When Chapman approaches rule internalization of English sentence structure, however, he becomes more generative in style.

He notes in his preface, for example, that he does not use any grammatical terms in the structure section so that each teacher can supply the terminology and explanations which will be most useful to his class (Book I, p. IX). This either leaves grammar unexplained, as in the older AL method, or open for a variety of explanation using generative terms or even such terms as X-word grammar. In Book I, this open-ended approach to sentence structure is often charted for the teacher's preference. For instance:

I'm	a teacher.	Am I	a teacher?	Yes, you are. No, you're not.
You're	tall.	Are you	tall?	Yes, I am. No, I'm not. (p. 7)

In the later, more complex Book III, however, though structures are still left to the teachers to introduce, Chapman requires some inductive reasoning (active cognition) from the students to learn about grammar. In a lesson on the past perfect, for example:

        Given: the dates 1950 and 1960 (photos of the same
                building taken ten years apart)
        1. No one had lived there.
        2. Someone had broken the window.
        3. Someone had covered the window.
        4. July 10, 1960 I took picture #2.
        Answer:
        1. The past perfect tense uses _____ plus the past
            participle.
        2. The past perfect tense is used to describe sev-
            eral events that happened in the past. The
            actions described in the past perfect tense
            happened _____ the events described in the past
            tense. (Book III, p. 78)

This exercise requires that the student understand the principle behind the past participle and past perfect as well as recognizing their forms.

The use of exercises such as the one above demonstrate how Chapman follows the general trend of eclecticism in the ESL field. Although many of his methods seem to be primarily AL in nature, he requires some cognitive responses to the language learning situation as well as leaving some teaching options open to instructors to choose from the variety of approaches available in TESL today.

The ESL textbooks and courses that I have examined all demonstrate a decided lean toward either structuralism or generativism in theory but apply methods from both schools, as well as from the new exploratory movement; therefore, the term "eclectic" describes their approach to TESL. The instructor-geared books also bear out the insight that there is a need to combine as many methods as possible and as might be effective for teaching ESL successfully in 1980. Eclecticism, or the drawing together of many approaches seems to be one answer to the need for more effective TESL programs.

The effect of this is that most researchers and instructors no longer seem to be strictly structural or generative in their thinking and teaching as they were when the AL and cognitive methods dominated the ESL field in the 1950-1960's. Persons following either linguistic doctrine are not as didactic or inflexible in the feeling that there is only one way which is right to describe a language or to probe its secrets. While the

structuralists still hold the basic beliefs that a language is
habit and that speech is primary, they have expanded to see a
need for providing for the acquisition of that habit in a more
meaningful way. Their new focus on cognition shows that struc-
turalists now perceive that a human can consciously think about
a language and use that knowledge to help him learn more effi-
ciently. The generativists, on the other hand, have also
expanded their field of vision to include the study of language
from the basis of other fields like statistics and clinical psy-
chology. They still view language acquisition as a genetic, cog-
nitive occurrence and continue to search for the answers behind
this mystery. In the meantime, they have expanded their ESL
methodology to include exercises which are less reliant on the
old pattern and substitution drills which Krohn borrowed from
Lado and Fries and now focus more on requiring students to create
new utterances to the capacity that generativists believe is
possible. Perhaps through such growth in looking beyond estab-
lished linguistic doctrine for greater language knowledge, lin-
guists and educators are better able to address the complex lan-
guage learning problems of 1980. Indeed, this expansion of lin-
guistic points of view has already paved the way for an eclectic
classroom approach utilizing everything of value in TESL. There
is no doubt that structuralism and generativism still underlie
many ESL methods today, but it is refreshing, as well as useful
to know that other sciences and viewpoints are also being tapped.

Notes

[1] It becomes obvious from the subject matter of such books as Generative Grammar, Structural Linguistics, and Language Teaching by Karl Conrad Diller (Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, 1971) and from the early major TESL research at the University of Michigan that structural and generative grammar are indeed, the two most influential linguistic doctrines behind TESL.

[2] Randal L. Whitman, English and English Linguistics (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1975), p. 4.

[3] Whitman, p. 11.

[4] Diller, p. 35.

[5] Whitman, p. 21.

[6] Whitman, p. 20.

[7] Charles C. Fries, Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1945), p. 6. See also: Leonard Bloomfield, Language (New York: Henry Holt and Company 1933), p. 21.

[8] Diller, pp. 10-11.

[9] Diller, pp. 22 and 33.

[10] Whitman, p. 11.

[11] Bloomfield, pp. 29-31.

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[12] Bloomfield, p. 32.

[13] Diller, p. 18.

[14] Fries, p. 3.

[15] Whitman, p. 20.

[16] Diller, pp. 27-28.

[17] Whitman, p. 23.

[18] Whitman, pp. 23-24.

[19] Robert Lado and Charles C. Fries, English Sentence Patterns (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1971). All further references to ESP will be cited within the text.

[20] Robert Lado and Charles C. Fries, English Pattern Practices (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1958). All further references to EPP will be cited within the text.

[21] Robert Krohn, English Sentence Structures (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1971). All further references to ESS will be cited within the text.

[22] William E. Rutherford, Modern English: A Textbook for Foreign Students (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc. 1968). All further references to ME will be cited within the text.

[23] Whitman, p. 13.

[24] Whitman, p. 16.

[25] Fries, p. 24.

[26] Fries, p. 38.

[27] Fries, pp. 24-25.

[28] Fraida Dubin and Elite Olshtain, Facilitating Language Learning: A Guidebook for the ESL/EFL Teacher (New York: McGraw-Hill International Book Company, 1977), p. 4.

[29] Fries, p. 3.

[30] Whitman, p. 19.

[31] While Krohn's explanation is grammatically correct in most instances, there are occasions when such state-of-being verbs maybe used metaphorically for an action verb (i.e. "I am seeing your point" has the meaning, "I am following your point").

[32] Betty Wallace Robinett, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages: Substance and Technique (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press and New York: McGraw-Hill International Book Company, 1978), pp. 206-07.

[33] David Davidson, "Current Approaches to the Teaching of Grammar in ESL," from Readings in English as a Second Language, 2nd ed., ed. Kenneth Croft (Mass: Winthrop Publishers, Inc., 1980), pp. 317-18.

[34] Davidson, p. 38.

[35] Davidson, p. 319. See also: Wilga M. Rivers, "From Linguistic Competence to Communicative Competence," TESOL Quarterly, 7, 1 (1973), 25-34.

[36] Davidson, p. 320. See also: Tibor von Elek and Mats Oskarssen, Teaching Foreign Language Grammar to Adults, Research Bulletin No. 10, Gothenburg (Sweden) School of Education (ED 070 350), 1972.

[37] Davidson, p. 324. See also: John Schumann, "Communication Techniques," TESOL Quarterly, 6, 2 (1972), 143-162.

[38] Davidson, p. 318.

[39] Robinett, p. 168.

[40] Davidson, p. 325.

[41] Thomas Scovel, rev. of _Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedy_, by Georgi Lozanov, _TESOL Quarterly_, 13, 2 (1979), 255.

[42] Davidson, pp. 326-27. See also: Caleb Gattegno, _Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: The Silent Way_ (New York: Educational Solutions, 1972).

[43] Davidson, pp. 327-28. See also: Charles A. Curran, _Counseling-Learning in Second Languages_ (Apple River, Ill: Apple River Press, 1976).

[44] Davidson, pp. 327-28. See also: Robinett, pp. 166-67.

[45] Davidson, p. 329. See also: James Asher, "The Total Physical Response Approach to Second Language Learning," _Modern Language Journal_, 53, 1 (1969), 3-17.

[46] Davidson, p. 329. See also: Harris Winitz and James A. Reeds, "Rapid Acquisition of a Foreign Language by the Avoidance of Speaking," _International Review of Applied Linguistics_, 11, 4 (1973), 295-317.

[47] Davidson, pp. 328-29. See also: Scovel, pp. 225-266.

[48] Davidson, pp. 330-31. See also: Robert L. Allen, _English Grammars and English Grammar_ (New York: Scribner's, 1972).

[49] Davidson, p. 332. See also: Marcella Frank, _Modern English Exercises for Non-Native Speakers, Parts I & II_ (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972); and William Strong, _Sentence Combining_ (New York: Random House, 1973).

[50] Davidson, pp. 334-35. See also: Barry P. Taylor, "Teaching Composition to Low-Level ESL Students," _TESOL Quarterly_, 10, 3 (1976), 309-320.

[51] Robinett, p. 160.

[52] Wilga M. Rivers and Mary S. Temperley, A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language (New York: Oxford University Press, 1978), p. VII.

[53] William E. Rutherford, Modern English, 2nd ed., vol. 2 (New York: Harcourt, Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1977), p. V. Any further references to either vol. 1 or 2 will be cited within the text.

[54] Helen L. Carney, rev. of Modern English, 2nd ed., by William E. Rutherford, TESOL Quarterly, 13, 3 (1979), 417.

[55] Carney, p. 419.

[56] Robinett, pp. 164-65.

[57] William D. Sheeler, Grammar and Drillbook (USA: English Language Services, 1978), p. iii. All other references will be cited within the text.

[58] Edwin T. Cornelius, New English Course, Books I, III & VI (Encino, California: English Language Services, 1979), p. T11. All further references to be cited within the text.

[59] For further information, see: American Language Course (Lackland, Air Force Base, Texas: Defense Language Institute English Language Center, 1966).

[60] Letter received from Victor E. Smilgin, Chief of Curriculum Branch, DLIELC, 27 September 1980, p. 2. All further references to be cited within the text.

[61] John Chapman, Adult English One (N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1978), p. IX. All further references to books One, Two and Three will be cited within the text.

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Appendix

Kansas State University
Department of English
ATTN: Beth L. Hewett
Manhattan, Kansas 66506

Dear Ms. Hewett:

I hope through this amplification of our recent phone conversa-
tion to be able to provide you with information useful to your
research. In your original letter of 24 May you posed several
questions, some of which are major research areas in and of
themselves. I think I can best answer your questions by
describing what we do and why we do it. I have interspersed
occasional parenthesized asides to provide tangential informa-
tion, some of which you may already know. If not, they serve
as interesting collateral reading/research. I have also taken
the liberty of adding personal observations which I prefer you
do not use or cite.

The Defense Language Institute English Language Center (DLIELC)
began in the early '50's as an adjunct to the Air Force's train-
ing program for pilots. When foreign nationals began being
admitted to the program, there were many, many communication
problems. . . . Something had to be done. Accordingly, a small
group started the Aviation English Course. This is one of the
first instances, I believe, of what is now called English for
Special Purposes (ESP). The course had as its purpose to teach
the vocabulary and special expressions directly pertinent to
pilot training. This was a germinal application of a major sys-
tems approach to training, since entitled Instructional Systems
Development (ISD) and embraced by the Department of Defense,
especially the Air Force, and much of industry. The principle
thrust of a systems approach is to target the training, specif-
ically the job the trainee will perform after training. In our
case the "job" is to attend technical training. . . . The suc-
cess of this training was determined operationally. Attrition
went down, training time shortened, hence success.

During this same time period, foreign military students began
entering more, and more different, types of U.S. military pro-
fessional and technical training. The need for English skills

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grew. Consequently the mission of our Institue grew. Accordingly, the training materials began to grow and change so that by the early and mid '60's, students came through here from all points of the world, destined for all sorts of follow-on training. These students were largely officers, college-trained in their countries, and previously trained in English. I mention this here so that you can understand that the American Language Course (ALC) materials contain a number of books (1100, 1200, 1300, and 1400) that are labeled elementary. "Elementary" really means the lowest level student typically sent to DLIELC at that time, not true beginners.

In any event, the numbers of foreign military students studying English began to "mushroom" both here and, in much greater numbers, in their own countries. With the increase in numbers coming here for training, there came as well an increase in the numbers and types of follow-on training our students were destined for. Curriculum development here centered on production of specialized English terminology materials, designed to orient the student to terms related to his/her occupational area (electronics, supply, aviation, maintenance, etc.). At the same time, many countries were using our "Elementary" (and Intermediate, Vols. 2100, 2200, 2300, 2400) materials to train their, truly, elementary students - by the thousands. To meet the demand for true elementary students, we developed a basic series, then labeled Vols. 500, 600, 700, and 800).

As more and more countries pursued the acquisition of higher technology, training needs (for the U.S. training) grew; hence, English training needs grew. So, we added two volumes 2500 and 2600 to the higher end of our training. As you can see, then, the curriculum was not planned, designed and developed, but rather from an originally functionally (occupationally) related case, "just growed" at both ends so that, by responding to growing and changing needs, we ended up with a large amount of material suited to a broad range of skill levels. The materials are structurally and audio-lingually oriented because on the one hand, while they were being developed, that's what there was, and on the other hand, given the functional approach we had adopted on principled grounds, the skill needs of the students accorded directly with the audio-lingual skill hierarchy of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Because we then had this broad curriculum . . . , many countries simply adopted the DLI system, lock, stock, and barrel, with great success (again, operationally defined). This picture continued in the same growing way, through the early mid '70's.

During this time, as I'm sure your course requirements have made you aware, the ESL literature was peppered with everybody and his/her uncle's training approach and model of learning, the main theme of which was to shift toward a more cognitive approach. Because of DLIELC's role as an operational government agency, i.e., we are not a research institute, but the Department of

Defense's English Language Training Center, we have to be concerned first and foremost with the needs of our students - i.e., to prepare them for their follow-on training. If we change from what is a proven way, we do so cautiously. In the literature there is lots of philosophical discussion, but only in the last few years, principally in the testing area, have experimental researched-based reports appeared. . . . Many reports deal with small trial efforts using college-bound/level students. None are applicable as is to a whole system of needs such as confronts us. We, like others in the field, have examined "new" approaches, and continue to do so. But what we use . . . is limited to what we can see or believe to work.

I'll note one more background development before discussing your comment that we are "not wholly satisfied with" our method. That development is the growing need, within the U.S. military for attention to ESL primarily due to the growing number of Hispanics enlisting, and due as well to the fact that the Hispanic community represents a large, and largely untapped, manpower resourse. The U.S. military, in the general concept of force development, offers lots of educational opportunities ranging from high school equivalency completion up to advanced academic degrees. The philosophy has always been to invest this kind of money to get, as a return, improved job performance, better career growth for the individual, hence longer retention in the military, hence less personnel turnover, hence improved force readiness with a larger cadre of more experienced, better trained personnel. . . .

Now, with all the preceding as the background "givens," let me discuss some of your specific points. Yes, DLIELC is not wholly satisfied with what we have. The way we got what we have has produced many "infelicities." The materials have been around for quite some time. There are many attractive ideas discussed in the literature that we'd like to try. The way the U.S. military has changed its training . . . has "upped" the priority of reading as a skill need. The U.S. Army BSEP ESL programs using our material have some heartburn with the "functional" orientation . . . of much of our general English curriculum. For instance, most of the soldiers who use our materials have no need for some of the topics of some particular ALC lessons, i.e., troposphere, ionosphere. In short, it's time to change. The basic design of the new (about 33% drafted) general English materials (as opposed to our specialized "functional"-ESP-materials) is to emphasize communication, using the framework of practical everyday situations our students actually face (barracks, mess hall, bank, etc.). We have tried to analyze what students actually have to do with English in these situations . . . and develop materials to assist them to meet their "survival" needs. Reading (rather pre-reading) is introduced from day one as is cursive writing. Grammatical "rules" are discussed explicitly, though briefly before and/or after reinforcement activities. Lessons have introductory readings and/or dialogues (short) to introduce the theme of the lesson. On a somewhat more cosmetic level, there is a wholesale increase in the

amount of visual aids, i.e., pictures in the book. illustrations
(and graphs and charts at later stages as specialized reading
skills). We have taken great pain to "clean up our act" on the
EEO front. Pictures depicting people include females and minor-
ities in non-traditional roles, i.e., pilots, mechanics, doctors,
etc. We will continue to use the language laboratory not for
mechanical repetition/manipulation activities, but as interactive
devices. To show the kind of thing I'm talking about, I have
included a teacher's copy of a set of lab activities we developed
to be used with our present materials to see how they work. Ini-
tial results are overwhelmingly positive. We still need to do
more. The thrust of the higher level material will be skill
development with explicit attention to message organization
features such as you now find discussed in the literature as dis-
course analysis. We expect the whole series to be completed in
about two years. The first classroom tryout book is at the
printer's now.

As for the people who write our materials, they are promoted from
the teaching staff and range broadly, from English to Linguistics
with degrees ranging from BS to PhD . . . .

As I mentioned over the phone, I am also enclosing a catalog of
our presently available materials so that you can see what, beside
the one or two books you have, we presently use. We have a great
deal more material, not listed in the catalog, which is in class-
room tryout now. Most of the new materials are ESP-type stuff.

I apologize for the length of this letter but most ESL programs
not specifically under Bilingual Education auspices are oriented
towards the college audience, hence the literature focuses pri-
marily on this area. We have different needs, service a different
audience, have different goals, and function in a different admin-
istrative environment. I felt it important for you to be aware of
those differences. I hope this letter helps you in preparing your
thesis. Best of luck!

Sincerely

[SIG]

V. E. SMILGIN   2 Atch
Chief   1. Set of lab activities
Curriculum Development Branch   2. Catalog

LINGUISTIC THEORY AND TESL PRACTICE:
SOME RECENT TRENDS

by

BETH LENGYEL HEWETT

B. A., Western Maryland College, 1979

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of English

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1980

Abstract

The purpose of this Master's Report is to look at the teaching of English as a second language (TESL) in relation to the major linguistic theories which have affected it from the 1950's through the present. I first describe the theories behind structural linguistics and generative grammar, as they have greatly affected TESL by spawning the widely used Audio-Lingual and Cognitive approaches to the field of English as a second language. Beginning with the textbooks by Fries and Lado, Krohn, and Rutherford, the report attempts to establish how structuralism and generativism have provided the basis for the present linguistic applications to TESL. Second, I utilize various studies from the 1970's which introduce new TESL methods in order to show that there has been a recent movement that expands the ESL field beyond linguistic theory through other sciences such as clinical psychology. At the same time, I make the point that structural and generative linguistics continue to provide the linguistic basis in this new, exploratory movement. There is a general feeling among researchers and educators that the ESL field should combine and utilize all the available methods which might work in the classroom. This eclectic movement incorporates the structural-AL approach, the generative-based cognitive approach, and all the innovative, useful methods which have come from the recent exploratory movement beyond structural linguistics and generative grammar.