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Creative methods
in teaching English

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Introduction

The scope and the main issues

The main thesis of the following book will be that the application of innovative methods/approaches to modern foreign language teaching (on the example of the English language) ought to result in better effectiveness of learning, operationalised as results in standardized tests of achievement. In particular, one expects here high effectiveness of the Communicative Approach (CA) which is part of innovative teaching trend, and developed in foreign language teaching as a counterbalance to traditional methods, a good example of which is the classic Grammar-Translation Method (GTM).

The methodological part of the book, elaborated towards its end, will combine the comparative, longitudinal and cross-sectional perspective. The comparative character of the study will juxtapose the results of those students who are taught English as a foreign language in accordance with the Communicative Approach rules with the results of the students who are taught English as a foreign language using the Grammar-Translation Method. Taking this aspect into consideration, one will deal here with a classic, for a comparative layout, comparison of the results achieved by two groups of students with potential differences showing (although they do not have to) an instrumental advantage of either the GTM or the CA.

The comparative approach though, in and of itself, has some serious limitation which will be overcome by complementing the research layout with cross-sectional study elements; that will mean a comparison of the results achieved by those students who are taught in a traditional manner and those taught according to the Communicative Approach – separately as far as the beginner, intermediate and advanced level is concerned.

Such an approach causes a classic layout of the ANOVA 3 x 2 (three competence levels x two methods of language teaching). It will eventually be enriched by longitudinal research elements by taking into consideration the subjects' achievements at two points of time – half a year apart. As a consequence, it will be more legitimate to talk of the method “influence” rather than, merely, “relations” (once the students' results are also considered).

Having two measurements will also allow me to determine “education added value” (R. Dolata 2008) of both the GTM and the CA in the groups of different English-knowledge levels. This will not only reinforce the methodological layout of the study but will also result in higher praxeological validity of the research conducted.

In order to analyse these issues empirically, it will be necessary, however, to study the most fundamental theoretical problems first. Just for that reason, a critical analysis of the main methods and approaches applied to modern foreign language teaching, and the exploration of the possibilities of making use of classroom discourse in teaching English as a foreign language will be presented.

Grammar-Translation Method characteristics

This method is also known under the name the Prussian Method, which is after the country where it originates from. The main proponents are J. Seidenstücker, K. Plötz, H. S. Ollendorf and J. Meidinger (J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers 2004). Its heyday lasts a century – from the forties of the 19th century to the forties of the last century. It should be emphasised that the Grammar-Translation Method is not defined by any theory (J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers 2004).

The Prussian Method goals are directed at the development of reading and writing omitting, at the same time, the skill of speaking and listening (which, in turn, form the foundation of the Communicative Approach).

A typical lesson run in accordance with the Grammar-Translation Method rules is devoted to the translation of sentences from a foreign language into one's native tongue, and vice versa. The scope of language is merely restricted to the content of the text analysed (in terms of its grammar), which is constituted, as M. Celce-Murcia/ E. Olshtain (2007: 61) write, by “decontextualised and unrelated sentences”, admitting almost immediately (M. Celce-Murcia/ E. Olshtain 2007: 61) that “[g]rammar needs vocabulary for meaning, and vocabulary needs grammar for structure.”

Communicative Approach characteristics

Its very first propagators are Ch. N. Candlin (1976) and H. G. Widdowson (1978, 1979). It should be made clear at this point, however, that the Communicative Approach is a cooperative collection of different communicative methodologies which, among other things, include N. Chomsky's theory of competence (1965) or D. H. Hymes' theory of language as communication (1964, 1972). They all find their reflection in the work of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe and the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe which work out common reference goals of language proficiency: the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. The juxtaposition of the most fundamental principles of the Communicative Approach and the Grammar-Translation Method is presented in table 1.

The Communicative Approach	The Grammar-Translation Method
Effective communication is its goal.	The ability to translate sentences – distinguishing between structures, is its goal.
The development of communicative – discursive competence is desired.	The development of linguistic competence is desired.
Language is formed by students with the help of the trial and error method.	Language is a habit.
Contextualisation is its major assumption.	Linguistic elements are not contextualised – learning words by heart.
Meaning is of overriding importance.	Emphasis on form and structure.

Through selection of carefully chosen forms of exercises, the use of mother tongue is restricted (contrastive presentation is acceptable though).	Mother tongue is an indispensable lesson element.
Teachers, through selection of creative techniques of teaching, motivate students to their work with language.	Teachers control students by avoiding any conflict with theory.
Teacher is not able to predict student's utterance.	Teacher shapes student's utterance.
The development of the ability of speaking and listening.	The development of the ability of reading and writing.
Students, through pair- and group work establish mutual contacts.	Students work with a written text.
Utterance fluency.	Translation accuracy.
The development of pronunciation similar to that of a native speaker desired.	The development of comprehensible pronunciation.
Students' intrinsic motivation comes from their interest in what language communicates.	Students' intrinsic motivation comes from their interest in language structure.
Utterance is the basic lesson unit.	Sentence is the basic lesson unit.
Variety of teaching materials.	Work restricted to previously prepared written texts.

Table 1: The most fundamental principles of the Communicative Approach and the Grammar-Translation Method (following M. Finocchiaro/ Ch. Brumfit 1983; F. Gruzca 1995; J. C. Styszyński 1999; J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers 2004)

Foreign/second language teaching/learning

In my work, I will probe foreign language teaching methods and approaches following E. M. Anthony (1963: 63-67) who states that their arrangement is “hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach.” In other words, an approach is a plane where theories concerning both the nature of language and language teaching are defined, and a method puts them into practice. Obviously, “modern teaching”, Cz. Kupisiewicz (1980: 24) says “makes use of not one but a few different methods so as to discover essential phenomena related either directly or indirectly to the subject being researched”.¹

Talking about the history of methods/approaches to modern foreign language teaching, one cannot omit the role of the Latin language which it plays in both oral and written communication until the 16th century – Latin is, indeed, a true lingua franca of those times. But then, due to the political changes taking place in Europe, English, German and Italian take this role over and gain in importance with the status

¹ All the translations from Polish sources are mine, ML.

of the Latin language being changed “from that of a living language to that of an ‘occasional’ subject”, J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers write (2004: 3). Despite those changes, classic Latin or, rather, the study of its grammar and rhetoric still set an example when studying any foreign language from the 17th century to the 19th century.

These assumptions help develop the Grammar-Translation Method during the heyday of which critical voices of C. Marcel, F. Gouin and T. Prendergast (J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers 2004) become heard. These recommend the necessity to learn a foreign language with the main aim to communicate verbally. In their analyses concerning foreign language teaching, Marcel, Gouin and Prendergast refer to their observations on the way foreign languages are acquired by children.

Thus, the assumptions of the Reform Movement find their reflection in the Natural and the Direct Method associated, in turn, with such names as L. Sauveur or G. Heness (J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers 2004). Around the same time Berlitz opens his first language school in the United States (J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers 2004).

During the twenties and thirties of the 20th century, the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching are propagated by H. Palmer (1923, 1934), A. S. Hornby (1950), and, then, also G. Pittman (1963) – they all notice the importance of vocabulary as an essential factor raising students' language proficiency level.

Those assumptions lay foundations of Audiolingualism – called so by N. Brooks (1964) and criticised by N. Chomsky (1965, 1966) who does not agree with the structural approach and the behaviourist theory of language learning. According to N. Chomsky (1965, 1966), human language gets created and not imitated. After the criticism of Audiolingualism, we deal subsequently with: a) Task-Based Language Teaching developed during the eighties by N. S. Prabhu (1987) and stressing the importance of real tasks, b) teaching based on content in the seventies, c) Cooperative Language Teaching emphasising the role of social interaction and teamwork in learning and building positive relationships among students – it first appears in the sixties and is then developed, during the next decade, on the basis of J. Piaget's (1926) or L. Vygotsky's (1978) works, and d) the Silent Way – a structural approach to the development of oral and aural language competence popularized in the seventies by C. Gattegno (1972) and insisting on passing on the voice to students themselves.

The period from the beginning of the fifties to the end of the seventies is the most active time in the history of approaches and methods. It is at this time that Ch. A. Curran (1972, 1976) comes up with the idea of Community Language Learning which is an example of Counselling-Learning perceived as a social process.

At the same time (that is still during the 70s) Neurolinguistic Programming also appears, the foundations of which are developed by J. Grindler and R. Bandler. It is a humanistic philosophy recognizing the significance of outcomes, rapport, sensory acuity and flexibility (J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers 2004).

During the seventies, yet another term emerges: Total Physical Response (J. Asher 1977). It recognizes the significance of motive mechanisms while developing students' aural competence and assumes that second language learning takes place in a similar way to children's first language acquisition. It is widely supported by

S. D. Krashen/ T. D. Terrell (1983), the authors of the Natural Approach proclaiming the need to assess students' needs.

The Natural Approach is based on S. D. Krashen's (1983), so called, monitor theory which stresses the importance of the development of communication skills – both verbal and written. According to it, language acquisition takes place only when people understand messages in the target language. The “i + 1” formula, where “i” stands for the learner’s current competence (or the last rule acquired) and the “i + 1” means the next rule the learner is due to acquire, forms the basis for further theoretical work of M. Swain (1985), R. Ellis (1990, 1997), T. Lynch (1996), or, eventually, also M. H. Long’s Interaction Hypothesis (1983a, 1983b). The latter is in accordance with S. P. Corder's assumption (1978: 80) which says that “it is by attempting to communicate with speakers of the target language that the learner learns”.

One of the very last concepts to be investigated in my study will be the analysis of D. Sperber/ D. Wilson's Relevance Theory (1995). In this part, I will critically look at Suggestopedia (also named Desuggestopedia), a method developed by G. Lozanov (1978) and emphasizing the significance of communicative acts, and Competency-Based Language Teaching described by E. A. Schenk (1978) on the basis of J. F. Bobbit's work (1926). The latter promotes functional competencies (that is essential skills, knowledge, attitude or behaviour) which students should possess in order to facilitate their experience of language learning.

Multiple Intelligences (linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, spatial, interpersonal and intrapersonal) is an approach based on H. Gardner's work (1983).

In the next sub-chapter, attention will also be turned towards Whole Language which goes back to the eighties (K. Goodman 1986). It assumes that language teaching should not separate its particular components (such as, for instance, grammar, lexis or phonetics) but, rather, concentrate on the whole and, as K. Goodman (1986: 4) writes, teaching according to Whole Language rules combines it all together: “the language, the culture, the community, the learner, and the teacher”.

Finally, the very last point of the present chapter will attempt to look at Lexical Approach initiated in the nineties by M. Lewis (1993), and the role which Corpus Linguistics performs in language teaching and learning today.

1. English language teaching paradigms: Grammar-Translation Method versus Communicative Approach

1.1. English language learning competencies and skills

The goal of the first two chapters is to probe language teaching methods and approaches since their earliest times. As a matter of fact, chapter one will juxtapose the Grammar-Translation Method with the Communicative Approach whereas chapter two will investigate all the changes as well as innovations that emerge in the process of the development of competing language teaching ideologies.

By doing so, I shall, consequently, be able to report that when it comes to:

- the application of a particular set of core of teaching and learning principles – issues such as, for instance, the role of grammar and vocabulary in the language curricula (where the latter constitutes both the aim of a lesson and acts as the means of achieving those aims); indeed, as M. Celce-Murcia/ E. Olshtain (2007: 28) say “in terms of comprehending and producing discourse competently in the target language, it is as important to understand the pragmatics of the target culture as it is to understand the grammar and vocabulary of the target language”,
- the development of accuracy and fluency in teaching and learning (i.e. focus on forms and proficiency in native-like L2 use, respectively; factors of form are linguistically controlled, factors of appropriacy – pragmatically),
- the choice of syllabus frameworks,
- the role of coursebooks (which, first and foremost, help achieve consistency and continuation but, at the same time, give the learner a sense of system, cohesion and progress),
- materials (which focus on the example features that are taught; materials can be of linguistic, visual, auditory or kinaesthetic kind),
- technology or the memorization,
- motivating or effective learning techniques including teaching the four macro-skills of speaking and writing, listening and reading (the productive and receptive skills, respectively), of which, according to M. Celce-Murcia/ E. Olshtain (2007: 102), it is the third that is “the most frequently used language skill in everyday life”, the whole picture how classroom discourse per se is perceived becomes, as a result, deeply affected (E. Hatch 2001).

When it comes to foreign language teaching, it is important to decide on the most appropriate teaching method as it has a huge impact on foreign language teaching coursebook preparation, J. C. Styszyński notices (1999: 107). And R. Grupa (2013a) adds to that by saying that teaching children, teenagers and adults takes place in a different way for there exist different biological, physiological, legal, social, psychological, spiritual and moral characteristics between these target learners.

R. Grupa (2013a) further recalls that until the 1950s teachers tend to apply the very same theories of teaching and learning to both adult and young learners alike

and, similarly, any research of this kind conducted until the beginning of the 1960s focuses mostly on young or teenage learners. The term andragogy, though, coined by Alexander Kapp yet in 1833, is first introduced in the United States of America in 1927 by Martha Anderson and Eduard Lindeman (R. Grupa 2013a following J. Davenport/ J. A. Davenport 1985) as it is around this time that the approach to adult education problem solving becomes noticed (J. Davenport 1987 in: R. Grupa 2013a). Consequently, the idea of one's self-realization including emotional, mental and intellectual conditions becomes emphasised (R. Grupa 2013a following M. S. Knowles 1973, 1980). At the same time, it ought to be stressed that there are attempts in the 1980s to replace the term andragogy with teliagogy (P. M. Mohring 1989 in: R. Grupa 2013a) or humanagogy (R. S. Knudson 1980 in: R. Grupa 2013a).

To continue in a similar vein, M. Olpińska-Szkiełko (2013b: 57), following J. Piaget's theory of cognitive development (1969) and E. H. Lenneberg's critical period hypothesis (1967), makes a reference to negative correlation that exists between second language acquisition success and the learner's age, and postulates that this process should not begin later than at the age of 12-13, with the most favourable learning period being up to the age of six (M. Olpinska-Szkiełko 2013b: 106).

The learner's age though is not the only factor determining eventual success or failure, M. Olpinska-Szkiełko (2013b: 59) writes, adding that equally important is the socio-psychological approach, too, or, rather, the existence of language-learning blocks (E. H. Lenneberg 1967: 176), that is emotional and mental blocks associated with motivation, cultural barriers, social status etc.

But, coming back to the main issue, what is the difference between a method and an approach – a question can be posed (bearing in mind that most methods and approaches are only distinguishable from each other at the early stage of language courses) – and in what circumstances can we talk about a technique and in what about a procedure? E. M. Anthony (1963: 63-67) says that “[t]he arrangement is hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach” and, consequently, makes such a distinction:

[a]n approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught. (...) Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural. Within one approach, there can be many methods. (...) A technique is implementational – that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well.

Said that, E. M. Anthony (1963) assumes that the approach is the level at which theories about both the nature of language and language learning are defined. Language learning, J. Eckerth et al. (2009: 59) argue, is “a life-long process (and thus talking of 'long-term' instead of 'ultimate' attainment may be more appropriate), and as such is highly regulated by self-attributions, the assigned functional and symbolic

relevance of the L2, and prior learning experience as well as future proficiency goals.”

A method, as a matter of fact, just puts those theories into practice with the help of yet two more components. One of them is a design that includes: a) method objectives (process oriented versus product oriented), b) syllabus model – subject matter versus linguistic matter (seven different types of syllabi are distinguished: structural, situational, topical, functional, notional, skills-based and task-based), c) types of learning tasks and teaching activities, d) learners’ role, e) teachers’ role (controller, assessor, organiser, prompter, participant, resource, tutor and investigator), f) the role of instructional materials. T. Lewowicki et al. maintain (1995) that nowadays teachers also have to perform the role of tutors, convey culture, norms and values, be spare time organizers and entertainers, carers, advisers and leaders. And K. Kruszewski (1995: 69) adds to that highlighting the role of knowledge, social interaction and material conditions, too. Another element which any method consists of is a procedure which stands for classroom techniques, practices and behaviours (a technique helps describe classroom procedures).

J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers (2004: 33) enumerate the constituents (or rather subelements) of approach, design and procedure in the following manner:

- a) A theory of the nature of language
 - an account of the nature of language proficiency
 - an account of the basic units of language structure
- b) A theory of the nature of language learning
 - an account of the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in language learning
 - an account of the conditions that allow for successful use of these processes
- a) The general and specific objectives of the method
- b) A syllabus model
 - criteria for the selection and organization of linguistic and/or subject-matter content
- c) Types of learning and teaching activities
 - kinds of tasks and practice activities to be employed in the classroom and in materials
- d) Learner roles
 - types of learning tasks set for learners
 - degree of control learners have over the content of learning
 - patterns of learner groupings that are recommended or implied
 - degree to which learners influence the learning of others
 - the view of the learner as a processor, performer, initiator, problem solver, etc.
- e) Teacher roles
 - types of functions teachers fulfill
 - degree of teacher influence over learning
 - degree to which the teacher determines the content of learning
 - types of interaction between teachers and learners
- f) The role of instructional materials
 - primary function of materials
 - the form materials take (e.g., textbook, audiovisual)

- relation of materials to other input
- assumptions made about teachers and learners
- a) Classroom techniques, practices, and behaviors observed when the method is used
 - resources in terms of time, space, and equipment used by the teacher
 - interactional patterns observed in lessons
 - tactics and strategies used by teachers and learners when the method is being used

G. Smart (2008: 56), to take a different example, also makes a distinction between a method and a methodology surmising that “a method is a set of procedures for collecting and analysing research data. A methodology, on the other hand, is broader: a methodology is a method plus an underlying set of ideas about the nature of reality and knowledge.” And Cz. Kupisiewicz (1980: 24) makes a remark that “general didactics makes use of not one but a few different methods so as to discover essential phenomena related either directly or indirectly to the subject being researched” such as didactic systems analysis, goals, content, process, rules, methods and organisational forms and means of teaching – learning.

Didactics, Cz. Kupisiewicz (1980: 24) proceeds, systemizes, compares and analyses those phenomena in order to define the quantitative and qualitative relationships taking place between them. What is more, didactics (and pedagogy alike), W. Okoń (1987: 9) believes (taking its cognitive and practical function into consideration), ought not to be recognised as exclusively practical or normative sciences.

Cz. Kupisiewicz (1980: 129) divides methods into acroamatic, erotematic (Socratic) and heuristic while W. Okoń (1987: 279) distinguishes between: assimilation methods (such as talk, discussion, lecture, work with textbook), self-study methods (such as classic problem method, case method or case study, situational method, brainstorming, microteaching, didactic games), valorization methods (such as impressionistic methods and expressive methods) and, as the forth group of education (that is teaching-learning) methods – practical methods (i.e. exercise methods and methods of creative tasks realization).

All in all, Communicative Language Teaching, Competency-Based Language Teaching, Content-Based Instruction, Cooperative Learning, Lexical Approach, Multiple Intelligences, Natural Approach, Task-Based Language Teaching and Whole Language are all approaches understood as the sets of beliefs and principles that can be used as the basis for teaching a language and where a variety of interpretations are, in practice, possible. Audiolingualism, Counselling-Learning, Situational Language Teaching, Silent Way, Suggestopedia and Total Physical Response, on the other hand, are all methods, or other specific instructional designs – systems, based on a particular theory of language and language learning with rather little scope for individual interpretations (J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers 2004).

But the development and increased popularity of cognitive, including alternative (e.g. The Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response) methods, M. Olpińska-Szkiełko (2013a: 62) writes, has only been possible because of an enormous progress

in the field of neurobiology, neurophysiology and neuropsychology which takes place in the 1970s.

In her work, M. Olpińska-Szkiełko (2013a: 8) makes it clear that she follows F. Grucza's (1983, 1988, 1993, 1997; cf. also S. Grucza 2004, 2008, 2013) anthropocentric (relativistic) theory of human languages, and that she accepts it as the basis of her glottodidactic analysis and assessment of the foreign language teaching methods/approaches chosen. According to the index theory, any real language is considered to be a kind of property (knowledge and abilities) of any particular person (F. Grucza 2013a, 2013b).

Talking of glottodidactics – since the second half of the 1960s it has managed to establish itself as a separate field of study (F. Grucza 2013a, 2013b). Glottodidactic research includes areas traditionally associated with foreign and second language teaching – teaching and learning in all institutional contexts, and all age groups as well as foreign language methodology of teaching, and research on second language acquisition (M. Olpińska-Szkiełko 2013a: 28, S. Grucza 2013a, 2013b). Of prime importance to it, F. Grucza (2013a, 2013b) states, is the analysis of linguistic communication for any glottodidactic interactions are also acts (processes) of people communicating between one another.

M. Olpińska Szkiełko (2013a) analyses alternative methods (i.e. the Callan Method and the Sita Method) in order to assess their effectiveness in comparison with other foreign language teaching conceptions. Her analyses, she makes it explicit, are based on teaching materials only due to lack of existing academic studies devoted to the methods in question. In the very same work, she also focuses on: the Communicative Approach, Content-Based Instruction, Task-Based Language Learning, teaching through playing (drama) and project work which she places under the category of integration conceptions of foreign language teaching or learning. It is important to note that M. Olpińska-Szkiełko (2013a: 7) makes it clear, however, that in her work, she uses the word “method” in the expressions: the Callan Method and the SITA Method (SITA Learning System) as part of their own name and not a glottodidactic term.

Following the results of scientific analyses of human brain, M. Olpińska-Szkiełko (2013a: 68) reaches a conclusion that both these “methods” (i.e. the Callan and Sita ones) can be very effective in enabling their learners to remember a large quantity of linguistic material in the form of expressions or phrases. Nonetheless, from the point of view of the achievements of modern glottodidactics, she finds them “highly inadequate”. Her criticism concerns the teaching materials, lack of development of (inter)cultural competence or too much focus on grammar (grammatical structures) – talking about the latter, she makes a point that the explanations provided are inadequate since they limit themselves to a simple rule and/or paradigm only (M. Olpińska-Szkiełko 2013a: 68). Indeed, as E. Hatch (2001: 291) says:

[w]hen we follow one method, adopting the units and processes described by that method, we arrive at one picture of what discourse is. When we follow another method, the picture changes as the units and processes change and the

focus of the research changes. Each new method adds another layer to the total discourse picture.

Whether a method or an approach, there exist three theoretical views of language that all the aforementioned methods/approaches can draw on wholly or just in part. To give an example: Audiolingual Method, Total Physical Response and Silent Way embody the structural view, Competency-Based Language Teaching movement (among other things, English for Specific Purposes) depends on the functional view and the interactional view is reflected in the assumptions of Task-Based Language Teaching, Whole Language, Cooperative Language Learning or Content-Based Instruction.

Bearing these points in mind, the methods and approaches to follow, but for the Grammar-Translation Method and the Communicative Approach, will be discussed in the order of their (chronological) conceptualization; according to K. Drożdżał-Szelest (2006: 46):

[it] was the 20th century in particular that witnessed a spectacular abundance of methodological proposals in the form of various approaches and methods. Some of these approaches and methods were widely acclaimed and became dominant in classrooms all over the world, others gained acceptance in some contexts or at certain times only, while still others were rather short-lived and disappeared without trace.

1.2. Grammar-Translation Method

Talking of the history of modern foreign languages teaching methods and approaches, one needs to be aware that it is Latin indeed (be it in its classical or vulgar form) that until the 16th century plays the role of the language of spoken and written communication. It stands for a true lingua franca of its air du temps continuously ever since the days of Latium and Ancient Rome, that is once Greece has been conquered by the Roman Empire around 146 BC. The spread of Christianity as well as the consequent conversion of European tribes (the Irish, Celtic, Anglo-Saxon or Germanic population) to Roman Christianity has certainly helped it achieve this status.

In actual fact, S. Fotos (2005: 654) admits that “the systematic treatment of grammar in language teaching and learning is considered to have begun 4,000 years ago as a result of the large-scale expansion of the Greek sphere of influence.” Indeed, it is yet during Plato's time that the notions: *grammatikos* that described the person able to read and write, and *grammar* that meant a letter are coined.

But then, due to the political changes happening in Europe, English, French and Italian eventually take over and start to gain in importance with the status of the lingua Latina, as J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers put it (2004: 3), being “diminished from that of a living language to that of an ‘occasional’ subject.” Despite that new situation, classical Latin or, rather, the study and analysis of both its grammar and rhetoric continue to provide the model for any foreign language study from the

seventeenth to the nineteenth centuries; J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers further point out (2004: 4):

[a]s ‘modern’ languages began to enter the curriculum of European schools in the eighteenth century, they were taught using the same basic procedures that were used for teaching Latin. Textbooks consisted of statements of abstract grammar rules, lists of vocabulary, and sentences for translation. Speaking the foreign language was not the goal, and oral practice was limited to students reading aloud the sentences they had translated. These sentences were constructed to illustrate the grammatical system of the language and consequently bore no relation to the language of real communication.

Such are the foundations of the offspring of the German scholarship: the Grammar-Translation Method for which no theory as such exists (J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers 2004) and the main proponents of which include Johann Seidenstücker, Karl Plötz and Johann Meidinger.

Known in the United States under the name of the Prussian Method (after the country where it originates in), its heyday includes the length of a century (i.e. from the 1840s to the 1940s) although, it needs to be stressed, it is still being used in some parts of the world these days – mostly by those interested in learning a language so as to read its literature rather than for clear communication purposes.

Following M. Celce-Murcia/ E. Olshtain (2007: 61), one can confirm that “[t]here is growing agreement that teaching grammar exclusively at the sentence level with decontextualised and unrelated sentences, which has long been the traditional way to teach grammar, is not likely to produce any real learning.” This is not to say that grammar is not important at all for, according to the very same authoresses (2007: 61), “[g]rammar needs vocabulary for meaning, and vocabulary needs grammar for structure.”

When it comes to the goal of foreign language study, the main foci of attention of the Grammar-Translation Method are reading and writing with no or little attention paid to either speaking or listening skills, and it is a sentence (and not an utterance) that stands for the basic unit of teaching and learning practice. After all, a typical – rather jejune – lesson is devoted to translating sentences (with the students’ mother tongue serving as a medium of instruction) into and out of the foreign language. From the point of view of S. Fotos (2005: 656):

[w]ord by word, heavily supported by interlinear and/or marginal glosses in the vernacular, and parallel translation (placing the vernacular text next to the target language text on the page), students read edifying passages and single sentences from classical literature and the Bible, and memorized sayings, metaphors, and adages intended to build a worthy character.

J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers (2004: 5) support this notion, too by saying that “Grammar Translation is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language.”

E. Jastrzębska (2011: 22), in turn, recalling the two principles of learning: reception and reaction, also indicates that by the application of reception theory the student learns by “direct assimilation of knowledge passed to him/her by the teacher, which in foreign language teaching has found its reflection in the Grammar-Translation method” indeed. As we shall see in the course of the present chapter, this stands in total opposition to the principles of the Communicative Approach which, E. Jastrzębska (2011: 22) points out further, draw on Piaget's theory of constructivist learning instead.

It is worth noticing that H. H. Stern (1983: 455), on a similar note, almost three decades earlier, writes that “[t]he first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language.” Needless to say, vocabulary selection (taught through bilingual word lists) is restricted to the content of the text used only and grammar, as a matter of fact, taught solely deductively – based on the assumption that there is one universal grammar forming the basis of all languages. In actual fact, grammar deductive teaching/learning assumes that different forms of practice follow once its rules are explained by the teacher. Student practice, in turn, E. Hinkel (2002 :181) points out:

[c]an take the form of cloze exercises, a translation of an English text into the learners' native language, or oral training (read alouds, dialogues, or small-group activities) (...). In most cases, such exercises draw the learners' attention to verb forms in sentence-level contexts that are created by textbook authors, teachers, or students themselves. This learning practice largely addresses the skills associated with identification of time adverbials and the manipulation of verbal inflections and tense-related forms of auxiliaries. Other approaches to grammar teaching focus on contextualized uses of grammatical structures to promote applications of grammar knowledge to particular situations when students are involved in meaningful or meaning-related communications (e.g., games, problem-solving activities, and role-plays).

Obviously, the vast majority of activities listed above have nothing in common with the Grammar-Translation Method currently analysed since the emphasis, here, on true communication is none. Yet, accuracy – the one in translation is stressed. That said, G. Nagaraj (2005: 3) presents the index method's syllabus in the following manner: The syllabus consists of:

- a) eight to ten prose lessons of specified limits
- b) seven to eight poems
- c) a non-detailed text, usually an abridged classic
- d) grammar:
 - parts of speech including their definitions and articles
 - conjugation of verbs in the affirmative, negative, interrogative and negative interrogative
 - parsing of words in different types of sentences
 - passivization
 - reported speech comprising reporting statements and questions
 - analysis of simple, complex and compound sentences
 - synthesis of sentences

- e) written work
 - descriptive writing
 - narrative writing
 - letters of different kinds.

To sum up, the point of the foregoing discussion is that the Grammar-Translation Method, with all its drawbacks, has nevertheless managed to establish its presence in the area of foreign language teaching and learning. In line with what has just been said about the method in question, let us turn our attention to the following summary of all its major assumptions, as provided by G. Nagaraj (2005: 2-3):

- Grammar is taught prescriptively – through the presentation and study of rules.
- Practice is provided through translation exercises from the mother tongue to the target language and vice versa.
- A distinctive feature of this method is its focus on translating the sentence.
- Accuracy is given great importance. The learner is required to attain high standards in translation. (...).
- Vocabulary is taught through bilingual word lists, reference to dictionaries and memorization of words and their meanings.
- The method focuses primarily on the skills of reading and writing, with little emphasis on listening or speaking.
- The mother tongue of the learner is used to explain new items and make comparisons with their equivalents in the target language.

1.3. Communicative Approach

The Communicative Approach, in turn, which also comes to be known under the terms: the Functional Approach/Notational-Functional Approach/Communicative Language Teaching, is a response to the changing educational realities in Europe by the end of the sixties (mainly to, based on behaviouristic psychology and structural linguistics, the Audio-Lingual Method).

As G. Nagaraj (2005: 41) says “[t]he development of language learning or teaching from form-based to a meaning-based approach: the move towards an eclectic approach from a rigid method: the shift from teacher-fronted to learner-centred classes: are all subsumed under the broad term communicative approach.” In fact, it becomes more and more clear, A. P. R. Howatt (1984: 280) notices, that the situational approach:

[h]ad run its course. There was no future in continuing to pursue the chimera of predicting language on the basis of situational events. What was required was a closer study of the language itself and a return to the traditional concept that utterances carried meaning in themselves and expressed the meanings and intentions of the speakers and writers who created them.

Its first advocates (originally, it might be worth noting, the Communicative Approach is introduced in multilingual L2 classrooms in second language contents only) are Christopher N. Candlin (1976) and Henry G. Widdowson (1978, 1979).

The CA per se, it has already been stressed, is a cooperative collection of different communicative methodologies with the help of which both “'language for communication' and 'language as communication'” are taught, E. Olshtain/ M. Celce-Murcia (in D. Schiffrin et al. 2008: 707) note. Those methodologies are all supported, especially during the 1980s, by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe and the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe to become an approved L2 methodology.

E. Jastrzębska (2011: 56) is of the opinion that it is thanks to its openness and peculiar eclecticism that the Communicative Approach has avoided “stiffening, dogmatism and intolerance of previous methods, accepting the variety of teaching contexts, ways of learning and learners”. Following Tagliante (1994), Narcy-Combes (2005) and Puren (2002), E. Jastrzębska (2011: 58-59) suggests such a presentation of the Communicative Approach evolution – that is included in table 2.

Foreign language teaching methods	Communicative Approach - 1 st stage the Council of Europe work	Communicative Approach - 2 nd stage the Council of Europe proceeding perspective
Period	1977-1996	After 1997
Scientific theoretical bases	psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, ethnography of communication: speech acts; Hymes, Austin, Searle; cognitive psychology	semantic grammar, constructivism
Important curricular documents	<i>niveau seuil</i> – speech acts and communicative functions inventory	The Common European Framework (2003)
The concept of language	language as a tool of communication in everyday social and professional life situations	complex: a tool of communication + cultural dimension (culture carrier) + linguistic system, the functioning of which needs to be understood
Acting	interaction – the effect on interlocutor	common acting, acting with...
Cultural perspective	interculturality	interculturality, multiculturality
Learning/teaching conception	interactive: communicative situations that can prompt the student's need for communication	knowledge construction and reconstruction, interlanguage
Student's and teacher's status	student in the centre of teaching process: his/her	student in the centre of teaching process: his/her

	interests and communicative needs	interests and communicative needs
Privileged linguistic skills	reading, listening, writing, speaking	reading, listening, writing, speaking, interactive and mediation skills
Dominant techniques and activities	problem solving, creative plays and exercises: role-play technique, simulations	tasks, projects, creative writing

Table 2: Communicative Approach evolution in foreign language teaching (E. Jastrzębska 2011: 58-59)

One of the best descriptions of Communicative Language Teaching core tenets seems to be delivered by M. S. Berns (1990: 29-30) – each one of such tenets will be focused on separately in the course of this study:

1. Language teaching is based on a view of language as communication. That is, language is seen as a social tool that speakers and writers use to make meaning; we communicate about something to someone for some purpose, either orally or in writing.
2. Diversity is recognized and accepted as part of language development and use in second language learners and users as it is with first language users.
3. A learner's competence is considered in relative, not absolute, terms of correctness.
4. More than one variety of a language is recognized as a model for learning and teaching.
5. Culture is seen to play an instrumental role in shaping speakers' communicative competence, both in their first and subsequent languages.
6. No single methodology or fixed set of techniques is prescribed.
7. Language use is recognized as serving the ideational, the interpersonal, and the textual functions and is related to the development of learners' competence in each.
8. It is essential that learners be engaged in doing things with language, that is, that they use language for a variety of purposes, in all phases of learning. Learner expectations and attitudes have increasingly come to be recognized for their role in advancing or impeding curricular change.

The Communicative Approach is gradually enriched by the theory of language as communication (D. H. Hymes 1964, 1972) and the theory of competence (N. Chomsky 1965), too. The first emphasises the role of communication and culture – what any speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in any speech community (communicative competence as its major goal) while the latter focuses on abstract grammatical knowledge. According to H. Komorowska (2003), any competent language user should master: a) subsystems (phonic, graphic, lexical, grammatical), b) skills (receptive, productive, interactive, mediatory), c) competences (social, linguistic discourse, socio-linguistic, socio-cultural, strategic).

In line with that, I feel it is indispensable at this point to introduce the concept of discourse community made up, at the language classroom level, by both students and their teacher, and understood, as E. Olshtain/ M. Celce-Murcia (in D. Schiffrin et al. 2008: 711) put it, “as a group of people who share many things – a considerable body of knowledge, a specific group culture, an acceptable code of behaviour, a common language, a common physical environment, and perhaps a common goal or interest”. By and large, E. Olshtain/ M. Celce-Murcia's above definition has been drawn up on the basis of the six characteristics provided, au fond, by J. M. Swales (1990: 24):

1. A discourse community has a broadly agreed set of common public goals.
2. A discourse community has mechanisms of intercommunication among its members.
3. A discourse community uses its participatory mechanisms primarily to provide information and feedback.
4. A discourse community utilizes and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims.
5. In addition to owning genres, a discourse community has acquired some specific lexis.
6. A discourse community has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discursual expertise.

Talking about foreign language teaching and learning with the main aim to communicate with others orally, one of the most notable figures in this field is also F. Grucza (1995) who works on the discursive method foundations in Polish education settings. In contrast to the Communicative Approach, the discursive method has a different approach to both language and grammar. It is worth noticing that the language F. Grucza works on is German, specifically (for details regarding specialist discursive competence, cf. S. Grucza 2013a, 2013b).

J. C. Styszyński (1999: 107-108), elaborating upon F. Grucza's (1995) findings, lays out the following issues in favour of the discursive method:

- the discursive method is a glottodidactic conception worked out in order to make use of it in the German language teaching in a Polish school,
- the discursive method, despite the fact of being a new method, takes into account earlier glottodidactic ideas and experiences alike (accepting some of them and distancing itself from the others),
- the discursive method makes use of principles and techniques appropriate to the teaching target set,
- the discursive method, although it places its main emphasis on the development of the ability to communicate in a foreign language (communicative competence), does not disregard the development of linguistic competence,
- the discursive method makes use of linguistic material selection and gradation in accordance with language “structural” dimensions, at the same time taking into account its communicative aspects,
- the discursive method in its linguistic material selection and gradation takes into consideration all the consequences which result from the contrastive presentation of the German language in comparison with the Polish language,

- the discursive method takes a stand on crucial glottodidactic issues such as semantization, the role and place of grammar, translation and awareness in the process of language learning,
- the discursive method takes into account the native glottodidactic tradition,
- the discursive method considers student-like factors as well as the reality of Polish school (teaching programmes and conditions).

J. C. Styszyński (1999: 108) also recognizes the significance of the discursive skill which cannot be identified with the ability to talk – a solely phonetic ability, though. It is a much broader term that includes knowledge of both lexis and grammar of the language spoken, and expressive and interactive pragmatics alike (J. C. Styszyński 1999). More than that, the discursive skill implies certain competence in texts' perception and comprehension and all that can be achieved, J. C. Styszyński (1999) reports, once students stay active – in fact, it is being active (or, rather, fully involved in any lesson content) that helps them acquire the foreign language taught. And as for the language taught, J. C. Styszyński (1999: 110-111) notices, it is acquired in four stages:

- a) the presentation of new linguistic material (contextual presentation of new phonetic, grammatical and lexical material),
- b) automation (in the form of grammatical and lexical exercises in order to generalize and reinforce the structures introduced followed by grammatical commentary),
- c) contextualization (the structures reinforced are placed in new contexts and/or new situations),
- d) testing (it has a much more rigorous attitude towards errors and mistakes made).

Along similar lines, it is easy to notice indeed that the Communicative Approach does rely heavily on discourse analysis (and also pragmatics – here discourse analysis represents the intended meaning transmitted within context while pragmatics is preoccupied with the interpreted meaning instead) as: “[c]reating suitable contexts for interaction, illustrating speaker/hearer and reader/writer exchanges, and providing learners with opportunities to process language within a variety of situations are all necessary for developing learning environments where language acquisition and language development can take place within a communicative perspective”, E. Olshtain/ M. Celce-Murcia (2008: 707) admit.

And such a communicative perspective means that special attention, E. Olshtain/ M. Celce-Murcia (2008) continue, is particularly paid to the three language areas taught: phonology, grammar and vocabulary. The way these are tackled would stand for a very clear source of distinction between the Grammar-Translation Method and the Communicative Approach were it not for one more, equally important, dimension – viz. communication strategies.

A discourse-oriented approach to phonology teaching means that both prosodic and suprasegmental elements are brought to the forefront. That, in fact, is the case as far as the Communicative Approach and the discursive method principles are taken into consideration as one, without any doubt, does speak here of oral interaction. And phonology, J. Eckerth et al. (2009: 45) say “may arguably be the strongest indicator

of native or non-native speech, and may play a large role in how intelligible non-native speakers are”.

That does not mean, however, that no other language skills, apart from speaking, are referred to – in actual fact, speakers do rely on their writing, listening or reading strategies alike, E. Olshtain/ M. Celce-Murcia (2008: 716) confirm, when either transmitting or interpreting messages produced: “[w]hen producing discourse, we combine discourse knowledge with strategies of speaking or writing, while utilizing audience-relevant contextual support. When interpreting discourse, we combine discourse knowledge with strategies of listening or reading, while relying on prior knowledge as well as on assessment of the context at hand.” Teaching grammar, E. Olshtain/ M. Celce-Murcia (2008: 714) highlight, is also important because:

[s]tudents learning a new language need to become aware of the repertoire of grammatical choices in that language, but more importantly they need to become aware of the conditioning role of discourse and context, which guides the language user in making appropriate choices. It is the context-dependent, pragmatic rules of grammar [among other things: passive versus active voice, sentential position of adverbs, tense-aspect-modality sequences, and article use] that play an important role in a discourse approach to grammar.

With regard to vocabulary, that, unlike in the case of the Grammar-Translation Method, is always taught and learnt in context, too because, E. Olshtain/ M. Celce-Murcia (2008: 715) acknowledge, “the intended and complete meaning of a word can only be derived from the combination of a given dictionary meaning and the contextual frame within which the word appears.”

Apart from the above combination (phonology, grammar and vocabulary), also the four skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) can be developed together, or, rather, integrated in the process of teaching and learning a foreign language according to the Communicative Approach methodologies. To take an example, *inter alia*, speaking and pronunciation, speaking and pragmalinguistic skills or listening, discourse and linguistic skills, reading and vocabulary – they all can be pertained to at the very same time (E. Hinkel 2006). E. Hinkel (2006: 113) supports this notion by saying that “[i]ntegrated and multiskill instruction usually follows the principles of the communicative approach, with various pedagogical emphases, goals, instructional materials, activities, and procedures playing a central role in promoting communicative language use.”

As instances of such integrated teaching models (and the list is by no means complete), E. Hinkel (2006) mentions those that are: a) content-based, b) task-based, c) text-based, d) discourse-based, e) project-based, f) problem-based, g) literature-based, h) literacy-based, i) community-based, j) competency-based, or k) standards-based (with task-based and content-based instruction being presumably the most widely referred to today).

Nearly at the same time, however, it is worth noticing, E. Hinkel (2002 :181) also speaks of the separation of grammar teaching from L2 writing instruction

[i]n part, because a good deal of linguistic research separates the analysis of rhetorical dis- course conventions (such as topic sentences, sentence transitions,

and rhetorical development) and the grammatical structures of language, the teaching of writing and the teaching of grammar tend to occupy somewhat distinct domains in second language (L2) pedagogy as well.

Later in her work though, E. Hinkel (2002) admits that grammar instruction based on authentic or simplified discourse (grammar contextualized teaching) can be beneficial for L2 learner, too but only when enough practice follows grammar explanations.

When it comes to English language teaching and learning, M. A. K. Halliday (1975) expands D. H. Hymes' (1964a, 1964b, 1972) view of communicative competence propagated by Communicative Language Teaching methodologists further and differentiates between seven basic functions that language performs (in the context of children learning their first language). Equally crucial is work on the notion of communicative competence (M. Canale/ M. Swain 1980; M. Canale 1983) while J. Harmer (1995: 16) recognizes the significance of the skill of structuring discourse:

[w]hich is not knowledge about anything but rather knowledge of how to evaluate what is said to us and of how to plan and execute what we want to say back. It is the knowledge of what to do with the language competence that we have, and it is this dynamic processing mechanism which puts all the other knowledges we have to real use.

K. Johnson's (1982) and W. Littlewood's (1981, 1984) findings regarding the skill-learning model put, consequently, a new light on communicative competence as skill-development (involving both cognitive and behavioural aspects); the latter perceives functional communication and social interaction as the most common activities characterizing the index approach. From the point of view of W. Littlewood (1984: 74):

[t]he cognitive aspect involves the internalisation of plans for creating appropriate behaviour. For language use, these plans derive mainly from the language system – they include grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary, and social conventions governing speech. The behavioural aspect involves the automation of these plans so they can be converted into fluent performance in real time. This occurs mainly through practice in converting plans into performance.

W. Littlewood (1981) also claims that only three conditions (communicative purpose, information gap and language choice) suffice to ensure that any classroom communication is actually leading to the target language development. D. A. Wilkins (1976) makes a significant contribution to that area as well and comes up with the functional (communicative) definition of language with two distinct systems of meaning distinguished, that is: the notional (time, sequence, quantity, location or frequency, for example) and communicative function (requests, denials, offers or complaints) categories; but so does S. D. Krashen's Monitor Theory (1983).

To take a different example, H. G. Widdowson (1979: 254) is of the opinion that notational-functional categories cater for

[o]nly a very partial and imprecise description of certain semantic and pragmatic rules which are used for reference when people interact. They tell us nothing about the procedures people employ in the application of these rules when they are actually engaged in communicative activity. If we are to adopt a communicative approach to teaching which takes place as its primary purpose the development of the ability to do things with language, then it is discourse which must be at the center of our attention.

In a similar vein (but two decades earlier), J. R. Firth (1957) makes much the same suggestion that it is discourse studied in a wider sociocultural context (participants, their behaviour and beliefs, linguistic discussion objects and word choice) that ought to be focused on.

The overall image of the Communicative Approach, which integrates both grammatical and functional teaching – “[o]ne of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language”, W. Littlewood (1981: 1) believes – is contained within the principle that learners learn foreign languages through authentic and meaningful communication (negotiation of information and information sharing rather than through their mastery of language forms) and by applying different language skills and subskills.

Appropriateness (to situations), message focus (creating and understanding), psycholinguistic processing (cognitive processes), risk taking (making guesses and learning from trials and errors) and free practice (simultaneous use of a variety of subskills rather than one) underlie communicative methodology current applications, the pedagogical function of which is “grounded on the principle that teaching a foreign language is unlike lecturing about content-area subjects since L2 happens to be both the goal and the medium of instruction” (J. Majer 2006: 126). According to M. Finocchiaro/ Ch. Brumfit's (1983: 91-93) interpretation, the major distinctive features of the Communicative Approach are:

- Meaning is paramount.
- Dialogues, if used, center around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.
- Contextualization is a basic premise.
- Language learning is learning to communicate.
- Effective communication is sought.
- Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
- Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.
- Any device that helps the learners is accepted – varying according to their age, interest, etc.
- Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.
- Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.
- Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
- Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.
- The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.

- Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e., the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately).
- Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology.
- Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning that maintains interest.
- Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
- Language is created by the individual, often through trial and error.
- Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: Accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.
- Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings.
- The teacher cannot know exactly what language the students will use.
- Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

1.3.1. Oral and written communicative activities

As mentioned earlier in the current part of this work, one certainly cannot speak of any variety of linguistic activities as far as the Grammar-Translation Method is taken into consideration; this picture changes, however, when it comes to the Communicative Approach. In this subsection, I will enumerate examples of communicative activities compiled by J. Harmer (1995), the main aim of which is to make students talk or at least contribute to the development of their ability to communicate. Mindful of that, one needs to remember that “although communicative skills can occupy a high priority for ESL students who need to interact in their L2, for EFL learners, communicating in English may have a reduced value relative to preparing for entrance exams or tests for securing employment” (E. Hinkel 2006: 110).

J. Harmer (1995), drawing on the ideas and findings of R. Taylor/ P. Ur (1981), M. Geddes/ J. McAlpin (1978), J. C. Richards/ J. Hull/ S. Proctor (1990), A. Maley/ D. Byrne/ S. Holden (1978), the Instituto Anglo Mexicano de Cultura in Guadalajara, the British Council and Cambridge University Press, C. Jones/ S. Fortescue (1987), P. Davis/ M. Rinvoluceri (1990), S. Deller (1990), G. Cunningham/ C. Frank/ M. Rinvoluceri (1983), K. Jones (1982), G. Sturtridge (1981), D. Hicks/ E. Pote/ M. Esnol/ D. Wright (1979), D. Byrne (1988), T. Piper (1982), M. Rinvoluceri (1983), and T. Lowe (1987), divides communicative activities into two groups, i.e. oral and written. In the case of the first, he (1995) further distinguishes between seven different categories such as:

- 1) reaching a consensus
 - going to New York (or any destination where students need to decide on the objects to take),
 - moral dilemmas (a situation with alternative suggestions given),

- learning decisions (consensus to be reached about things students are learning),
- 2) discussion
 - the buzz group (students, put into loose groups, are asked to think of the topic),
 - controversial topics (good discussion provokers),
 - the debate (two sides argue a case, for and against, then put to the vote),
- 3) relaying instructions
 - exercises (physical ones),
 - making models (building bricks or Lego, for instance),
 - describe and draw (a picture that the other student cannot see),
- 4) communication games
 - find the differences (or similarities),
 - describe and arrange (the cut up pictures that are not in any order),
 - story reconstruction: the hospital case (a narrative reconstruction once students have been given different parts of a picture story),
 - poem reconstruction (lines get reassembled),
- 5) problem solving
 - desert dilemma (means of survival are worked out after students' plane has crashed),
 - fast food (computer-based; students run a fast food stall and if they make the right decisions throughout, they prosper – if they make the wrong ones – money is lost),
- 6) talking about yourself
 - your name (personal discussion develops),
 - what we have in common (ideal ice breaker with a number of areas and topics covered),
 - musical associations (the song title helps provoke discussion of feelings and memories),
- 7) simulation and role play
 - the travel agent (booking a holiday),
 - arranging to meet (reunion arranged in order to celebrate some event),
 - the Loch Ness monster (a picture of the monster is built up by those students who have seen it),
 - knife in the school (a troublesome problem),

whereas, when it comes to the latter, J. Harmer (1995) speaks of:

- 1) relaying instructions
 - making models (the same activity as the oral one but for the written mode of expression),
 - giving directions (how to reach a certain destination),
 - writing commands (which, then, need to be obeyed by the student it is written for),
- 2) writing reports and advertisements
 - the news broadcast (items for transmission are written),
 - the tourist brochure (about the place they live in or are studying in),

- the advertisement (for a product),
- 3) co-operative writing
 - the fairy story (either with or without the original sentence supplied),
 - story reconstruction (a narrative is constructed based on pictures from a story sequence),
 - the word processor (with editing decisions taken),
- 4) exchanging letters
 - writing messages (questions and answers are generated),
 - the agony column (students' problems are addressed by other members of the class acting as experts),
 - the complaining customer (complaining letters about goods purchased, after seeing an advertisement, are written and then replied to by those representing the company manufacturing them),
 - the job application (role cards can, optionally, be given), writing journals.

Apart from the activities enumerated above, students, J. Harmer (1995) reports, can also get involved in projects (investigation and reporting) and, consequently, gives such instances of these: the smoking report (survey results, once interpreted, are written up as a report) and wheelchairs (based on the Bell School in Bath students' work, the outcome of which has been used as a guide for wheelchair users informing them, in terms of access, of both appropriate and inappropriate sites and buildings). J. Harmer (1995), in his communicative activities division, seems to follow L. Vygotsky (1978) who perceives writing as monologic speech based on socialized dialogic speech.

As for teaching through playing, T. Siek-Piskozub (2001) among all the techniques referring to the ludic nature of the man's activity chooses drama techniques. It is these (problem solving, drama) techniques, T. Siek-Piskozub continues, that meet learners' cognitive expectations and, eventually, enable them to be themselves. Drama, according to T. Siek-Piskozub (2001), is perceived as a kind of didactic game in which the action is directed at solving a problem taken from the reality and presented in its model.

E. Olshtain/ M. Celce-Murcia (2008: 720), giving ideas on how to improve one's listening skill (with the help of voice-mail systems and telephone answering machines, recordings of interactive telephone conversations, recorded segments of radio or TV news broadcasts or short lectures on different topics) and reading skill (any activities centred around students' interpretation process strategies development like guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words by using clues from the text or just using their dictionaries in order to double-check the guesses), express the viewpoint that:

[t]he speaking skill, although sharing the production process with the writing skill, is very different from the act of writing, since spoken language happens in the here and now (...). In such oral communication there is always room for mismatches and misunderstandings, which could derive from any of the following:

- The speaker does not have full command of the target language and produces an unacceptable form.

- The necessary background knowledge is not shared by the speaker and the hearer and they bring different expectations to the spoken interaction.
- The speaker and the hearer do not share sociocultural rules of appropriateness, and therefore the speaker may have violated such a rule from the hearer's point of view due to pragmatic transfer from the first language.

Finally, equally important, J. Harmer (1995) notices, from learners' point of view, is their training which involves three different areas that help students achieve their full potential: personal assessment (getting students to think about their own language behaviour), learning strategies (training students to use textbooks, training students to use communicative activities properly, training students to read for gist, training students to deal with unfamiliar vocabulary, training students to use dictionaries) and language awareness.

1.3.2. Common reference levels: global scale

In this subsection, I would like to address the Communicative Approach through the lens of the Common Reference Levels (global scale) from A1 (breakthrough), A2 (waystage), B1 (threshold), B2 (vantage), C1 (effective operational proficiency) to C2 (mastery) – table 3 lists them all. The Common European Framework, it is worth noting, is put together by the Council of Europe between 1989 and 1996 and recommended, five years later, to be commonly used by a European Union Council Resolution.

One area in need of particular attention, as far as CEF for language teaching and learning is concerned, is that of interaction (but also production, reception and mediation) as it is the main source of building one's sociolinguistic, pragmatic, discourse and/or strategic competence. When it comes to the latter (that is, strategic competence), it can have the form of positive strategic behaviour (that leads to the achievement of some communicative goal) and negative strategic behaviour (that means avoiding difficulties or transferring the responsibility to the interlocutor). E. Zawadzka (2004: 226) believes that learning strategies and techniques are similar concepts indeed: the first, being a psycholinguistic term, indicate some mental plans, psychological methods of conduct that can include techniques whereas the latter, being a teaching-related notion, stand for a set of well-tried ways of effective mental work. And S. Stoyhoff (2009: 2) notices that the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) “assumes that L2 ability occurs in a social context and is manifest through specific observable behaviours (language-performance) in response to language tasks that are similar to what learners encounter in real-world contexts.”

Proficient User	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
Independent User	B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
Basic User	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

Table 3: Common reference levels: global scale (CEFR: 24)

2. Other foreign language teaching methods and approaches overview (assumptions and history)

Reform Movement

The need to learn a foreign language with the main aim of speaking it communicatively leads two Frenchmen: Claude Marcel and François Gouin and an Englishman: Thomas Prendergast (all referring in their analyses of language teaching to the observations of a child-like language acquisition) to come up in the mid- and late nineteenth century with the idea of a new language study movement (or, rather, approach): the Reform Movement.

At the same time, the contributions of Henry Sweet, Wilhelm Viëtor and Paul Passy lay the foundations for a new scientific discipline: phonetics with the establishment in 1886 of Dhi Fonètik Ticerz' Asóciécon (FTA); renamed in 1889 to L'Association Phonétique des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes (AP) and, eventually, in 1897, to L'Association Phonétique Internationale (API) – the International Phonetic Association.

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), the most widely known system of phonetic transcription which gives new insights into the speech processes follows and, consequently, improves foreign language teaching significantly. Speech, rather than the written word, commences to be the primary focus and grammar, it is maintained, should only be taught inductively (i.e. in context). These are the underpinnings of the future interdisciplinary field of study concerned with second and foreign language teaching and learning – applied linguistics.

The implications drawn from the study of the Reform Movement, some of which are later reused in Situational Language Teaching or Total Physical Response, assume that children, when learning a language, refer not only to contextual and situational cues in order to interpret utterances but also to memorized phrases and routines (J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers 2004).

But H. Sweet and P. Passy, F. Grucza (2013b) notices, are also phoneticians who introduce into linguistics the concept of distinctive function (for the first time, though, the term as such is used by J. Wintelers); Sweet and Passy are also authors of significant sound distinction: a sound distinction that differentiates meanings (F. Grucza 2013b).

R. Titone (1968: 35) provides us with examples of the kind of language (so called Gouin series) that the learner could expect of being taught at one of their first classes; these are accompanied most frequently by the use of gestures as well as other non-verbal messages to help reinforce the intended meaning:

I walk toward the door.	I walk.
I draw near to the door.	I draw near.
I draw nearer to the door.	I draw nearer.
I get to the door.	I get to.
I stop at the door.	I stop
I stretch out my arm.	I stretch out.

I take hold of the handle.	I take hold.
I turn the handle.	I turn.
I open the door.	I open.
I pull the door.	I pull.
The door moves.	moves.
The door turns on its hinges.	turns.
The door turns and turns.	turns.
I open the door wide.	I open.
I let go of the handle.	I let go.

Natural and Direct Method

The most influential proponents of the Direct Method: a Frenchman Lambert Sauveur and a German scholar Gottlieb Heness, dissatisfied with the shortcomings of the Grammar-Translation Method and its focus on written language only, support (around 1900) the Reform Movement's ideology and argue that any foreign language be taught like the first. The use of learners' mother tongue is abandoned as is, unsurprisingly, the tool of translation. It is the target language per se that matters acquired through demonstration, action and intensive oral interaction.

These natural language learning principles lead to the emergence of the first natural language teaching method which in the United States is known as the Natural Method (the term Direct Method is formalized in Continental Europe: France and Germany in 1901 while the Natural Method in 1869). Maximilian Berlitz soon opens his first language school drawing on the Direct/Natural Method's findings (in 1960, Robin K. T. Callan, having gained a year experience teaching at a Berlitz school in Italy, creates his very own "method" – the Callan Method, which he based on the Direct Method criticism; M. Olpińska-Szkielko 2013a: 60). But, yet, not everything seems to be ideal with the biggest problem, according to J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers (2004: 13), being lack of appropriately trained teaching staff:

[t]he Direct Method represented the product of enlightened amateurism. It was perceived to have several drawbacks. It required teachers who were native speakers or had nativelike fluency in the foreign language. It was largely dependent on the teacher's skill, rather than on a textbook, and not all teachers were proficient enough in the foreign language to adhere to the principles of the method.

Around the 1920s, the index methods that help students acquire only everyday oral communication skills (correctly pronounced question and answer exchanges) with grammar taught inductively and frequent use of pictures and objects starts to go into decline: the reading-based approach proposed in the Coleman Report (published in the United States in 1929) begins to grow in popularity instead (J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers 2004).

World War II makes a huge impact on language teaching in America, too and again changes the picture of which skills need to be learnt first. Both the foundation (in 1942) of the Army Specialised Training Program (ASTP) and the development of the Informant Method designed by Leonard Bloomfield at Yale (the native speaker serves as the only source of knowledge about the language learnt) prove great value

of intensive, oral-based approach to foreign language learning. Indeed, the desire to achieve conversational proficiency in a variety of foreign languages eventually leads to the emergence of Audiolingualism – it does not happen earlier, however, than by the second half of the 20th century.

Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching

The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching are developed during the 1920s and 1930s by two British linguists: Harold Edward Palmer and Albert Sydney Hornby. The first is especially known for his first attempts to establish the principles of syllabus design in teaching English as a foreign language (*The Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection*, reissued twice throughout the 1930s) while the latter is the author of the first dictionary for students of English as a foreign language (published in 1953 under the title *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*).

Both movements perceive (as recommended by the Coleman Report 1929) vocabulary to be the vital component of reading proficiency and they are still widely accepted in the 1950s and, then, also actively proposed by George Pittman in the 1960s – Pittman is the one who designs teaching materials based on Situational Approach.

The Oral Approach (Aural-Oral Approach) – as J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers (2004: 53) put it – is “a commonsense application of the idea that practice makes perfect.” Its general and systematic principles of selection, gradation and presentation lead to the appearance of Situational Language Teaching (Structural Situational Approach/Structural Approach).

In Situational Language Teaching speech and structure, presented in context of situations in which language is used, are regarded as the basis of any language learning. “Our principal classroom activity in the teaching of English structure will be the oral practice of structures. This oral practice of controlled sentence patterns should be given in situations designed to give the greatest amount of practice in English speech to the pupil”, G. Pittman (1963: 179) maintains adding further (1963: 186) that teaching the four basic skills of language (strictly in the order of listening, speaking, reading and writing – obviously through structures) becomes a goal in and of itself: “before our pupils read new structures and new vocabulary, we shall teach orally both the new structures and the new vocabulary.” As for grammar, that is taught inductively – from the way that its form is used in a particular situation.

D. Willis/ J. Willis (1996) claim that there are some essential features of Situational Language Teaching noticeable in Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) lesson model which teachers are required to master during the 1980s and 1990s. The tripartite design of PPP lesson paradigm, however, is used only to describe typical stages of new linguistic material presentation although free practice can also be found in the initial stage of models such as TTT (test-teach-test) or ARC (authentic use, restricted use and clarification and focus).

M. McCarthy/ R. Carter (1995), instead of the traditional PPP sequence propose: illustration (that is using real data whenever possible), interaction (that is discourse-sensitive activities that focus on uses of language and negotiation of meanings) and,

as the third component, induction (that is getting learners to draw conclusions about the functions of different lexico-grammatical options).

Audiolingualism

Earlier than that, however, as yet in the 1950s:

- structural linguistic theory viewing language as a system of pyramidally structured and produced in a rule-governed way elements (be they morphemes, phonemes, words, structures or sentence types),
- contrastive analysis of structural systems (grammatical and phonological patterns of the native and the target language),
- behaviourist psychology (the concept of a habit learnt in the circumstances where there is, *conditio sine qua non*, occurrence of a response – either appropriate or inappropriate – followed by a reinforcement but triggered first by a stimulus; the theory of conditioning is applied to the way that people acquire their mother tongue by Skinner), and
- Aural-Oral approach procedures

all combined give way to the emergence of Audiolingualism (J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers 2004). The term is coined by Nelson Brooks in 1964 (Situational Language Teaching also holds some similarity but for the linguistic and behavioural ties).

With regard to what has just been said above and when it comes to any foreign language teaching and learning, Audiolingualism propagators, which becomes widely applied to English as a second or foreign language teaching, assume the priority of speech. Speech-based instruction in the target language is first presented in the form of listening and, then, speaking with attention paid to accurate pronunciation (such is also the assumption of the Direct Method and Situational Language Teaching).

Accurate pronunciation gains more and more in significance, which finds its reflection later in the following words by E. Couper-Kuhlen (2008: 14): “[s]ignificantly the impulse to look at intonation in discourse came from language teachers (or rather, teachers of language teachers)”, and “it was language teachers who, with the turn to communicative skills in language teaching, were among the first to put intonation in this framework.” The reason for this is accurately grasped in M. Celce-Murica/ E. Olshtain’s (2007: 280) standpoint, namely that: “[s]econd language learners are sometimes puzzled by the reactions of native speakers to what they have said. The form and the content seem normal and correct. The intonation, however, may have been at fault.”

Reading and writing together with the study of grammar are only introduced gradually – as learning develops (needless to say, the learners’ mother tongue or the use of translation is either restricted or totally abandoned). The proponents of Audiolingualism support their viewpoint with the fact that we learn to speak before we learn to read or write. After all, language learning per se is recognized as a process of mechanical habit formation initiated by the teacher where, in the words of J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers (2004: 56), we need to

[i]dentify the organism as the foreign language learner, the behaviour as verbal behaviour, the stimulus as what is taught or presented of the foreign language, the response as the learner's reaction to the stimulus, and the reinforcement as the extrinsic approval and praise of the teacher or fellow students or the intrinsic self-satisfaction of target language use. Language mastery is represented as acquiring a set of appropriate language stimulus-response chains.

Audilingualism, most widely practised in the 1960s, experiences its first criticism from N. Chomsky – the founder of, among other things, theory of transformational grammar (stressing the importance of innate aspects of the mind) or cognitive code learning (conscious attempts to organize materials around a grammatical syllabus). N. Chomsky (1966: 153) disagrees with the structuralist approach and behaviourist theory of language learning claiming that rather than being imitated human language gets, in fact, created: “[I]anguage is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behaviour characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy.”

Task-Based Language Teaching

The very first traces of a task-focused approach (as an alternative to form-led activities) in language learning and teaching appear in the vocational training practices in the 1950s. In the task-based approach, one needs to be aware, language development is prompted by language use and the study of language form plays a rather secondary role (D. Willis/ J. Willis 2006).

Three decades later (in 1987), these assumptions are further developed by Niranjan. S. Prabhu (most famous for the Bangalore Project, the idea of which is to replace direct instruction by communicative competence; communication can also mean students' interaction with texts only) who first differentiates between information gap, reasoning gap and problem-solving tasks. Soon afterwards, D. Nunan (1989: 10) comes up with the definition of a communicative task which he characterizes as:

[a] piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language whilst their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right.

P. Skehan (1998), in turn, sees any task as an activity where meaning is primary, there is a goal that needs to be worked toward, the activity is outcome-evaluated and there is a real-world relationship.

Tasks then, as final goals of using a language, can be described from lots of different perspectives and according to contexts in which they are presented. That is, in addition to the aforementioned N. S. Prabhu's distinction (1987), one can talk about one-way or two-way tasks (as far as the exchange of information is concerned) but they can also: a) be convergent or divergent (have just one common goal or several different goals), b) be collaborative or competitive, c) be reality (real-world)

or non reality-based (pedagogical), d) be inductive and implicit or e) be deductive and explicit, f) result in single or multiple outcomes, g) contain concrete or abstract or simple or complex language, h) involve simple or complex (cognitive) processing. A fortiori, they can perform: personal, narrative, problem-solving, opinion-exchange or decision-making functions, just to mention a few.

To sum up this part, Task-Based Language Teaching followers surmise that conversation forms the basis of foreign language acquisition and, in their beliefs, refer to learning theories (in that opportunities for both input and output are provided), and not theories of language (more speech-centred in their style indeed).

Content-Based Instruction

Next on my list is Content-Based Instruction, an approach to language teaching disseminating the role of content (information), the traces of which can be found in the Canadian language immersion education program (1965) although J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers (2004) mention Saint Augustine as its earliest proponent. “It is the teaching of content or information in the language being learnt with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught”, K. Krahnke (1987: 65) writes.

This learner-centred approach makes use of authentic text- and discourse-based purposeful language (adjusted and simplified in its form, known under the term of foreigner talk) as well as integrated skills. D. M. Brinton et al. (1989: 2) report that:

[i]n a content-based approach, the activities of the language class are specific to the subject being taught, and are geared to stimulate students to think and learn through the target language. Such an approach lends itself quite naturally to the integrated teaching of the four traditional language skills. For example, it employs authentic reading materials which require students not only to understand information but to interpret and evaluate it as well. It provides a forum in which students can respond orally to reading and lecture materials. It recognizes that academic writing follows from listening, and reading, and thus requires students to synthesize facts and ideas from multiple sources as preparation for writing. In this approach, students are exposed to study skills and learn a variety of language skills which prepare them for a range of academic tasks they will encounter.

It can also be applied in a rather wide variety of contexts and settings too, that is: a) at tertiary level as theme-based language instruction (organised around specific themes or topics), b) sheltered content instruction (content second language taught courses), c) adjunct language instruction (two complementing each other courses; one of which, in its nature, is a typically content and the other language course), d) team-teach approach (subject and language teacher work together on students’ overall comprehension) or e) skills-based approach (relating to some specific academic skill area). Elementary and secondary education levels include theme-based approach (theme-based modules which, once completed, facilitate learners’ entry into regular subject-areas classroom) or adjunct approach (learning, for instance, Biology through English).

Last but not least, when it comes to other educational movements that refer to the findings of Content-Based Instruction, one should also mention: Language Across the Curriculum, Immersion Education, Immigrant On-Arrival Programs, Programs for Students with Limited English Proficiency and Language for Specific Purposes (English for Science and Technology, English for Specific Purposes, English for Occupational Purposes or English for Academic Purposes).

S. Grucza (2013a: 45) following P. Strevens (1988), A. M. Johns (1991), A. M. Johns, T. Dudley-Evans (1991) and R. West (1995) makes this list much more detailed and within the LSP area distinguishes between: English for Academic Purposes” (EAP), English for Business and Technology (EBT), English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Medical Purposes (EMP), English for Business Purposes (EBP), English for Legal Purposes (ELP), English for Management, Finance and Economics, English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), English for Business and Economics (EBE), English for Social Studies (ESS) or English for Military Purposes (EMP). As per specialist languages categorization, S. Grucza (2013a: 107) makes a point that particular categories of specialist languages correspond, respectively, to particular businesses and/or professions.

In fact, specialist languages might be perceived as “language variations” or “sublanguages” (F. Grucza 1991, 1994) and F. Grucza (in S. Grucza 2013b: 21) regards any general and specialist language not as two functionally compatible but two functionally complementary languages that have to be treated independently. That, in turn, means that, for instance, a Polish person (speaker/listener) who knows both Polish as a general and Polish as a specialist language, ought to be treated, in some ways, as a bilingual person (S. Grucza 2013b: 23). Not much attention, S. Grucza (2013b: 6) confirms, is still being paid to glottodidactics of specialist languages.

S. Grucza (2013a), in accordance with F. Grucza’s anthropocentric (relativistic) theory of human languages, presents an integrated model of specialised languages linguistics, that is linguistics which deals with (or plans to deal with) real specialist languages. From S. Grucza’s (anthropocentric) point of view (2013a: 10), specialist languages linguistics not only stands for terminology but also a field of science that, primarily, copes with specialist texts structure.

In Anglo-American countries, specialist languages, S. Grucza (2013a:42) notes, have been discovered by applied linguistics – initially by glottodidactics and, then, translation studies. In Anglo-Saxon literature, though, he (2013a: 42) continues, any studies of this kind are referred to as continental European studies; any Anglo-American study comes under the term: English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or, seldom, Language for Specific Purposes (LSP).

The practical tasks of Anglo-American studies of LSP, S. Grucza (2013a: 46) reminds us, are not limited, however, to merely glottodidactic issues. Indeed, the examples of such practical goals that S. Grucza (2013a: 46) cites are: SEASPEAK (1988), AIRSPEAK (1988), POLICESPEAK (1994) or RAILSPEAK (1994), all of which perform the function of assuring safety in appropriate means of communication internationally.

Finally, S. Grucza (2013a: 113), following C. Meier (1997), M. Danerer (1999), G. Br nner (2000), F. Menz (2000a, 2000b) or S. Schn ring (2007), speaks of Corporate Communication or Organizational Discourses as new fields of study, and, referring to his earlier study (2006), S. Grucza (2013a: 113) recalls the distinction drawn between “specialist intercultural competence” and “specialist intracultural competence”.

Whereas general English begins with the language, the above listed educational approaches (of specific purposes) begin with the learner and the situation (L. Hamp-Lyons 2006) although, talking of specialist languages, S. Grucza (2013a: 106), on anthropocentric theory grounds, replaces the terms “learning” or “acquisition” with “specialist idiolect reconstruction”.

Cooperative Language Learning

Also known as Collaborative Learning, it is a learner-centred approach to language teaching developed in the United States during the 1960s and 1970s, and drawing in particular on the work of John Dewey as well as Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky.

The role of social interaction and teamwork in learning and building positive relationships among students (as opposed to teacher-fronted classes where competition is, most often, encouraged) are emphasised and implemented by a range of cooperative activities that involve both pair and group work (be they formal cooperative learning groups arranged for a specific task or informal cooperative learning groups formed ad hoc).

C. Szostek (1994: 259) admits openly though that “cooperative learning is not a panacea. It cannot and should not be used to replace all other types of teaching and learning”. It certainly does, however, contribute to the development of learners’ social skills and helps propagate communicative competence as the primary purpose of foreign language learning.

L. Vygotsky, apart from being the initiator of the socio-cultural theory of mind (1978), the key idea of which is the social nature of knowledge – in actual fact, according to him, learning, regarded as interpsychological phenomenon, occurs thanks to social interaction and, thus, the emphasis is not on self-development (or ontogenesis) but collaboration (whether between the teacher and his/her learners or parents and their children, for instance), is also the proponent of, so called, zone of proximal development.

The ZPD, to put it in simple terms, is the difference between what any learner can do without (the teacher’s or parent’s) assistance and what he or she can do with it (i.e. their help) or, using L. Vygotsky’s own words (1978: 87): “what the person can do with assistance today, he or she can do tomorrow alone.” J. P. Lantolf (2009: 359) adds to that by saying that the ZPD stands for co-mediation and gives an example of

[a] mother wishing to raise her child from a prone to a sitting position. One way to do this is simply to lift the child to the desired position. Another option would be for the mother to grasp the child’s hands and slowly pull upward while at the same time coaxing the child to exert force against her pulling.

This notion, then, bears a resemblance, but for J. P. Lantolf (2000), to S. D. Krashen's "i+1" formula in that both the importance of input (or instruction) is recognized; as it does to Bruner's Scaffolding Theory of the late 1950s alike (J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers 2004).

Silent Way

In total opposition to the above described methods and approaches stands the Silent Way, a structural approach to oral and aural language competence developed in the 1970s by Caleb Gattegno. According to its rules, the teacher be silent as much as it is possible (learning rather than teaching is insisted on although activities are typically teacher-directed), and the voice be passed to students themselves. Correct pronunciation and proper vocabulary range (both achieved visually: the first with the assistance of colour-coded charts called fidels while the latter – coloured Cuisenaire rods linking words and structures with their meanings) constitute the main foci of students' attention. Grammar is taught inductively.

C. Gattegno (1972: 11), unlike the founder of Total Physical Response for instance, points out that the process of second language acquisition bears no resemblance to the first language learning as any learner "cannot learn another language in the same way because of what he now knows." In actual fact, it is the self of the learner or, rather, their self-awareness that counts most and any conclusions are reached through pupils' own discoveries and generalizations; this way the idea of self-correction technique applies.

Counselling-Learning: Community Language Learning and Social Process

Counselling-Learning to language teaching, originating from Rogerian person-centred counselling is best expressed in a teacher-learner relationship of Community Language Learning developed by Charles A. Curran. Indeed, Carl Rogers recognizes the significance of warmth, understanding and empathy on the counsellor's side during a series of therapies with their clients and surmises that the only tool that the counsellor actually has is himself/herself and his/her knowledge. The client, on the other hand, knows "what hurts, what directions to go, what problems are crucial, what experiences have been buried", C. Rogers (1961: 11-12) writes. Ch. A. Curran (1976) transforms this idea slightly to indicate not one-sided but mutual warmth, understanding and empathy which he calls consensual validation (or convalidation); security, attention and aggression, retention and reflection and, finally, discrimination are perceived as personal commitments on the learner's part (SARD).

Humanistic techniques of self-actualization and self-esteem (G. Moskowitz 1978) are meant to involve not only learners' linguistic knowledge and behavioural skills (as in the case of Audiolingualism, for instance) but also their emotions and feelings. In other words, during a tape-recorded communication between learners with topics directly chosen by them (all seated in a circle and facing one another), one of them presents a message in L1 to the teacher (who is acting as a knower) with the help of whom its content is translated into L2 and, eventually, repeated (conveyed to) the interlocutor. With the time passing by, learners, from this kind of interaction, become members of a learning community and can act as knowers

themselves for other learners. Counselling Learning has something in common with J. Lave/ E. Wenger's (1991) approach to learning perceived as legitimate peripheral participation in communities of practice (be they subject matter classroom, school as a whole, community or even entire society).

Community of practice is defined by J. Lave/ E. Wenger's (1991) as "a set of relations among persons, activity and the world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice" and in which, as J. Lave/ E. Wenger (1991: 56) further call them, "newcomers" initially take part in less challenging (peripheral) activities only to, eventually, "themselves become old-timers". This process – similar in its form to the ontogenetic development of a child – can only be successful in a collaborative teacher-learner monolingual environment "in which both experience a sense of their own wholeness", Ch. A. Curran (1972: 90) adds.

It is worth noting that Ch. A. Curran's student Paul G. La Forge investigates the concept of Counselling Learning to an even greater extent, paying specific attention to feedback reaction from the message destinee: "[c]ommunication is an exchange which is incomplete without a feedback reaction from the destinee of the message" (P. G. La Forge 1983: 3). La Forge calls his theory, based, in fact, on Community Language Learning principles, Social Process.

Neurolinguistic Programming

Neurolinguistic Programming is developed in the mid-1970s (with no initial intention of applying it to language teaching) by John Grindler and Richard Bandler. Rather than being a method or an approach, J. Revell/ S. Norman (1997: 14) both concede, it is a humanistic philosophy – "a collection of techniques, patterns, and strategies for assisting effective communication, personal growth and change, and learning. It is based on a series of underlying assumptions about how the mind works and how people act and interact."

Indeed, this psychology-based set of suggestions and beliefs, recognising the significance of outcomes, rapport, sensory acuity and flexibility, is designed in order to show that people actually have the power to control most aspects of their lives (including learning processes). What is more, upon achieving success (as learners), other learners be shown successful behaviour patterns, too (these could either be passed on to or copied by them). Unlike the first part of the name indicates, there is no link at all to the field of neurolinguistics; indeed, *neuro*, here, implies the way human brain functions while *linguistic*: communication theory. Here is how J. Revell/ S. Norman (1997: 14) explain the index name:

[t]he neuro part of NLP is concerned with how we experience the world through our five senses and represent it in our minds through our neurological processes. The linguistic part of NLP is concerned with the way the language we use shapes, as well as reflects, our experience of the world. We use language – in thought as well as in speech – to represent the world to ourselves and to embody our beliefs about the world and about life. If we change the way we speak and think about things, we can change our behaviour. We can also use language to help other people who want to change. The programming part

of NLP is concerned with training ourselves to think, speak, and act in new and positive ways in order to release our potential and reach those heights of achievements which we previously only dreamt of.

Total Physical Response

It is a language teaching method devised by James Asher (and then widely supported by Stephen Krashen – co-founder, together with Tracy Terrell, of the Natural Approach) that gains popularity in the 1970s and is commonly used during the 1980s. Its main objective is students' oral proficiency attained with the help of motor movements which, in turn, help reduce stress whilst learning.

Total Physical Response is directed, in contrast to all the other contemporary second language teaching methods (when it comes to brain lateralization), to brain right-hemisphere and draws strictly on grammar-based view of language (although grammar per se is taught inductively). A crucial role is played by the verb in the imperative: J. Asher (1977: 4) is in favour of the fact that “most of the grammatical structure of the target language and hundreds of vocabulary items can be learnt from the skilful use of the imperative by the instructor.”

Second language learning (mapped by developmental psychology) is seen through the lens of the child's first language acquisition and, according to J. Asher (1977), both the brain and nervous system are biologically programmed to develop listening competence by being first exposed to parental commands and, then, obligatorily, accompanied by physical actions. Only in these circumstances, speaking competence may (obviously in due course) evolve.

Natural Approach

The underpinnings of this comprehension-based language learning methodology, which, in its foundation, relates to the Natural Method or Total Physical Response, are created by Tracy D. Terrell (1977) although it is not until 1983 when, together with the co-authorship of Stephen Krashen, *The Natural Approach: language acquisition in the classroom* is published. As its authors (1983: 71) say:

[t]he goals of a Natural Approach class are based on an assessment of student needs. We determine the situations in which they will use the target language and the sorts of topics they will have to communicate information about. In setting communication goals, we do not expect the students at the end of a particular course to have acquired a certain group of structures or forms. Instead we expect them to deal with a particular set of topics in a given situation. We do not organize the activities of the class about a grammatical syllabus.

In actual fact, the Natural Approach is built upon S. Krashen's Monitor Theory and designed, S. D. Krashen/ T. D. Terrell (1983: 67) acknowledge, “to develop basic communication skills – both oral and written.”

I would like to make now a few references to some of S. Krashen's works (1981, 1982, 1983, 1985) and, especially, to the following hypotheses: a) acquisition and learning (or unconscious and conscious processes of developing competence in a second or foreign language, respectively; in fact, it is the acquired, during real

communication, target language system that we call upon during spontaneous language use with the learnt, during instruction, system acting as a monitor of the output of the acquired system – as a rule, learning does not lead to acquisition), b) the monitor (calling upon learnt knowledge with the aim of correcting oneself – the successful use of the monitor though is limited by conditions such as: time, focus on form and knowledge of rules), c) the natural order (a predictable order of grammatical structures acquisition), d) the input (utterances that any learner understands the meaning of if in context; input for instructed L2 learners is the language, presented intentionally, so as to facilitate the process of L2 learning or acquisition), and, finally, e) the affective filter (attitudes and emotions, such as motivation or self-image, for instance, act as filters either speeding up or blocking input vital to acquisition; if the affective filter is raised, the theory suggests, acquisition will be reduced). The point of the foregoing discussion (that is of the five hypotheses) is best expressed in the four implications for language teaching provided by J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers (2004: 183):

1. As much comprehensible input as possible must be presented.
2. Whatever helps comprehension is important. Visual aids are useful, as is exposure to a wide range of vocabulary rather than study of syntactic structure.
3. The focus in the classroom should be on listening and reading; speaking should be allowed to “emerge”.
4. In order to lower the affective filter, student work should center on meaningful communication rather than on form; input should be interesting and so contribute to a relaxed classroom atmosphere.

Talking of the Natural Approach, however, much emphasis is placed on presenting comprehensible input in the classroom environment and meaningful communication (lexis rather than grammar – obtained from the world of realia) since they are perceived as the primary function of language. As S. D. Krashen/ T. D. Terrell (1983: 19) maintain, “acquisition can take place only when people understand messages in the target language.”

When it comes to learners then – these are expected, the authors (1983: 71) say, “to deal with a particular set of topics in a given situation” but for their stress and anxiety, it only happens when they feel they are ready to do so. After all, having completed a course, it is anticipated by S. D. Krashen/ T. D. Terrell (1983: 71) who are also in favour of the idea of making formal language learning as natural as possible that students:

[w]ill be able to function adequately in the target situation. They will understand the speaker of the target language (perhaps with requests for clarification), and will be able to convey (in a non-insulting manner) their requests and ideas. They need not know every word in a particular semantic domain, nor is it necessary that the syntax and vocabulary be flawless – but their production does need to be understood. They should be able to make the meaning clear but not necessarily be accurate in all details of grammar.

Input and Output Hypotheses and Relevance Theory

S. D. Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985) states that ESL (rather than EFL) learners are able to understand unfamiliar language (listening comprehension comes first before the ability to speak/write fluently is developed) with the help of contextual clues (besides extralinguistic information, knowledge of the world and previously acquired linguistic competence). S. D. Krashen (1985: 101) recognizes the significance of input (which can be roughly tuned) that is beyond learners' current level in his "i + 1" formula where "'i' is the learner's current competence, or the last rule acquired along the natural order, and the 'i + 1' means the next rule the learner is due to acquire or is eligible to acquire along the natural order" but such input has to be not only comprehensible but also comprehended. S. D. Krashen's (1985) concept of auto-input also assumes the acquisition of linguistic data found in the learner's output. On the other hand, E. Hatch (2001: 22) notices that:

[w]hen people are learning languages, they may have difficulty interpreting messages not negotiated to their level of competence. There are many ways to deal with this. Some learners 'fake it', pretending to understand and continuing to interact in the hope that they will catch the theme or focus of the conversation. (...) Other learners use backchannel cues to let the speaker know that they do not understand. The speaker then repairs the message. As the talk is negotiated, repairs and readjustments are made, and the talk becomes simplified to (hopefully) an appropriate level. There are advantages and disadvantages to this strategy too. The message becomes comprehensible during the repair process, but both the native speaker and language learner may find the need for constant negotiation of repairs too burdensome to make the conversation worthwhile. The learner may then be denied the extended interaction with native speakers that could facilitate language learning.

M. Swain (1985) takes a slightly different approach and in her Comprehensible Output Hypothesis surmises that comprehended (and comprehensible) output (that is the learner's spoken language) also plays a key role in language communication. The three functions of output (in L2 learning) are, consequently, defined in the following manner: the noticing function helps the learner notice any differences between their own language and the target language, the hypothesis-testing function helps the learner notice underlying language rules that can be applied to language production while the metalinguistic function helps the learner notice the opportunity to reflect on the language produced.

Comprehensible Output Hypothesis is, alternatively, termed the Pushed Output Hypothesis by R. Ellis (1997) as, according to the four assumptions provided by R. Ellis (1990) and T. Lynch (1996): a) it is by speaking that learners learn to speak a foreign language, b) when communication breaks down, they (i.e. learners) need to be "pushed", c) output offers students opportunities to try out new language items and, finally, d) when "pushed" in performance, learners are forced to attend to the formal aspects of the message.

In fact, language, when addressed at students with the aim of a genuine communicative function (but also the one that is comprehended, set in a frame of reference, grammatical and appropriate, in L2 and tailored to the reception potential),

can work as input. Having said that, however, it is comprehended output, in and of itself, M. Swain (1985: 248) – who, later, also recognises the significance of the dialogic nature of language learning – maintains that “needs to incorporate the notion of being pushed toward the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently and appropriately.”

But “[f]undamentally, it is by attempting to communicate with speakers of the target language that the learner learns”, S. P. Corder (1978: 80) claims although any native-speaker language (foreigner talk) when addressed to non-proficient non-native speakers can, at times, reach the level of ungrammaticalness. R. Ellis (1988: 89) is of the opinion that instructed second language acquisition “may be successful not when the teacher provides an input with x features but when reciprocal interaction occurs.”

Indeed, such is the assumption of M. H. Long’s (1983a, 1983b) Interaction Hypothesis, the key features of which are asking for clarification and confirming comprehension, that the role of reciprocal modified interaction and the role of modified input (be it in the form of, either segmental or suprasegmental, phonological, morphological/structural, semantic or interactional adjustments) are highlighted. Interactants can refer to these after backtracking – that is returning to a point in their conversation, up to which they believe the other party has, without any doubt, understood them. M. H. Long (1983a, 1983b) addresses the index issue in his taxonomy of native speakers’ interactional modifications (or supportive interventions as is the case in teacher-, caregiver- or foreigner-talk) in foreigner-talk discourse. In contrast: any discourse, unmodified in its nature, that native speakers are involved in is known as baseline talk.

It is extremely vital to add that, in his later version of the hypothesis in question, M. H. Long (1996: 451-2) recognises the significance of the teacher – more competent interlocutor by surmising that “negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS [native speaker] or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways”, which S. Walsh (2006: 23) interprets as “a need to reconsider the interaction that occurs between teacher and learners, a departure from an earlier version of the interaction hypothesis (M. H. Long 1983a), which also addressed learner-learner interaction.”

So, whether it is a naturalistic setting or a formal classroom environment (as far as the first is concerned the focus of the ongoing interaction is on mere communication rather than language teaching), M. H. Long (1983a, 1983b) differentiates between: a) strategies (used for avoiding trouble) such as relinquishing topic control, selecting salient topics, treating topics briefly, making new topics salient and checking NNS’s comprehension, b) tactics (used for repairing trouble) such as accepting unintentional topic-switch, requesting clarification, confirming own comprehension, tolerating ambiguity and c) strategies and tactics (used both for avoiding and repairing trouble) such as using slow pace, stressing key words, pausing before key words, decomposing topic-comment constructions (decomposition stands, in other words, for a combination of strategy with tactic, which is used in order to

avoid and/or repair trouble), repeating own utterances and, last but by no means least, repeating other's utterances.

As per the first item from the above list, S. Mieszalski (1997: 93) and K. Kruszewski (1995: 85-86) notice that in a classroom-environment (whether primary, lower secondary or secondary level), lesson pace makes the teacher either maintain or lose discipline in class. That is, if the pace is too slow, students become bored or distracted whereas if it is too quick, they usually do not follow what their teacher says and, as a consequence, lose their interest in what is going on in the lesson at all. That is why, in order to be appropriate, lesson pace be adjusted to students' needs.

Bearing all these points in mind, T. Pica (1987) says that it is not interaction per se that facilitates understanding of input – in fact, “[m]anaging interaction entails far more than modifying input for learners” – but rather discourse modifications resulting in moves to check or appeal for assistance with comprehension. S. Walsh (2006: 22), in a similar vein to Pica, adds that “through interacting with others, learners are obliged to modify their speech in order to ensure that understanding takes place”.

Comprehension, H. G. Widdowson (1990: 108) argues, “is never complete: it is always only approximate, and relative to purpose.” With the help of the tools above, any input can eventually become intake which is defined by M. Lewis (1993: 25) as “the language which the student benefits from and is, in some way able to integrate, either partially or totally into his or her own repertoire.” In other words, the more exposure learners have, the more input is available for processing as intake. This is not the case as far as input available to immigrant second-language learners in naturalistic environments is concerned as it is influenced by social and psychological factors alike – Schumann's Acculturation Hypothesis (1978) posits.

Before I move to the analysis of the very next method, I would like to take a short look at the postulates of the Relevance Theory of D. Sperber/ D. Wilson (1995), the theory which deals with the interpretation of incoming messages and which, in ostensive-inferential communication, distinguishes between two layers of intention: the informative and communicative one.

Indeed, input, D. Sperber/ D. Wilson (1995) claim, is relevant when it produces enough contextual effect without putting too much effort – the least processing effort principle – into the process (on the hearer's side). Also, the principle of relevance, D. Sperber/ D. Wilson (1995) continue, posits that every act of overt (ostensive) communication (whether verbal or non-verbal) automatically communicates a presumption of its optimal relevance while the rationality principle, on the other hand, that the first acceptable interpretation of an utterance is the only acceptable interpretation. But D. Sperber/ D. Wilson (2004: 612), in the later version of their Relevance Theory, come back to probe optimal relevance again and report that it (i.e. optimal relevance) stands for “stimulus relevant enough to be worth the audience's processing effort and most relevant one compatible with communicator's abilities and preferences”. In the case of L2 learning, it is the meaning of the learner's answer that is optimally relevant for the teacher.

Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia, also termed Desuggestopedia, is a method developed during the late 1970s by Georgi Lozanov and introduced to students, as its founder (1978: 267) puts it, in the context of a “suggestive-desuggestive ritual placebo-system.” In fact, suggestion (and desuggestion), achieved with the help of six principal theoretical components: authority (authoritative behaviour of the teacher helps facilitate the learning process – learners experience, so called, pseudo-passive state), infantilization (a teacher-student relation similar to that of parent to child), double-planedness (direct instruction as important as the environment in which it is said), intonation and rhythm (adding dramatization to the, otherwise, repetitive, ad nauseam, linguistic material) and, eventually, concert pseudo-passiveness (relaxed, optimal for learning, attitude), all play the key role in the index method.

G. Lozanov (1978: 27) believes that altering states of consciousness and concentration (mental state critical to success), rhythmic breathing, the use of music (Baroque largo, specifically) as well as appropriate arrangement of the classroom (fixtures and decoration with learners seated in a circle) all cause that “[m]emorization in learning by the suggestopedic method seems to be accelerated by 25 times over that in learning by conventional methods.”

A typical language class then, the objective of which is to deliver conversational proficiency by directing the students, G. Lozanov (1978: 109) points out, “not to vocabulary memorization and acquiring habits of speech, but to acts of communication” makes lexis (taught in a dialogue form through translation than contextualisation) central and grammar is only learnt as an addition or, rather, a commentary. Any lesson is divided into three parts: oral review section, new material presentation and discussion and, finally, the séance or concert session. As the propagator (1978: 272) of the method implies:

[a]t the beginning of the session, all conversation stops for a minute or two, and the teacher listens to the music coming from a tape-recorder. He waits and listens to several passages in order to enter into the mood of the music and then begins to read or recite the new text, his voice modulated in harmony with the musical phrases. The students follow the text in their textbooks where each lesson is translated into the mother tongue. Between the first and second part of the concert, there are several minutes of solemn silence. In some cases, even longer pauses can be given to permit the students to stir a little. Before the beginning of the second part of the concert, there are again several minutes of silence and some phrases of the music are heard again before the teacher begins to read the text. Now the students close their textbooks and listen to the teacher’s reading. At the end, the students silently leave the room. They are not told to do any homework on the lesson they have just had except for reading it curiously once before going to bed and again before getting up in the morning.

Competency-Based Language Teaching

It is an educational movement that grows out of Competency-Based Education in the United States in the 1970s (although its traces can be found, also in America, in J. F. Bobbit’s work, 1926) that defines not the subject knowledge but functional

competencies, i.e. essential skills, knowledge, attitudes and behaviours learners ought to possess in order to facilitate their language learning experience.

Indeed, the two areas of particular attention of the index movement are the field of work and social life, and only the examples of vocabulary that could be encountered in these two specific spheres of human life are concentrated on. Moreover, Competency-Based Language Teaching advocates express the viewpoint that language is used to act as a medium in an ongoing interaction between people, the result of which is the achievement of certain goals and purposes – be it the performance of a real-world task or activity although a task-based approach ought to be distinguished from the assumptions of Task-Based Language Teaching (where tasks stand for the primary source of foreign language input).

E. A. Schenck (1978: vi) addresses this issue by saying that students' practical skills (what they can do with the language rather than what they know about it) are brought to the forefront and that:

[c]ompetency-Based education has much in common with such approaches to learning as performance-based instruction, mastery learning and individualized instruction. It is outcome-based and is adaptive to the changing needs of students, teachers and the community. (...) Competencies differ from other student goals and objectives in that they describe the students' ability to apply basic and other skills in situations that are commonly encountered in everyday life. Thus CBE is based on a set of outcomes that are derived from an analysis of tasks typically required of students in life role situations.

Almost a decade later, E. Auerbach (1986) identifies eight key factors that are held responsible for the implementation of Competency-Based Education programmes in Competency-Based Language Teaching (specifically, English as a Second Language) to which she includes: a) focus on successful functioning in society, b) focus on life skills, c) task- or performance-centred orientation, d) modularized instruction, e) outcomes that are made explicit a priori, f) continuous and ongoing assessment, g) demonstrated mastery of performance objectives and h) individualized, student-centred instruction.

Now, let me lay out some of the issues concerned with, and mentioned above by E. Auerbach (1986), assessment – the term which denotes different ways of collecting information on the learner's language ability or achievement (G. Brindley 2006) and which, as a matter of fact, can often be used interchangeably with testing. Indeed, whether achievement or proficiency, norm-referencing or criterion-referencing, mastery learning or continuum, continuous or fixed point, formative or summative, direct or indirect, performance or knowledge, subjective or objective, checklist rating or performance rating, impression or guided judgement, holistic or analytic, series or category or, finally, by others or self-assessment, of central relevance, as far as the features of any assessment are taken into consideration, is its validity and reliability (F. Genesee 2006).

Also, one needs to bear in mind that assessment needs to be distinguished from evaluation (on technical grounds) as evaluation is understood as a process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information about teaching and learning so as

to make further decisions aimed at enhancing student achievement and success of educational programmes (F. Genesee 2006).

Finally, it is worth adding that assessment is an important ingredient of evaluation which indicates progress (or achievement) of an individual student (that said, washback is the notion that informs about the impact of assessment and testing on teaching and learning) whereas evaluation is responsible for considering all aspects of teaching and learning and, thus, goes somehow beyond student achievement and language assessment fields (F. Genesee 2006).

Multiple Intelligences

This approach is based on the work of Howard Gardner (1983) who perceives intelligence not as an inborn capacity but, rather, as a set of problem-solving skills that are valued in one cultural setting or more (Gardner challenges traditional Intelligent Quotient tests based on the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scales). Consequently, human intelligence is characterised to possess multiple dimensions – each learner, therefore, is unique and has individual learning styles and preferences.

The phenomenon of individuality and unity is, at that time, already voiced in such movements or approaches as Individualized Instruction, Autonomous Learning, Learner Training and Learner Strategies. H. Gardner (1993: XXIII) posits that

[s]even kinds of intelligence would allow seven ways to teach, rather than one. And powerful constraints that exist in the mind can be mobilized to introduce a particular concept (or whole system of thinking) in a way that children are most likely to learn it and least likely to distort it. Paradoxically, constraints can be suggestive and ultimately freeing.

He initially formulates a provisional list of seven intelligences: a) linguistic (sensitivity to spoken and written language, the ability to learn languages and the capacity to use language to accomplish certain goals), b) logical-mathematical (the capacity to analyse problems logically, carry out mathematical operations and investigate issues scientifically), c) musical (performance skill, composition and appreciation of musical patterns), d) bodily-kinesthetic (the potential of using one's whole body or parts of the body to solve problems), e) spatial (the potential to recognise and use the patterns of wide space and more confined areas), f) interpersonal (the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people) and g) intrapersonal (the capacity to understand oneself, to appreciate one's feelings, fears and motivations).

It would be worth adding that the first two intelligences are associated with education, the next three – the arts with the last two being termed by Gardner personal. With regard to this seven-dimensional model of intelligence, and following subsequent research, the index model is eventually extended by yet two more possibilities: naturalist and existential intelligence. The taxonomy of language-learning activities for multiple intelligences is presented by J. C. Richards/ T. S. Rodgers (2004: 121) in the following manner:

Linguistic Intelligence

lectures	student speeches
small- and large-group discussions	storytelling
books	debates
worksheets	journal keeping
word games	memorizing
listening to cassettes or talking books	using word processors
publishing (creating class newspapers or collections of writing)	

Logical/Mathematical Intelligence

scientific demonstrations	creating codes
logic problems and puzzles	story problems science
thinking	calculations
logical-sequential presentation of subject matter	

Spatial Intelligence

charts, maps, diagrams	visualization
videos, slides, movies	photography
art and other pictures	using mind maps
imaginative storytelling	painting or collage
graphic organizers	optical illusions
telescopes, microscopes	student drawings
visual awareness activities	

Bodily/Kinesthetic Intelligence

creative movement	hands-on activities
Mother-may-I?	field trips
cooking and other “mess” activities	mime
role plays	

Musical Intelligence

playing recorded music	singing
playing live music (piano, guitar)	group singing
music appreciation	mood music
student-made instruments	Jazz Chants

Interpersonal Intelligence

cooperative groups	conflict mediation
peer teaching	board games
group brainstorming	pair work

Intrapersonal Intelligence

independent student work	reflective learning
individualized projects	journal keeping
options for homework	interest centers
inventories and checklists	self-esteem journals
personal journal keeping	goal setting
self-teaching/programmed instruction	

Whole Language

Ken Goodman is the icon of the approach created in the 1980s and concerned with literacy teaching: reading and writing in the first language. As a matter of fact, the major idea of the movement in question is to help children learn to read in their first language, and it is only later that its principles are extended to middle and secondary schools or English as a second language teaching and learning, too.

Similarly to Total Physical Response, second and first language learning bear, according to K. Goodman (1986: 3-4), much in common:

[m]any school traditions seem to have actually hindered language development. In our zeal to make it easy, we've made it hard. How? Primarily by breaking whole (natural) language up into bite-size, but abstract little pieces. It seemed so logical to think that little children could best learn simple little things. We took apart the language and turned it into words, syllables, and isolated sounds. Unfortunately, we also postponed its natural purpose – the communication of meaning – and turned it into a set of abstractions, unrelated to the needs and experiences of the children we sought to help. In homes, children learn oral language without having it broken into simple little bits and pieces. They are amazingly good at learning language when they need it to express themselves and understand others, as long as they are surrounded by people who are using language meaningfully and purposefully. This is what many teachers are learning again from children: keep language whole and involve children in using it functionally and purposefully to meet their own needs. That simple, very simple discovery is leading to some dramatic, exciting changes in school. Put aside the carefully sequenced basal readers, spelling programs, and handwriting kits.

As the name per se implies, K. Goodman (1986) recognizes the significance of teaching the language not as its separate components but as a whole (integrated) irrespective of whether one deals with, but is not restricted to, grammar, vocabulary or phonics, for instance (the latter understood as a kind of reading which involves first identifying letters and then turning them into sounds). “Whole language programs get it all together: the language, the culture, the community, the learner, and the teacher”, K. Goodman (1986: 4) writes.

Using language psycholinguistically with the main aim of communicating (for authentic and interactional purposes) is emphasised as is the use of authentic literature (both fictional and non-fictional) rather than proper textbooks; the importance of using authentic materials in the language classroom is also propagated, for instance, by P. Ur (1984). In addition to that, no lesson needs to be planned but rather its content is negotiated with students (student-centred learning) and teachers act as active participants – not experts in their field. Errors, if occur, are perceived as signs of learning rather than failure; according to D. S. Hurley (1992: 260) failure can be of two types:

[p]ragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic where pragmalinguistic failure is the inability to understand – or encode appropriately – the illocutionary force of an utterance, due to unfamiliarity with the ‘resources’ of the target language. Sociopragmatics concerns the conventions governing interactions, including

which registers and topics are appropriate under different circumstances. Sociopragmatic failure stems from unfamiliarity with these norms. Both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic factors can affect a communicative event.

Lexical Approach

Lexical Approach, the term coined by M. Lewis (1993), is a lexis-based approach to language teaching and learning (item learning as an alternative to system learning of, for example, grammar-based approaches) which closes the foregoing discussion on methods and approaches. Vocabulary can be both of productive and receptive kind: acquired directly or explicitly – that is with the help of word lists, paired translation equivalents or related semantic sets but it can also be acquired indirectly or implicitly – that is with the help of exposure to words in the context of reading authentic texts. M. Celce-Murcia/ E. Olshtain (2007: 76-7) claim that there is

[s]ome estimate that productive use of as few as three thousand words and phrases will suffice for informal conversation. In contrast, it is estimated that a receptive vocabulary of fewer than 10,000 words will prevent a reader from comprehending all but the most rudimentary written English texts. (...) With reference to the four language skills, the fewest vocabulary items are needed for speaking, while more words are needed for writing and for listening comprehension, with the largest number of words needed for reading.

In fact, core grammatical words such as: *the, of, I, that, was, a* and *and* make up nearly 20 per cent of a typical English text (R. Carter 2006).

By and large, M. Lewis (1993) believes in the centrality of lexicon (whether content words like: nouns, verbs, adjectives and some adverbs or function words such as: pronouns, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, determiners, and many adverbs) – one of the components of communicative competence constituting the basis of any language (word as a primary repository of meaning indeed), and claims that any language consists of grammaticalized lexis and not lexicalized grammar. In a similar vein, N. Chomsky in his Minimalist Program (1995), minimalist approach to linguistic theory, also adopts a lexicon-is-prime standpoint. Along similar lines, M. McCarthy (2007: 64) writes that:

[b]ringing a discourse dimension into language teaching does not by any means imply an abandonment of teaching vocabulary. Vocabulary will still be the largest single element in tackling a new language for the learner and it would be irresponsible to suggest that it will take care of itself in some ideal world where language teaching and learning are discourse driven.

Single words and word combinations stored in our mental lexicons (as opposed to vocabulary perceived as individual words and their fixed meanings), learnt and used as single items in particular situations, help learners perceive patterns of language traditionally associated with grammatical aspects. Indeed, as M. Celce-Murcia/ E. Olshtain (2007: 94) state:

[o]ne way that both children and adults have been observed to acquire a second language naturalistically is through an initial focus on words, formulaic language, routines, and lexicalized chunks, which can later be analyzed into

smaller units so that grammar can evolve (i.e., patterns can be broken down and recombined with other patterns). This is often called ‘holistic learning’. We could also call it a lexical approach to second language acquisition.

At times, though, A. B. M. Tsui (1994) points out, over-reliance on passive communication strategy (the use of formulas or schemata or their over-use – as might be the case with a street performer, for instance) can mislead conversational partners and, eventually, lead the speaker in charge to have to choose from a list of three possible options (the first two being quite risky in their nature with the third not guaranteeing the achievement of the goal): introducing a new topic, passing the turn to the other speaker or terminating the conversation.

Such formulaic multiword (formulas are unanalysable wholes) and, most vital of all, ready-made lexical units are termed: gambits (E. Keller 1979), speech formulae (A. M. Peters 1983), lexical phrases (J. R. Nattinger/ J. S. DeCarrico 1992) or chunks (M. Lewis 1993). J. C. Richards/ M. Sukwiwat (1985), in turn, apply the term conversational routines as far as recurring and predictable utterances associated with particular types of interaction are concerned. They can have a form of situational formulas, idiomatic chunks, stylistic formulas, ceremonial formulas, conversational gambits, fluency chunks, euphemisms and lexical or structural chunks (C. A. Yorio 1980). Their three different functions are limited to communicative, production and learning strategy and, as M. McCarthy (2007: 122) claims: “much native-speaker language is formulaic; it is simply that the native speaker usually has a vastly greater range of formulae to call upon for use in a wider range of strategic domains, along with a flexible and adaptable lexicon of non-formula based items”.

Language, Lexical Approach proponents maintain, is the product of previously met and memorised examples heard in everyday real world circumstances or during teacher-talk – the major source of learner input in class (although, especially in L2 learners' case, retrieval difficulties – known as language attrition, can occur and interfere with the communication process). Of central relevance, here, is also collocation along with such lexical units as, for example: binomials, trinomials, idioms, similes, connectives or conversational gambits.

In terms of lay (i.e. common) and technical (i.e. uncommon) vocabulary, the use of the first prevails significantly over the latter – this is not only the case in spontaneous speech but also education settings (institutional interactions) where teacher’s use, H. Bishop (2008: 37) remarks, of “low-frequency words not understood by students would be counterproductive in class”. Because of that fact, he continues, “sound pedagogy would require that students learn the words. Having to use words is a necessary part of acquiring them. Thus, unfamiliar words would also be likely to appear in a student corpus.”

All in all, M. Lewis (1997) proposes the taxonomy of lexical items which consists of words, polywords, collocations (or word partnerships) or institutionalized utterances and sentence frames and heads while J. R. Nattinger/ J. S. DeCarrico (1992) emphasize four structural subcategories of prefabricated language (i.e. lexical phrases; prefabricated routines are whole utterances learnt as memorised chunks whereas prefabricated patterns have one or more open slots) that include:

- polywords (short phrases that behave like words),
- institutionalised expressions (this category also includes proverbs or phrases of sentence-length functioning as independent utterances),
- phrasal constraints (shorter phrases allowing variation of lexical and phrasal categories), and
- sentence builders (lexical phrases which provide the framework for whole utterances).

M. Stubbs (2008: 310), in addition to that, stresses the importance of lexicosemantic units and supports his notion by saying that:

[n]ative speakers know hundreds of thousands of such units, whose lexical content is wholly or partly fixed: familiar collocations with variants, which are conventional labels for culturally recognized concepts. Speakers have a strong preference for certain familiar combinations of lexis and syntax, which explains why non-native speakers can speak perfectly grammatically but still sound non-native.

In line with these findings, computer-based studies of language or, rather, its lexical repetitions eventually lead to the emergence of huge electronic databases of language corpora (hundreds of millions of collocations of words of both written and spoken texts of corpus linguistics) on words' real-life frequency and distribution. These are displayed (once the number of occurrences is calculated) with the help of a computer software package known as concordance programme. J. Cutting (2008: 57) describes this process in such a way:

[s]o that they can analyse systematically how words are used, researchers annotate corpora, with or without concordance packages. They tag or label words to indicate the lexical features (e.g. common/proper nouns), and the grammatical (e.g. parts of speech, cohesion), phonetic (e.g. stress, intonation); turn-taking (e.g. pauses, overlaps) and paralinguistic (e.g. laughter, coughing) features.

The data gathered are certainly of interest to the writers of dictionaries and grammars, foreign language teachers or language-learning textbook writers (J. Cutting 2008) who have an instant access to the major representation of language variations (spoken versus written, formal versus informal, cognates versus false cognates, British English versus American English and so on and so forth). What is more, “[d]istinguishing lexical phrases as social interactions, necessary topics, and discourse devices seems to us the most effective distinction for pedagogical purposes”, J. R. Nattinger/ J. S. DeCarrico (1992: 185) state, adding immediately, however, that “that is not to say that a more effective way of grouping might not be found necessary in the wake of further research.”

Corpus Linguistics

Indeed, corpus-based linguists, D. Y. W. Lee (2008: 87) notices, “study the same aspects of language as other linguists (grammar, sociolinguistic variation, discourse phenomena, etc.) – we just happen to use banks of computerized text and certain computer techniques.” He (2008) further differentiates between three ways any

corpora be used for the purpose of discourse analysis: mainly qualitative (corpus-informed), both qualitative and quantitative (corpus-supported and corpus-driven) and, finally, mainly quantitative (corpus-induced).

In the view of J. Cutting (2008), the three studies that use corpus linguistics to examine the domains of discourse are: service encounters, media and the courtroom. Strictly linked to the computer-based language acquisition phenomenon is also data-driven (resource-assisted) learning where language- and web literacy (the use of the Internet) come together in the process of corpora application (both pedagogic corpora and lexical syllabus) to language teaching (S. Hunston 2002). With regard to the application of corpus analyses findings to L2 teaching, E. Hinkel (2006: 112), notices that it is the subject of some controversy for the simple reason that

[s]ome language corpora are specifically created and analyzed with the intent to benefit L2 instruction and improve the efficiency of learning (...) [whereas] [o]ther analyses of English language corpora are primarily focused on the empirical study of language to obtain detailed descriptions of its properties that can be applied to the refinement of language theories.

The top-three UK-based most important sources of information about collocations as well as other word combinations are the COBUILD Bank of English Corpus, the Cambridge International Corpus and the British National Corpus.

In the English language, three productive word formation processes can be distinguished and these are: compounding when two nouns come together to form one, affixation or the addition of prefixes or suffixes to a stem or conversion – typically the conversion of a noun or an adjective into a verb without the addition of other elements. Said that, one needs to be aware of what M. Celce-Murcia/ E. Olshtain (2007: 82) report – namely that vocabulary is prone to changes faster than either syntax or phonology for it responds to environment-, experience- or culture-based changes:

[w]ords are slippery: they are created, they die off, they are borrowed, they change meaning. Words constantly need to be interpreted and reinterpreted in terms of the cultural contexts and discourse contexts in which they are being used at any given point in time. For language learners, vocabulary is also less stable than grammatical or phonological systems. If grammatical or phonological systems have been reasonably well acquired, they can be retained over long periods of time and can be revived and fairly easily reactivated if they have fallen into disuse. Each word, however, once learned, then has the potential to be misused or even forgotten unless it is used and re-used on a regular basis.

In my analysis, I have probed into the changes and innovations in the development of different language teaching ideologies. Some techniques, approaches, methods or materials might be perceived, at least by some teachers, adequate in their language classroom while by others – not necessarily. Therefore, those dissatisfied, might, at times, refer to not just one but a variety of approaches that permit to extend their repertoire (eclecticism); D. Larsen-Freeman (2000: 183), consequently, introduces the term principled eclecticism for those teachers who are

particularly interested in creating their own teaching methods “by blending aspects of others in a principled manner.”

To conclude, I may repeat after A. P. R. Howatt (1984: 279) that some of those methods and approaches could be described as “learning to use English” while others “using English to learn it.” Whatever the purpose, though, and whether the movement described is a method or an approach – they are both experience- and context-bound, the significance of which is recognized by G. Brown/ G. Yule (2007: 63):

[o]ur experience of particular communicative situations teaches us what to expect of that situation, both in a general predictive sense (e.g. the sort of attitudes which are likely to be expressed, the sort of topics which are likely to be raised) which gives rise to notions of ‘appropriacy’, and in a limited predictive sense which enables us to interpret linguistic tokens (e.g. deictic forms like here and now) in the way we have interpreted them before in similar contexts. We must assume that the young child’s acquisition of language comes about in the context of expanding experience, of expanding possible interpretations of forms like here and now in different contexts of situation, contexts which come to be recognised, and stored as types.

But why do G. Brown/ G. Yule (2007) pay special attention to children’s language acquisition? – such a question might be posed. The answer to that is certainly included in M. Coulthard’s (1985: 178) standpoint who claims that “as we learn more about children’s acquisition of conversational competence in their first language we will gain further insight into the learning and teaching of second and foreign languages.”

It would be worth noting at this stage that some comprehension-oriented approaches, especially in the 1980s, promote delayed mutual and verbal interaction – these, however, do not tend to recognize the significance of neurolinguistic, psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic aspects of first language acquisition that make child a completely different learner (J. Majer 2003). And as per context, it is M. Celce-Murcia (1980) who renews interest in it in the field of applied linguistics calling this particular kind of discourse analysis contextual analysis.

More than two decades later, M. Celce-Murcia/ E. Olshtain (2007) make another valuable contribution by differentiating between contextualised (used outside school) and decontextualised (used in school) language, further looking at this dichotomy (as far as language education and discourse are concerned) in terms of focused and non-focused interaction (also called, as they put it, involvement versus detachment).

3. Research methodology

This work is, in its methodological plane, part of foreign language teaching empirical paradigm. As a result, it is based on an appropriate for post-positivist, possibly precisely defined, research schema (K. Konarzewski 2000) as well as empirical model and field hypotheses resulting from previously formulated research questions.

3.1. Research questions, hypotheses and variables

Research questions

The most fundamental research question is related to the effectiveness of the Communicative Approach in contrast with the Grammar-Translation Method, which is posed in the following manner:

Q1. If and to what degree, the use of the Communicative Approach in English as a foreign language teaching resulted in higher achievements of the students?

Due to the comparative character of the study, this question could be presented more precisely in the form of two further questions:

Q1a. Did the students who were taught according to the Communicative Approach principles achieve higher results as far as the competences taught were taken into consideration than those students who were taught according to the Grammar-Translation Method principles?

Q1b. Were possible differences which appeared between the students taught according to the Communicative Approach and the Grammar-Translation Method of the same character as far as particular competences analysed were considered: speaking, reading, writing and listening?

Q2. Did the proficiency level in the area of linguistic competence modify the effectiveness of the Communicative Approach and the Grammar-Translation Method?

Formulating the last question in a comparative manner, it also ought to be asked:

Q2a. Whether students of low, average and high linguistic competence level made use of Communicative Approach to the same degree?

Hypotheses

In the theoretical part of the ongoing study, the evolution of the major approaches and methods for teaching modern foreign language on the example of the English language was presented in a chronological order. Two of them were paid much more attention to: that is the Grammar-Translation Method and the Communicative Approach.

The assumptions of the Grammar-Translation Method are completely different in comparison with the Communicative Approach, as is the time in which they appeared. The Grammar-Translation Method is comparatively old compared with the Communicative Approach or any other methods and approaches analysed in this work. Nevertheless, foreign language teachers still refer to it, and this takes place despite the fact that the Council of Europe has clearly supported the the CA by putting strong emphasis on communicative competence propagation (the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages guideline).

Bearing these points in mind, the most fundamental hypothesis could be:

H1. The Communicative Approach was an effective means of the development of the students' achievements. Its effectiveness, however, was determined, to a large degree, by the initial level of competences taught, and the sphere of skills developed.

The hypothesis, formulated in this way, was based on the belief that the Communicative Approach was not a panacea for all maladies of linguistic education, effective in case of every single pupil or student. In actual fact, following the principles formulated by R. Snow/ L. Cronbach (their aptitude-treatment interaction theory), I assumed that the CA was effective in teaching effects individualization, and its complexity made it work especially well with the students of high linguistic competence (particularly in the area of speaking). Hence, I defined further hypotheses in this manner:

H1.1. The Communicative Approach was more effective than the Grammar-Translation Method only in the case of students of high level of linguistic and communicative competence. In the case of intermediate and elementary group, the Grammar-Translation Method was expected to be more effective.

H1.2. The effectiveness of the CA was most strongly seen in the case of competence improvement in the field of speaking.

The next hypothesis concentrated on the longitudinal research layer, and assumed different long-term effectiveness of the two methods examined or, rather, their different education value added (R. Dolata 2008):

H2. The education value added of the Communicative Approach was higher than in the case of the Grammar-Translation Method but the scale of education value added was the highest in the case of the most advanced group, and the lowest in the case of low linguistic competence group.

Education value added (EVA) is a concept which has its roots in economics, and, nowadays, is also connected with students' achievement evaluation. It counterbalances the traditional arithmetic mean, which, as R. Dolata (2007: 5) writes, for the first time, probably “appeared in the mid 70s as a critical continuation of the idea of school accountability.” It means “an increase of the value of goods as a result of the manufacturing process” (Z. Lisiecka 2006: 3). In the educational environment, therefore, education value added will be a tool of education policy (R. Dolata 2007)

indicating students' gain in knowledge resulting from a particular educational process, as a consequence of which it will "measure students' progress made in a specified research period" (Z. Lisiecka 2006: 3). It provides information about the effectiveness of any educational process "to a large extent freed from the influence of factors being beyond the school control" (R. Dolata 2006: 10). Education contents may have "common features determined by a training program and individual characteristics, personality derivatives, experience, personal knowledge and original cognitive patterns created by the student" (Niemierko 2006: 20).

Education value added, according to A. Bartmańska (2006: 6), on a national scale, is the difference between the last two values of a given student obtained by calculating arithmetic mean points for exams at a lower (and then also higher) stage of education, and the value of median point – the so-called "middle result". It is worth noting that the value of the median point is a combination of examinations' results taken at both lower and higher education stages.

Education value added can take two forms: positive and negative, that is, it is positive if the student's progress remains in the upper half of the group of other students (peers) who have achieved similar results in the exam on the lower stage of education. Similarly, we talk about negative value added when the student's progress remains within the lower half of the group of other students (peers) who have achieved similar results in the exam on the lower stage of education. Education value added can be calculated not only from the point of view of the individual student's (or teacher's) progress but also in the case of a whole class or school – as far as the latter is concerned, it constitutes the sum of value added of all these students divided by their number.

Education value added rates, calculated according to the so-called residual rate, may have a dual nature and be either relative or absolute. The first assumes that "the lower level test result is a general measure of educational potential" while the latter – "that the measure of performance at various stages of education is carried out using the same measurement scales" (R. Dolata 2006: 10). This is the first – simple understanding of EVA. Extensive understanding of education value added, in turn, R. Dolata (2007: 5) writes "is not satisfied with the control of initial achievements and goes back to the concept of using the resources available to the school". These resources can be either given (such as individual students', group or institutional resources) or developed, which, in turn, constitutes the entirety of educational and teaching practices of any given school.

My hypothesis, thus, came from the belief that at least in some areas (speaking and listening), the use of the Communicative Approach would result in better effects than the application of the Grammar-Translation Method. Hence, the education value added measurement and standardised growth, pointing out the quality of education, should be higher in the case of the Communicative Approach.

At the same time, both "traditional" language teaching and conservatism of solutions to date in Polish education as well as relative difficulty of the Communicative Approach made one feel that this effectiveness would be higher in the case of those students who have already mastered basic competences.

If language learning stood for building up on elementary competences foundations, then, it should be said that the Communicative Approach required those competences in particular; to a lesser degree, it was able to build them up – particularly in the case of low language awareness students. Therefore, one awaited such an effect which in the language of statistics could be defined by means of interaction. The CA would be particularly effective where solid foundations already existed and less effective in the case of less competent students, that is those with no elementary linguistic and communicative competence in the English language.

Research schema and variables

As it has already been mentioned, the research in question was based on a heterogeneous research schema drawing on the comparative, cross-sectional, longitudinal and quasi-experimental approach. In general, the schema can be presented as shown on figure 1.

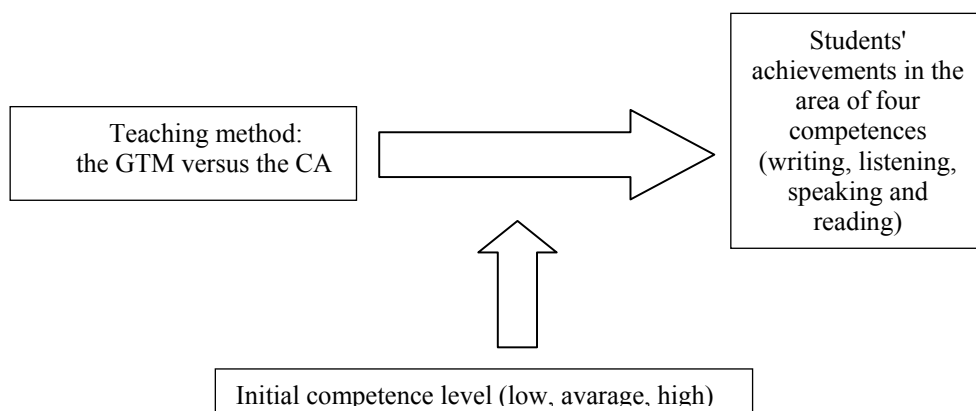


Figure 1: Research schema

The schema helped initially define the character of the variables analysed. Although the division into dependent and independent variables was symbolic in the comparative research (K. Konarzewski 2000), one could assume that in this case the status: a) of independent variable stood for the method applied (traditional versus innovative), b) of dependent variables stood for the students' achievements in the area of writing, reading, speaking and listening, c) of intermediary variables (moderators) was of initial level of the students' competence (low, average, high).

Such a division might give rise to doubts. Firstly, because the key research variable, that is the teaching method, was of dichotomous character (traditional versus innovative) and was not subject to any experimental manipulation but, rather, was the result of appropriate research group selection. Dependent variables would be measured both as results in standardized tests as well as residual in accordance to education value added procedure (R. Dolata 2008).

Tools and measurement level

Independent variable, that is the kind of the method applied, for obvious reasons, was

measured on a nominal, binary scale (Bernoulli: the Grammar-Translation Method versus the Communicative Approach). The level of students' prior achievements pointing out their competence proficiency level was measured on an ordinal scale by assigning students to a particular group. One dealt here with the order “low – average – high proficiency level”. Dependent variable, that is academic achievements and their development effectiveness, was measured according to an intervallic scale expressed in the results of standardised tests in the four areas (speaking, reading, listening and writing).

In addition to that, achievement progress and, thus, education value added measurement was operationalised in the form of variable measured on a ratio scale, and was the result of determining standardised regression residual (according to the education value added procedure). The achievement tests applied were adjusted to the three levels of students' proficiency and were not compared among proficiency levels.

Participants – characteristics and sample selection

Slightly more than 2 thousand students from one of the biggest Polish private universities² (N=2004) taught by 6 EFL teachers (3 of them were teaching according to the Grammar-Translation Method principles and the other half according to the Communicative Approach rules) were involved.

All the EFL teachers (2 females and 4 males), whose students participated in my measurements, were asked to complete a questionnaire. After their analysis, it turned out that all of them held a master's degree in English Philology and their work experience varied from 12 to 20 years (in the case of the Communicative Approach) and from 3 to 10 years (in the case of the Grammar-Translation Method).

All the teachers using the Communicative Approach started to learn the English language yet in primary school. Two of the teachers who used the Grammar-Translation Method commenced to learn English in lower secondary school and one in primary school.

Classifying their level of the English language according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (as defined by the Council of Europe), all the EFL teachers applying the assumptions of the Communicative Approach said that it was equivalent to C2 – similar answer was chosen by one EFL teacher using the Grammar-Translation Method. The other two chose a lower level – C1.

As for the answers concerning the most often developed language skill during their classes, two EFL teachers working according to the Communicative Approach said that these are all the four skills to the very same extent (speaking, reading, listening and writing) while the third one chose reading only. In the case of EFL teachers using the Grammar-Translation Method, these were: reading, reading and writing, and writing, respectively.

The next question was about the amount of time during which either the teacher or the student talked during the lesson. It could be expected that this proportion

² No consent has been given to use the university's name.

would be more favourable to the student in the case of the Communicative Approach, and the teacher – in the case of the Grammar-Translation Method. The results, however, showed that as far as the first method was taken into consideration – two EFL teachers chose the option: 50:50 and one that it was the teacher who talked more. As for the latter – the teacher was chosen twice and once– the option 50:50.

Strictly connected with the previous question was the one asking to name the most typical situations during which the student talked. The EFL teachers working according to the CA listed the following examples: homework, dialogues, text discussion, lead-in, when new vocabulary was introduced and questions asked about its usage, during reading, during homework reading, during the lesson while checking exercises and during pronunciation-based tasks. The EFL teachers applying the GTM, in turn, reported these to be: final revision, group work, during reporting a previously prepared issue, exercises, homework, pair work, comprehension checking, recapitulation and team work.

With the next question being similarly formulated but, this time, concerning just the teacher, the following answers were given by the EFL teachers applying the CA: new material explanation, homework explanation, instructions explanation, issues explanation, model reading, post-task feedback, grammar explanation and new vocabulary. As for the questionnaires filled in by the EFL teachers working according to the GTM assumptions, these included: new material discussion, after test feedback, during revision, while actually running the lesson, student's testing (questioning), homework discussion, doing the register, new material explanation and homework correction.

Two EFL teachers applying the CA addressed their students more often in the English language and one – more or less as often in Polish as in English. Two EFL teachers using the GTM, which is not surprising, chose the option: in the Polish language and one – more or less as often in Polish as in English.

The next question concerned homework (that is how often the students were asked to do it). In the case of the classes run according to the CA, two EFL teachers chose the option: always and one – every second class. Two EFL teachers using the GTM chose the option: often and one – seldom.

The EFL teachers applying the CA, in two cases, indicated pair work as the most frequently used type of work in class and one chose: small groups – pairs and big groups – whole group. As for the GTM, pair work was mentioned by one EFL teacher and the other two indicated: individual work.

The last question related to extra curricular activities that could help learn English. All EFL teachers who were working according to the CA mentioned film watching and one – also added book reading. In the case of the EFL teachers who were using the GTM, two marked book reading and one – listening to music.

Coming back to my research, it needs to be said that the students' selection was made on a random basis. Firstly, the groups taught by EFL teachers according to the Grammar-Translation Method principles were chosen at random and, then – those taught by those EFL teachers who ran their classes in accordance with the Communicative Approach rules (out of all the groups taught). Taking into account the aim of the representative group selection, the results of every fifth student from the list were analysed (the list was in the alphabetical order). The teaching results obtained for both groups (that is the one taught according to the Grammar-

Translation Method principles and according to the Communicative Approach rules), were worked out with a division into four basic linguistic competences. The sample detailed characteristic is included in table 4.

	The Communicative Approach	The Grammar-Translation Method	Total
Low initial competence level	n=334 people	n=334 people	n=668 people
Average initial competence level	n=334 people	n=334 people	n=668 people
High initial competence level	n=334 people	n=334 people	n=668 people
Total	n=1002 people	n=1002 people	N=2004 people

Table 4: The sample detailed characteristic

Means of data analysis

The kind of research and the character of variables caused that the most adequate analytical model was the schema of variable analysis with repeated measurements in multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The results in the area of speaking, reading, writing and listening stood for dependent variables whereas factors – for the kind of method applied and initial competence level. Because the comparison of the results among proficiency levels was small, one-way models of variance analysis and average comparisons with the application of t-Student test were also used.

The measurement of effectiveness analysed in accordance with the model of education value added was determined through regression analysis (separately for each one of the four areas of the two types of methods and three proficiency levels) by determining standardised residual in linear regression analysis. These measures were characterised by total comparison among the groups and assured the possibility of claim in favour of the effectiveness of the Communicative Approach (in each group). Descriptive and introductory statistics and changes in the level of competences examined

3.2. Descriptive and introductory statistics

Of the total number of 2004 students, the same number of students (exactly a third) was assigned to each of the three levels of instruction: basic, intermediate and advanced (table 5).

Level of instruction	Number	Per cent	Accumulated per cent
Basic	668	33,3	33,3
Intermediate	668	33,3	66,7
Advanced	668	33,3	100
Total	2004	100	

Table 5: Sample sizes depending on the level of advancement

Table 6, in turn, shows the breakdown of the students participating in the study, depending on the method of teaching the English language.

Method of teaching	Number	Per cent
Grammar-Translation	1002	50
Communicative Approach	1002	50
Total	2004	100

Table 6: Sample sizes depending on the method

Exactly 334 persons were assigned to each subgroup. And each subgroup was consequently singled out on the basis of the level of preparation and the method of teaching selected. This, in turn, resulted in an ideally quasi-experimental research situation.

Method	Traditional	Innovative	Total
Basic	334	334	668
Intermediate	334	334	668
Advanced	334	334	668
Total	1002	1002	2004

Table 7: The sample of students participating in the study, depending on the level of instruction and method selected

Table 8 presents descriptive statistics of the results obtained for all the subjects. As one can see in column N, in some cases, it was impossible to avoid some missing data. The results were converted to the scale of 100 average and standard deviation equal to 15 – “IQ scale” (in similar units intelligence quotient is expressed). The results were standardized to this scale in the first measurement for each of the four skills individually and any differences in the second measurement showed how the results of the next measurement increased or decreased compared to the first measurement. The analysis of all the subjects without any breakdown concerning the method used and the output level of competence showed that the results increased slightly (T1 – first measurement, T2 – second measurement).

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	Standard deviation
Speaking T1	1923	72,70	122,16	100,00	15,00
Speaking T2	1896	72,70	122,16	101,51	14,78
WritingT1	1932	73,30	121,41	100,00	15,00
WritingT2	1893	73,28	121,43	101,63	14,42
Reading T1	1928	72,56	122,14	100,00	15,00
Reading T2	1902	72,56	122,13	100,93	14,89
Listening T1	1917	71,79	121,96	100,00	15,00
Listening T2	1893	71,80	121,94	100,89	14,72

Table 8: Descriptive statistics for the sample

The changes observed (although in each case positive) were very small, and in most cases amounted to 1-2 points. This means an increase of no more than 0.10 standard deviation, which, to put it in the language of effect force, is just a very small change (even if statistically significant) (Cohen 1988). Of course, the conclusion that the students only marginally improved their competence in the English language, as much as it suggests itself, would be premature. It should be remembered that although standardized tests of language achievements were used, their comparability is always a question mark. Until the moment when the results were not scaled and presented in one common scale (optimally θ skills units, obtained in the probabilistic theory of the task – IRT), any comparison ought to be drawn in a prudent manner.

The next step of the analyses was to check – still at the level of the whole sample examined – the correlation between the results obtained in particular areas examined in both the first and the second measurement. The occurrence of statistically significant, but not too strong, associations was expected. The expected moderate or even weak relationships were grounded in the belief that if teaching was undertaken in an efficient manner, the relationship between the first and the second measurement might be subject to weakening. The correlations were important indeed, but very weak. In other words, the study included those individuals who did very well in the first measurement, but poorly in the second, and vice versa.

In the case of speaking, the correlation between the tests was statistically significant but very weak ($r = 0.05$, $p = 0.05$). As per writing, it was a little stronger ($r = 0.09$, $p = 0.001$), as it was in reading ($r = 0.10$, $p = 0.0001$) and listening ($r = 0.12$, $p = 0.0001$).

The highest increase in the average of the results was achieved by the intermediate group in the area of writing (5.85), reading (3.38), speaking (2.43) and, insignificant, in the field of listening (0.93). In the advanced group, the average of the results occurred in speaking (2.07), listening (1.31) and reading (1.29). The lowest increase of the average of the results of only 0.37 took place in the basic group in the area of listening while the other areas received lower average in comparison to the output one of 1.97 in the case of reading, 0.56 in writing. Speaking remained practically unchanged.

The results for the basic level, irrespective of the area analysed (speaking, writing, reading, listening), remained in the range from 72 to 122 points.

Group	Area	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	Standard deviation
basic	Speaking T1	642	72,70	122,16	101,00	15,22
	Speaking T2	626	72,70	122,16	100,92	14,75
	Writing T1	635	73,30	121,41	101,40	14,99
	Writing T2	625	73,28	121,43	100,84	14,50
	Reading T1	640	72,56	122,14	102,26	15,11
	Reading T2	626	72,56	122,13	100,29	14,77

	Listening T1	628	71,79	121,96	100,84	15,33
	Listening T2	627	71,80	121,94	101,21	14,62
	Speaking T1	644	72,70	122,16	96,95	14,92
	Speaking T2	628	72,70	122,16	99,38	15,51
	WritingT1	652	73,30	121,41	96,73	14,82
	Writing T2	632	73,28	121,43	102,58	14,36
intermediate	Reading T1	648	72,56	122,14	95,89	14,50
	Reading T2	635	72,56	122,13	99,27	15,08
	Listening T1	646	71,79	121,96	98,00	14,99
	Listening T2	627	71,80	121,94	98,93	15,08
	Speaking T1	637	72,70	122,16	102,08	14,37
	Speaking T2	642	72,70	122,16	104,15	13,66
	Writing T1	645	73,30	121,41	101,92	14,67
	Writing T2	636	73,28	121,43	101,46	14,38
advanced	Reading T1	640	72,56	122,14	101,91	14,54
	Reading T2	641	72,56	122,13	103,20	14,56
	Listening T1	643	71,79	121,96	101,19	14,50
	Listening T2	639	71,80	121,94	102,51	14,25

Table 9: Descriptive statistics for the advancement levels with the areas breakdown

The groups solved different tests so it was impossible to compare them directly with each other. From the fact that in the basic and the advanced group the average was equal to 100, it was not clear whether the students had the very same knowledge. It was clear, however, that the results were standardized for each group separately. The correlations within the area for a given advancement level showed just a slight correlation between the results obtained in the first and the second test. In the case of writing, reading and listening in the basic group, there was a correlation of 0.2.

In the case of intermediate level, the correlations were practically non-existent, that is the level of the students' knowledge who participated in the tests changed the most.

As for the advanced level, only the listening test was characterised by a significant correlation. The last of the introductory analyses was to check the correlations between the areas of the first and (separately) the second measurement

with a division into groups. Here, the correlations were statistically significant, but not too strong (and often weak). On the one hand, it showed well the independence of the areas, on the other hand, though, it was surprising that there was no strict relationship between the results of a given student in the test different areas.

In the basic group, in the case of speaking, the correlation between the first and the second measurement was not statistically significant. In writing, this correlation was 0.2 and was statistically significant. As for the listening and reading results, the correlation was significant and its level equalled to 0.18-0.19. Table 10 illustrates this fact.

A statistically significant correlation was observed in listening, reading and writing, being at between 0.18 - 0.2.

		T2
Speaking T1	Pearson's correlation	0,07
	Significance (two-sided)	0,09
	N	604
Writing T1	Pearson's correlation	0,2
	Significance (two-sided)	0,0001
	N	593
Reading T1	Pearson's correlation	0,19
	Significance (two-sided)	0,0001
	N	601
Listening T1	Pearson's correlation	0,18
	Significance (two-sided)	0,0001
	N	592

Table 10: The correlations between the results of the test in a given area for the basic group

The comparison of the results of both tests in the intermediate group produced some interesting outcomes (table 11 presents them all). That is regardless of the area in which the test was conducted, there was no relation between the results in both tests. In all the areas, a statistically insignificant correlation occurred at the level of - 0.05 - 0.02. The explanation for this fact may be twofold: a) very rapid progress in learning of the weakest members of the group, and getting closer to the average of those who were the best or b) possible deficiencies in the design of the tests themselves, in particular as far as their relevancy was concerned.

		T2
Speaking T1	Pearson's correlation	0,01
	Significance (two-sided)	0,84
	N	605
Writing T1	Pearson's correlation	0,02
	Significance (two-sided)	0,62
	N	618
Reading T1	Pearson's correlation	-0,05
	Significance (two-sided)	0,23
	N	616
Listening T1	Pearson's correlation	0,02
	Significance (two-sided)	0,69
	N	607

Table 11: The correlations between the results of the test in a given area for the intermediate group

When it comes to the advanced group, in the area of speaking and writing the correlation was not statistically significant. In the area of speaking, there was no significant relationship in any of the three levels of advancement between the results of the first and the second test. This means that the students' progress in this area was most subject to change. In the case of reading and listening, the relationships were statistically significant, and the correlation in both cases was close to 0.15. These results are shown in table 12.

		T2
Speaking T1	Pearson's correlation	0,01
	Significance (two-sided)	0,77
	N	612
Writing T1	Pearson's correlation	0,06
	Significance (two-sided)	0,14
	N	615
Reading T1	Pearson's correlation	0,12
	Significance (two-sided)	0,0001
	N	613
Listening T1	Pearson's correlation	0,15
	Significance (two-sided)	0,0001
	N	616

Table 12: The correlations between the results of the test in a given area for the advanced group

The analysis presented in table 10 shows that in the case of the first test, there was a correlation between the results in each of the segments and that there were especially significant correlations in the basic group (they were at about 0.2). This was not a strong correlation; it showed, however, the relationship between the results in different parts of the test. It also showed that some subjects were characterised in that segment by higher than average skills, while in others – weaker results.

In the case of the intermediate group, there was, practically, no correlation at all between the results in the segments. This situation (in the case of the intermediate group) regarding the absence of autocorrelation was analogous to the results of the first and the second test within the area (as presented in table 11). In the case of the advanced group, the correlation, however, occurred and it was below 0.2.

Group			iq_speak 1	iq_writ 1	iq_read 1	iq_lis t1
Basic	iq_speak1	Pearson's correlation	1,00	0,22	0,23	0,17
		Significance (two-sided)		0,00	0,00	0,00
		N	642,00	622,00	620,00	610,00
	iq_writ1	Pearson's correlation	0,22	1,00	0,17	0,21
		Significance (two-sided)	0,00		0,00	0,00
		N	622,00	635,00	614,00	602,00
	iq_read1	Pearson's correlation	0,23	0,17	1,00	0,21
		Significance (two-sided)	0,00	0,00		0,00
		N	620,00	614,00	640,00	609,00
	iq_list1	Pearson's correlation	0,17	0,21	0,21	1,00
		Significance (two-sided)	0,00	0,00	0,00	,
		N	610,00	602,00	609,00	628,00
Intermediate	iq_speak1	Pearson's correlation	1,00	0,13	0,18	0,07
		Significance (two-sided)		0,00	0,00	0,10
	N	644,00	634,00	631,00	630,00	
	iq_writ1	Pearson's correlation	0,13	1,00	0,13	0,12
		Significance (two-sided)	0,00		0,00	0,00
N	634,00	652,00	639,00	635,00		

Advanced	iq_read1	Pearson's correlation	0,18	0,13	1,00	0,10
		Significance (two-sided)	0,00	0,00		0,02
		N	631,00	639,00	648,00	632,00
	iq_list1	Pearson's correlation	0,07	0,12	0,10	1,00
		Significance (two-sided)	0,10	0,00	0,02	
		N	630,00	635,00	632,00	646,00
	iq_speak1	Pearson's correlation	1,00	0,15	0,19	0,16
		Significance (two-sided)		0,00	0,00	0,00
		N	637,00	620,00	613,00	618,00
	iq_writ1	Pearson's correlation	0,15	1,00	0,14	0,20
		Significance (two-sided)	0,00		0,00	0,00
		N	620,00	645,00	623,00	626,00
	iq_read1	Pearson's correlation	0,19	0,14	1,00	0,22
		Significance (two-sided)	0,00	0,00		0,00
		N	613,00	623,00	640,00	622,00
	iq_list1	Pearson's correlation	0,16	0,20	0,22	1,00
		Significance (two-sided)	0,00	0,00	0,00	
		N	618,00	626,00	622,00	643,00

Table 13: The correlations between the results in particular areas in the first test

The analysis of the correlation relationships singled out separately for each of the groups as per the level of competence showed that the areas examined (in accordance with the assumptions) were of significant independence. Although in each case the correlations were statistically significant, they usually oscillated around $r = 0.20$, which indicated a rather weak link.

A similar analysis for the second measurement, which produced very similar results, was concluded in table 14.

Group			iq_speak2	iq_writ2	iq_read2	Iq_list2
Basic	iq_speak2	Pearson's correlation	1,00	0,20	0,20	0,20
		Significance (two-sided)		0,00	0,00	0,00
		N	626,00	594,00	596,00	599,00
	iq_writ2	Pearson's correlation	0,20	1,00	0,28	0,13
		Significance (two-sided)	0,00		0,00	0,00
		N	594,00	625,00	593,00	597,00
	iq_read2	Pearson's correlation	0,20	0,28	1,00	0,18
		Significance (two-sided)	0,00	0,00		0,00
		N	596,00	593,00	626,00	601,00
	iq_list2	Pearson's correlation	0,20	0,13	0,18	1,00
		Significance (two-sided)	0,00	0,00	0,00	
		N	599,00	597,00	601,00	627,00
Intermediate	iq_speak2	Pearson's correlation	1,00	0,15	0,22	0,17
		Significance (two-sided)		0,00	0,00	0,00
		N	628,00	606,00	605,00	598,00
	iq_writ2	Pearson's correlation	0,15	1,00	0,18	0,13
		Significance (two-sided)	0,00		0,00	0,00
		N	606,00	632,00	610,00	606,00
	iq_read2	Pearson's correlation	0,22	0,18	1,00	0,14
		Significance (two-sided)	0,00	0,00		0,00
		N	605,00	610,00	635,00	608,00
	iq_list2	Pearson's correlation	0,17	0,13	0,14	1,00
		Significance (two-sided)	0,00	0,00	0,00	
		N	598,00	606,00	608,00	627,00
Advanced	iq_speak2	Pearson's correlation	1,00	0,12	0,11	0,18
		Significance (two-sided)		0,00	0,01	0,00
		N	642,00	619,00	623,00	622,00
iq_writ2	Pearson's correlation	0,12	1,00	0,16	0,15	
	Significance	0,00		0,00	0,00	

	(two-sided)				
	N	619,00	636,00	619,00	616,00
iq_ read2	Pearson's correlation	0,11	0,16	1,00	0,27
	Significance (two-sided)	0,01	0,00		0,00
	N	623,00	619,00	641,00	623,00
iq_ list2	Pearson's correlation	0,18	0,15	0,27	1,00
	Significance (two-sided)	0,00	0,00	0,00	
	N	622,00	616,00	623,00	639,00

Table 14: The correlations between the results in particular areas in the second test

The data presented above led to the conclusion that by using a single, global test result in the first and the second measurement, we would risk its low reliability and validity. In fact, we can see below the reliability of the tests in each group in the first and the second measurement.

The obtained values of Cronbach's alpha were low but we should also keep it in mind that alpha implied the lower limit of reliability and actual accuracy of the test might (although it did not have to) be higher. The highest reliability of the first measurement was observed in the basic group and the lowest in the intermediate group, which was reflected in correlation coefficients between the tests. At the same time, it should be noted that much greater differences were evident in the first measurement between the groups.

The values of Cronbach's alpha presented in table 15 were, of course, unacceptable from the psychometric point of view. Nevertheless, they also presented important information, namely that low intercorrelations between the scales did not allow for the analysis of a joint result but, rather, pointed to the need to analyse the changes and the results separately in each of the areas of competence.

Group	Cronbach's alpha	Number of positions
Basic	0,484	4
Intermediate	0,326	4
Advanced	0,459	4

Table 15: Cronbach's alpha for the first test

The reliability of the second test was higher compared to the first test of the intermediate group. However, it was lower than in the first test primarily for the advanced group (30) and then the basic group (6). But the system, which was marked by the highest reliability first for the basic group test and then the advanced group and the lowest for the intermediate group, remained unchanged. Also in this case, the application of just one indicator of competence and achievement seemed to be risky.

Group	Cronbach's alpha	Number of positions
Basic	0,478	4
Intermediate	0,405	4
Advanced	0,429	4

Table 16: Cronbach's alpha for the second test

3.3. Changes in the level of competences examined

The analyses presented above were introductory and aimed at introducing the key comparisons of the students' competencies (taught both according to the Grammar-Translation Method and the Communicative Approach). Before proceeding to answer the research questions, I had to check whether (and also to what extent) the differences in performance between the two moments of the measurement were observed, that is how the students' achievements changed during one term. The results of the average comparisons are included in Table 17.

In the second measurement, in most cases, the average score achieved was better than in the first measurement. Significant differences between measurements occurred in the basic group in terms of reading literacy. As for the intermediate group, there were significant differences in terms of speaking, writing and reading. In the advanced group significant changes (in plus) occurred in speaking only.

Group		Average	N	Standard deviation	Test and differences significance	
B a s i c	Pair 1	Speaking T1	100,95	604,00	15,28	$t(603)=0,07; p=0,94$
		Speaking T2	100,89	604,00	14,73	
	Pair 2	Writing T1	100,97	593,00	15,08	$t(592)=0,27; p=0,78$
		Writing T2	100,75	593,00	14,49	
	Pair 3	Reading T1	102,00	601,00	15,15	$t(600)=2,27; p=0,02$
		Reading T2	100,23	601,00	14,76	
	Pair 4	Listening T1	100,56	592,00	15,32	$T(591)= -0,82; p=0,40$
		Listening T2	101,22	592,00	14,72	
I n t e r m e d i a t e	Pair 1	Speaking T1	96,94	605,00	14,94	$T(604)= -3,00; p=0,00$
		Speaking T2	99,55	605,00	15,45	
	Pair 2	Writing T1	96,66	618,00	14,84	$T(617)= -6,97; p=0$
		Writing T2	102,41	618,00	14,41	
	Pair 3	Reading T1	95,68	616,00	14,55	$T(615)= -3,96; p=0$
		Reading T2	99,11	616,00	15,08	
	Pair 4	Listening T1	98,00	607,00	14,98	$T(606)= -1,16; p=0,24$

d						
i						
a		Listening T2	99,00	607,00	15,08	
t						
e						
A	Pair 1	Speaking T1	102,01	612,00	14,31	$T(611) = -2,75; p = 0,00$
d		Speaking T2	104,20	612,00	13,72	
v	Pair 2	Writing T1	101,73	615,00	14,71	$T(614) = 0,20; p = 0,84$
a		Writing T2	101,57	615,00	14,39	
n	Pair 3	Reading T1	101,92	613,00	14,59	$T(612) = -1,76; p = 0,07$
c		Reading T2	103,30	613,00	14,58	
e	Pair 4					
d		Listening T1	101,33	616,00	14,44	$T(615) = -1,70; p = 0,08$

Table 17: The comparison of the test results in both measurements for all the areas

Hence, in the case of the basic group, significant differences between the averages from the first and the second measurement took place in the case of reading and in other areas there were no statistically significant differences between the measurements. In the intermediate group, progress was bigger and more significant, and only in listening there were no statistically significant differences. The highest differences though between the measurements were recorded in the case of writing and, then, also reading and speaking. Finally, in the advanced group, the only area where there was no statistically significant progress was reading.

Before I answer the most important question – the one about the effectiveness of the methods, one has to look at some more basic things first. Let us remember that even in the first measurement, the students learnt English with the help of the index methods. Table 17 shows us the averages, number and standard deviation in the first measurement among those students who were taught with the help of the two methods, depending on their level of advancement.

In the first measurement which is after a year of language learning, in the case of the basic group the average for learners taught according to the Grammar-Translation Method was much higher as that was by some 10 points. This represented about two thirds of the standard deviation, and, thus, gave us a moderately strong difference effect of $d = 0.66$ than in the case of those learners who learnt according to the Communicative Approach. Another important aspect was that in the case of the Grammar-Translation Method, we were dealing with a much lower diversity of the results (standard deviation) than in the case of the group taught by the Communicative Approach. This may mean that the Grammar-Translation Method was not only more efficient but also resulted in more similar students' achievements.

As per the intermediate level students, again, the Grammar-Translation Method was more efficient but its advantage over the Communicative Approach was much smaller than in the basic group.

Finally, in the advanced group, the Communicative Approach was much more efficient, that is the groups which learnt in this way were characterised by the higher average levels of achievement and a lower diversity of the results.

In fact, the results obtained suggested a different effectiveness of the methods applied depending on the level of the students' competence, and, thus, indicated that perhaps the most effective strategy is to start learning a foreign language according

to the Grammar-Translation Method and after acquiring it at an appropriate level to consider switching to a bigger extent to the Communicative Approach because it then produces better results.

Group	Method		Speaking T1	Writing T1	Reading T1	Listening T1
Basic	Gram-Transl.	Average	105,81	107,52	108,38	106,42
		N	319,00	311,00	315,00	310,00
		Standard deviation	13,22	11,82	12,38	13,05
	Communicative	Average	96,24	95,53	96,32	95,41
		N	323,00	324,00	325,00	318,00
		Standard deviation	15,58	15,37	15,17	15,45
	Total	Average	101,00	101,40	102,26	100,84
		N	642,00	635,00	640,00	628,00
		Standard deviation	15,22	14,99	15,11	15,33
Intermediate	Gram-Transl.	Average	99,16	98,38	97,73	101,71
		N	320,00	322,00	317,00	317,00
		Standard deviation	15,25	15,47	14,86	15,03
	Communicative	Average	94,76	95,12	94,13	94,42
		N	324,00	330,00	331,00	329,00
		Standard deviation	14,28	13,99	13,95	14,07
	Total	Average	96,95	96,73	95,89	98,00
		N	644,00	652,00	648,00	646,00
		Standard deviation	14,92	14,82	14,50	14,99
Advanced	Gram-Transl.	Average	98,34	98,20	98,13	96,36
		N	316,00	320,00	321,00	317,00
		Standard deviation	15,43	15,77	15,05	14,70
	Communicative	Average	105,77	105,59	105,71	105,88
		N	321,00	325,00	319,00	326,00
		Standard deviation	12,20	12,47	12,95	12,65
	Total	Average	102,08	101,92	101,91	101,19
		N	637,00	645,00	640,00	643,00
		Standard deviation	14,37	14,67	14,54	14,50

Table 18: Basic statistics for different levels of advancement, depending on the choice of the teaching method

The analysis of variance showed that all the differences in the methods' effectiveness were statistically significant. At the same time, one should take into account lack of opportunities to compare the results between the groups with varying degrees of advancement as only the comparisons within each group separately were entitled.

The analysis of eta squared coefficients providing information on the strength of the difference effect, and, therefore, on the effectiveness of the teaching method applied was as follows: in the basic group, in the case of writing, the relationships were strong and the other effects were also very significant. The fact that the relationship between the result and the method in the basic group was significant was evident on the basis of the previous analyses.

As for the intermediate group, the difference between the average in both the methods was the lowest. The strength of the relationship between the result and the method was the lowest, too so these were typical moderate or weak effects. In the case of the advanced group, the relationships between the result and the method were significantly higher than those in the intermediate group and slightly lower than in the basic group.

The repetition of the test results for the second study provided analogical information on the methods' performance.

In the case of the basic group, the difference between the methods increased because we observed a difference of 12-13 points in favour of the Grammar-Translation Method. This was between 0.80 and 0.90 of standard deviation, and, thus, gave a strong effect. It showed that a long-term action for beginners learning the language was much stronger when applying the principles of the Grammar-Translation Method than it was the case with the Communicative Approach.

In the case of the intermediate group, the Communicative Approach turned out to be more effective (looking at a long-term action) because the results improved much more significantly in this group compared to the first measurement. The groups taught according to the Grammar-Translation Method still achieved slightly better results though. The advantage of this method, however, compared to the previous study, decreased significantly.

In the advanced group, the differences between the methods decreased slightly. It appears, therefore, that the results obtained confirm the thesis that in the initial period the application of the Grammar-Translation Method is more effective, and it is only after reaching the intermediate level that a gradual shift to the Communicative Approach should take place.

In the basic and the advanced group, some key differences between the methods occurred and they were all statistically significant. In the intermediate group the differences were significant in favour of the Grammar-Translation Method in the case of listening and speaking whereas in the other two research areas, the differences remained statistically insignificant. The results of the tests showed that the students in this group were ready to change the method because one year before, the results were much better for the Grammar-Translation Method. So, the effectiveness of learning itself during that year was higher for the Communicative Approach.

Eta squared for the second measurement took much larger values, which means that the strength of the relationship between the method and the test results for the basic group was strong. The relationships in all the areas were very strong in favour of the Grammar-Translation Method. As for the intermediate group, the strength of the relationship was either weak or was not observed at all. In the case of the advanced group, the strength of the relationship remained moderate or strong in favour of the Communicative Approach. These results confirmed the earlier conclusions regarding the effectiveness of the methods, depending on the level of advancement.

As the last step of this kind of analyses, a comparison of the competences development in all the four areas within each group over time was presented. One can easily notice that the Communicative Approach caused the greatest changes in the intermediate group. In the advanced and the basic group, we see some stability of the results (between the two measurements). In the intermediate group, the results improved in a particularly significant manner in the case of the Communicative Approach.

In the case of the Grammar-Translation Method, there were no significant differences between the first and the second test regardless of the group advancement. However, in the case of the Communicative Approach, there was very good progress in the intermediate group, which confirmed the earlier analyses.

Group	Method		t	df	Two-sided significance	
Basic	traditional	Pair 1	iq_speak1 - iq_speak2	-0,63	285,00	0,53
		Pair 2	iq_writ1 - iq_writ2	-0,53	275,00	0,60
		Pair 3	iq_read1 - iq_read2	1,29	281,00	0,20
		Pair 4	iq_list1 - iq_list2	-0,58	280,00	0,56
	innovative	Pair 1	iq_speak1 - iq_speak2	0,59	317,00	0,56
		Pair 2	iq_writ1 - iq_writ2	0,78	316,00	0,44
		Pair 3	iq_read1 - iq_read2	1,87	318,00	0,06
		Pair 4	iq_list1 - iq_list2	-0,59	310,00	0,55
Intermediate	traditional	Pair 1	iq_speak1 - iq_speak2	-1,23	294,00	0,22
		Pair 2	iq_writ1 - iq_writ2	-3,73	295,00	0,00
		Pair 3	iq_read1 - iq_read2	-1,38	291,00	0,17
		Pair 4	iq_list1 - iq_list2	0,78	286,00	0,44
	innovative	Pair 1	iq_speak1 -	-3,20	309,00	0,00

Advanced	traditional	Pair 2	iq_speak2 iq_writ1 - iq_writ2	-6,15	321,00	0,00
		Pair 3	iq_read1 - iq_read2	-4,30	323,00	0,00
		Pair 4	iq_list1 - iq_list2	-2,42	319,00	0,02
		Pair 1	iq_speak1 - iq_speak2	-2,62	299,00	0,01
		Pair 2	iq_writ1 - iq_writ2	-0,43	304,00	0,67
		Pair 3	iq_read1 - iq_read2	-1,17	304,00	0,24
		Pair 4	iq_list1 - iq_list2	-1,57	300,00	0,12
		Pair 1	iq_speak1 - iq_speak2	-1,16	311,00	0,25
	innovative	Pair 2	iq_writ1 - iq_writ2	0,75	309,00	0,46
		Pair 3	iq_read1 - iq_read2	-1,35	307,00	0,18
		Pair 4	iq_list1 - iq_list2	-0,82	314,00	0,42

Table 19: The comparison of progress between the two methods, depending on the choice of the level of advancement

4. Discussion

4.1. Re-examination of the results

The results of my research, based on a heterogeneous research schema and drawing on the comparative, cross-sectional, longitudinal and quasi-experimental approach, confirmed the hypothesis formulated at the beginning and showed the effectiveness of the Communicative Approach in developing students' language skills in the English language. It turned out, too – in accordance with the hypothesis – that this effectiveness was mostly determined by the initial level of competence taught, and the sphere of skills developed.

The first measurement, carried out at the end of the summer term of the academic year 2009/2010 showed particular effectiveness of the Grammar-Translation Method (compared to the Communicative Approach) in the case of low level students or those who never learnt the English language before. Similar results were achieved in the case of intermediate students although, it should be noted, the advantage of the Grammar-Translation Method here was smaller than it was the case in the basic group.

However, this picture changed completely in the case of advanced students where the Communicative Approach was in a class of its own. This gave rise to the conclusion that in the initial period of English language teaching, one should consider using the Grammar-Translation Method, waiting with the application of the Communicative Approach until they reach an adequate level of the English language proficiency. It means a gradual shift to the Communicative Approach once the intermediate level is eventually achieved.

The results of the second measurement, carried out at the end of the winter term of the academic year 2010/2011, were similar to those achieved in the first measurement. The only difference, looking at the long-term action, was that in the case of the intermediate group the Communicative Approach was the most effective (when compared with the first measurement) as it is in this particular group only that the results most improved. Therefore, it seems that the results obtained for the second time confirmed the hypothesis formulated at the beginning that in the initial period teaching according to the Grammar-Translation Method is more effective, and it is only once students reach the intermediate level that some gradual shift towards the Communicative Approach ought to take place.

In the case of the basic group, some significant differences between the results of the first and the second measurement occurred in the case of reading. In the intermediate group no statistically significant differences were observed only in listening while in the advanced group the only area where there was no statistically significant progress was, again, reading.

To conclude, it is worth adding that the hypothesis regarding education value added of the Communicative Approach was also confirmed – a standardised growth showed the quality of education which was higher than in the case of the Grammar-

Translation Method. What is more, the size of education value added itself was the highest in the advanced group and the lowest for the group with the lowest level of competence. It is also worth noting that in certain areas, such as speaking and listening, adhering to the assumptions of the Communicative Approach gave better results than the application of the Grammar-Translation Method.

4.2. Reference of research results to existing theories and empirical findings

There was a study – a meta-analysis of programme effectiveness research on the English language learners by K. Rolstad/ K. Mahoney/ G. V. Glass (2005) which recognised the significance of bilingual education. In this meta-analysis, the authors referred to five other analyses which they subsequently divided into two categories – that is narrative reviews with the examples being the studies by Baker/ de Kanter (1981), Rossell/ Baker (1996) and Slavin/ Cheung (2003); and, then, also former meta-analyses by Greene (1998) and Willig (1985). K. Rolstad/ K. Mahoney/ G. V. Glass (2005) reached a similar conclusion to Willig (1985), namely that bilingual education was more beneficial for students learning the English language than any other approach. In a similar way, the authors also perceived the superiority of bilingual education programmes over those that promoted the use of one's mother tongue as a means of transition in the development of academic skills in two languages.

M. Olpińska-Szkiełko (2013b) described and analysed three different projects devoted to bilingual education – all of them took place in German-speaking nursery schools in Vienna (the children's age varied from 3 to 6). The results of the first project called “English for children” revealed that children's progress was quite slow but for English pronunciation, which was very good. The second project's name was “Meeting English at a nursery school” and it was an example of early partial immersion; children participating in this programme particularly developed their receptive skills in the second language. Finally, the third project was referred to as “Immersion in English”: English was the only language of communication (the programme was an instance of early total immersion); in a very short time, they managed to perfectly develop both their receptive and productive skills in the English language. M. Olpińska-Szkiełko (2013b) proved that early contact with language other than the mother tongue could positively affect the child's linguistic, cognitive, emotional and social development (provided that certain conditions were met). Following N. Denison (1984) or T. T. Skutnabb-Kangas (1987), M. Olpińska-Szkiełko (2013b: 77) admits that the term “mother tongue” denotes the child's mother's tongue whereas the term “first language” – the language that the child acquires as their first language in their life (for example, the majority language of the community).

In her other work (2013a) M. Olpińska-Szkiełko also presented her arguments in favour of bilingual education and the final conclusion that she reached (2013a: 147)

was that “bilingual programmes constitute a very good alternative to traditional forms of foreign language learning”.

Then, there was also the study of J. Mathews-Aydinli (2008) who analysed the literature (from 2000 onwards) on those ELLs who studied in non-academic contexts. It consisted of 41 works (23 published articles and 18 unpublished dissertations) and was divided into the following categories: 23 ethnographic works, 12 teacher-related studies and 6 SLA studies. J. Mathews-Aydinli (2008: 204) made a point that “[n]otable in particular among studies about adult immigrant ESL learners is an emphasis on practical issues, such as the importance of providing these students with physical, financial, and consulting help to improve their chances of success in learning English” as was also the need to diversity recognition and the issues of identity and socialization. The second category (concentrating on teaching practices, experiences and impressions) had one thing in common, and that was, as J. Mathews-Aydinli (2008: 207) put it, “a particular sensitivity toward the students' cultural backgrounds.” Finally, the third category included “those studies in which adult ESL students were the participants but not necessarily the focus of the research”, the authoress (2008: 208) wrote, and its aim was “to show the effectiveness of a particular teaching tool on improving communicative competence” (J. Mathews-Aydinli 2008: 209).

To take yet another example, W. H. Teale (2009) was also of the opinion that bilingual instruction did not produce any negative consequences as far as students' academic achievement in the English language was concerned. In the further course of his study, he (2009) provided his readers with different kinds of instructional accommodations. W. H. Teale (2009) included to these: extended explanations and visual cues, key and difficult vocabulary identification and clarification, content familiarity texts, text knowledge consolidation, extra practice with reading and writing, broad linguistic interactions and, finally, strategic use of students' first language by the teacher. W. H. Teale (2009: 702) eventually concluded that “it is clear from research that reading instruction in L1 helps in learning to read English, that L1 instruction contributes positively to academic achievement in L2, that good literacy instruction for ELLs looks very much like good literacy instruction for students in general”.

The relationship between teaching according to the Communicative Approach and bilingual teaching is that, in both these cases, students are in constant contact with the additional language. It ought to be remembered though that the Communicative Approach, by properly chosen forms of exercise, can, in fact, limit the use of one's mother tongue, which is, then, acceptable only in contrastive terms of reference and the (over)use of one's mother tongue as a means of transition in the development of academic skills in any two languages can bear more resemblance to the assumptions of the Grammar-Translation Method (according to which the use of one's native language is, as a matter of fact, an integral part of the lesson). All in all, the conclusions presented here were in line with the key findings of other authors and existing research of similar nature produced similar results.

4.3. Practical consequences

The Communicative Approach, which appeared in the second half of the 1970s, and the very first propagators of which were Ch. N. Candlin (1976) and H. G. Widdowson (1978, 1979), is a cooperative collection of different communicative methodologies. They all found their reflection in the work of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe and the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe which worked out common reference goals of language proficiency: the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

The assumptions of the Communicative Approach remain in total opposition to the assumptions of another method which was also devoted a considerable part of the following work, that is the Grammar-Translation Method. It can be said, using an oversimplification, that the Communicative Approach is all that the Grammar-Translation Method is not, and vice versa. If we ask ourselves some questions belonging to the field of foreign language teaching, such as for example:

- a) who is in the centre of the educational process?,
- b) how are foreign languages taught and learnt?,
- c) which teaching materials are used by teachers?,
- d) how do students work in class?,
- e) what is the proportion of grammar in relation to vocabulary in foreign language teaching and learning?,
- f) in what circumstances are mistakes corrected?,
- g) which language skills are developed in the first place?, etc.,

and which later are going to be addressed by us – we will then see that the answers to them are as different as the methods discussed here.

The purpose of the following book was to present a critical analysis of the main methods and approaches used in foreign language teaching and the main emphasis was put on the Communicative Approach and the Grammar-Translation Method. This type of research is particularly needed and useful for those teaching and/or learning modern foreign languages (that is those interested in the answer to the question of the effectiveness of the method/approach chosen – how it relates to their or their students' achievements).

It turned out that the Communicative Approach, which is part of innovative teaching trend and developed in foreign language teaching as a counterbalance to traditional methods, was far more effective in the case of advanced/intermediate level students. In the case of the basic group (that is those students whose knowledge of the English language was low or who never learnt it before), the Grammar-Translation Method was the most effective.

It is worth noting that equally important as the level of linguistic competence is also the answer that comes from the studies regarding language skills per se – useful especially to those who, because of the nature of their studies or job, are interested in improving either their speaking/writing/reading/listening skill. Also in this case, an appropriate choice of method is important because it then translates into practice – into the language learner's achievements.

4.4. Limitations and future research directions

There were slightly more than 2,000 students participating in research whose teaching results in both groups (that is the one taught according to the Grammar-Translation Method and the Communicative Approach) were worked out with a division into four basic linguistic competences. Unfortunately, as could be seen in the methodological part of the dissertation, in some cases, the data were missing.

In addition to that, the groups solved different tests which could not be compared directly with each other. From the fact that in the basic and the advanced group the average was equal to 100, it was not clear that the students had similar knowledge of the English language, but, rather, that the results were standardized for each group separately. It must be remembered that although standardized tests of language achievements were used, their comparability is always in doubt.

What is more, it is worth paying attention to the fact that the correlations within the area of a given level of advancement indicated only a slight relationship between the results obtained in the first and the second test. This meant that there were individuals participating in the study who did very well in the first measurement but poorly in the second – and vice versa. On the one hand, it showed the areas independence, on the other hand, however, it could be concluded that there was no strict relationship between the students' results in different areas of the test.

Fourthly, and finally, the comparison of the results in the intermediate group between the results of both tests produced some interesting results because regardless of the area in which the test was conducted, there was no relation between the results in the tests. The explanation for this fact might be twofold: a) very rapid progress in learning of the weakest members of the group and getting closer to the average of those who were the best, b) possible deficiencies once the tests were being prepared (in particular as far as their relevancy is concerned).

Bearing the above in mind, future research should aim, if possible, towards the elimination of these restrictions. Hopefully, it will be likely to carry out such measurements which would give the possibility to compare results between groups of different levels of advancement. In this case, only the comparisons within each group separately were justified.

4.5. Conclusions

This work, in its theoretical plane, contained an analysis of the main methods and approaches used in foreign language teaching (foreign language teaching empirical paradigms).

The hypothesis formulated at the beginning of this study assumed that the Communicative Approach was effective in individualizing teaching interactions and also that its complexity made it work particularly well with students of high level of linguistic competence (mainly in the area of speaking).

In response to the hypothesis constructed in this way as well as the research question concerning the degree of the effectiveness of the Communicative Approach in the English language teaching, there were two measurements carried out. The first one took place at the end of the summer term of the academic year 2009-2010 while the second – at the end of the winter term 2010-2011. In both these measurements, the students from one of the biggest Polish private universities (N = 2004) took part.

The results of the first study confirmed the hypothesis formulated at the beginning of this work by showing that the Communicative Approach was particularly effective where there was already a solid basis, and less effective in teaching students with basic or no linguistic/communicative skills in the English language at all. The results obtained for the second time were similar indeed in that they also confirmed that in the initial period it was more effective to teach according to the Grammar-Translation Method and only upon reaching the intermediate level, a gradual shift to the Communicative Approach should take place. The effectiveness of the Communicative Approach in the development of students' linguistic competence in the English language was the highest in the case of the students from the advanced group for whom the CA was also the most appropriate.

5. References

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