

Creating and Adapting Language Teaching Techniques

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This article describes a system for creating and adapting language teaching techniques. By knowing a large number of techniques and how they can be adapted, a teacher can deal with common language teaching problems, like uninteresting material, the need to repeat old material, a large amount of material to prepare and mark, material which is too difficult or too easy for the learners, a spread of ability and knowledge within one class. Also, by understanding how techniques are devised and the purposes for which they are used, a teacher can see if the techniques he uses are doing the job he wants them to do.

A danger in using language teaching techniques is that they are sometimes used for their own sake and not with a particular language teaching aim in mind. For example, miming is sometimes used in language classrooms as follows. A learner is given a piece of paper with a word on it, for example, *electrician*. This learner must mime the work that an electrician does while the other learners try to guess the word he is miming. This technique is amusing, but there is little purpose in it as far as language learning is concerned, because very little language is used and the word mimed needs to be already known by most of the learners for the exercise to be successful. A good language teaching technique directs attention to language, provides opportunity for repetition, and catches the interest of the learners.

General components of language teaching techniques

In this part of the article, eight classes of components of language teaching techniques are presented. Then, each of these classes is described in detail. Finally the eight classes are combined in a chart which can be used for creating and adapting techniques.

The following eight classes of components combine to make up language teaching techniques.

(1) Language material	(2) Stimulus	(3) SR relationship	(4) Response
(5) Work arrangement	(6) Group size	(7) Presenting the stimulus	(8) Guiding the response

Let us look at a language teaching technique and see how it is accounted for by the eight classes mentioned above. We shall keep the markers assigned to the eight classes of components.

The teacher (5) says (2) a sentence that describes something (1), for example, "We use it to clean our teeth." The learners (6) answer (3) by saying (4) the name of the thing that is described. The teacher can make the exercise more interesting by speaking quickly, or he can make it easier by repeating the sentence several times (7) or by writing several answers on the blackboard for the learners to choose from (8).

In the technique described, the language material (1) was a sentence. All language teaching techniques deal with some part of the language, either sounds, letters, words, phrases, sentences or larger units of language. The stimulus (2) was spoken, so this technique can be used for listening practice. It is possible for the teacher to write the sentence "We use it to clean our teeth." on the blackboard, and then the stimulus would be a written one, and would give reading practice. The relationship between the stimulus and response, the SR relationship (3), was an identification relationship. That is, the learners had to show that they understood the description by identifying the thing that was described. The response (4) by the learners to the teacher's stimulus was spoken, so this technique can be used for pronunciation or speaking practice. The work arrangement (5) was one where the teacher was in a superior position to the learners because he presented the problem and also knew the answer. The whole class did the same piece of work, so the group size (6) in this case was the whole class.

In other techniques learners can work individually, in pairs, or in groups. The presentation of the stimulus (7), in this example, the speed at which the teacher spoke or the repetition of the sentence, were ways of making the learners more interested or helping them handle the material. Also, the teacher helped the learners by guiding their responses (8) or by providing them with answers to choose from.

Detailed description of the components of language teaching techniques

Now, let us look at each of the eight classes of components in detail, because by understanding the components of techniques we can adapt already known ones, evaluate their effectiveness and even create new ones.

As each class is described, the sub-components which make up each class will be listed, and finally, these lists will go to make up the chart for devising new teaching techniques that can be found on page 3.

(1) *Language material*

A technique can deal with (a) sounds or letters, (b) words, phrases, or clauses, (c) sentences, (d) units of language larger than sentences, for example, passages, conversations, talks, etc. Attention can be directed towards the *meaning* of the language material or towards its *form*. The word *form* refers to pronunciation, spelling, the particular words and phrases used and grammar.

Studies in remembering language (Jenkins, 1974) show that the form of an item is more difficult to recall than its meaning. The experiments that Jenkins describes were with native speakers of a

A Chart for Devising New Teaching Techniques

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Language material	Stimulus	SR relationship	Response	Work arrangement	Group size	Presenting the stimulus	Guiding the response
sounds or letters	Sv	distinguishing	Rv	I	pairs	repetition of S	more than one S
words or phrases	Sw	identification	Rw	→	groups	speed of S	more than one
sentences	Sx	following	Rx	→→	class	length and complexity	SR relationship
passages	Sv (mt)	directions	Rv (mt)	→←		of S	choices
F = form	Sw (mt)	answering	Rw (mt)	↓↑		noise in S	matching
M = meaning		completion		↑↓		delay between S and R	information
		ordering				guessing	models
		substitution				learner ↔ teacher	
		transformation					
		correction					
		summarizing					
		classification					
		free production					
		or reception					

language, but second language learners experience the same difficulty. One reason for this is that if we compare two languages there is a large amount of similarity in the meanings that those two languages express, but there is a great difference between the forms they use to express those meanings. So, techniques that direct attention towards form and provide opportunity for meaningful repetition of form are important in language teaching. For this reason, techniques that direct attention mainly to form and techniques that direct attention to meaning are distinguished in the first column of the chart on page 3 for devising teaching techniques.

(2) *Stimulus*

The word stimulus (S) refers to the way of presenting the material that the learners work with. The stimulus can be spoken (Sv), written (Sw), or some non-language activity (Sx). For example, the teacher can say (Sv) a word that he wants the learners to repeat, or he can point to a word written (Sw) on the blackboard for the learners to say, or he can show a picture (Sx) and the learners say what they see in the picture. Usually, if the teacher uses a written stimulus, he is giving the learners reading practice. If he uses a spoken stimulus, he is giving listening practice. A non-language stimulus like a picture or an object usually makes the learners actively recall forms while paying attention to meaning.

There are three types of spoken stimuli: (i) speaking, (ii) whispering or mouthing words without making any sound, so that the learners must carefully watch mouth movements (Nation, 1975a), (iii) some form of voice or oral sound without mouth movement, like whistling or humming.

There are five types of written stimuli: (i) writing or printing by pen, pencil or chalk, (ii) writing in code (i.e. with regular letter or word substitutions), (iii) writing in the air by hand movements, (iv) tactile writing like cut-out letters, sandpaper letters, a braille-type code, etc., that the learners feel with their eyes closed, (v) writing done on a person's skin with the wrong end of a pencil so that the shape of the letters is felt but not seen while they are being made.

There are several non-language types of stimuli: (i) an object, (ii) a cut-out figure, (iii) a gesture, (iv) an action, (v) photographs or pictures from books, (vi) blackboard drawings.

Magnet boards, film projectors, overhead projectors, flannel boards, etc., can be used to present these stimuli. The teacher can get the learners to make use of different senses. An object can be felt, or listened to, instead of being seen; or an object can be covered with a cloth to make it interesting for the learners to look at it and guess what it is. A spoken or written stimulus can be in the mother tongue (mt) or in the foreign language, so there are at least five main groups of stimuli. They are Sv, Sw, Sx, Sv(mt), Sw(mt). Two stimuli can occur together in a teaching technique. For example, the stimulus can be a word in the mother tongue (Sw(mt)) and an English word (Sw). The learners look at the two words and say if they have roughly the same meaning or not.

(3) *SR relationship*

The stimulus and response can be related in a variety of ways. The type of relationship that is used in a particular technique should help the learners master some part of the language they are studying. Whether a certain type of relationship helps or not depends on two factors, namely (i) the learners' level of achievement, and (ii) the language learning theory pre-supposed. Let us look at the different types of SR relationships before discussing these two factors.

Different types of SR relationships

(a) distinguishing

In distinguishing techniques the learners decide if two sounds, words, sentences, a sentence and a picture, a sound and a written letter, etc., are in some way the same, or different. This type of exercise includes saying if two sounds are the same or different; if two words have the same or different forms, or if they have roughly the same meaning but different forms; if two sentences have the same meaning or not, or if they have the same sentence pattern or not; if a reading passage gives a correct description of a given picture or not; if a given mother-tongue word has roughly the same meaning as a certain English word, and so on. Usually the learners answer a distinguishing technique by saying or writing 'the same' or 'different', or moving their hands when the two things are the same and doing nothing when they are different.

(b) identification

In identification techniques the learners are presented with an item which they must repeat, translate, or put in a different form with a related meaning to show that they have understood or correctly perceived the item, or to show that they can produce the related foreign language item. For example, the learners can repeat an item in the same form as the teacher presents it. For example, the teacher says a sound or sentence and the learners repeat after him. Dictations and copying are identification techniques.

A spoken or written stimulus (Sv, Sw) can be responded to with a non-language response (Rx), or a non-language stimulus (Sx) can be responded to with a spoken or written response (Rv, Rw). For example, the teacher says a word or writes it on the blackboard, and the learners point to a picture which matches the word. Following orders or commands is an identification technique. Or, the teacher shows an object and the learners say or write its name.

A spoken or written stimulus can be given a spoken or written response which does not have the same form. For example, the teacher gives a definition: "It has ink in it and we use it to write." The learners say or write "a pen"; or the teacher says a word and the learners say its synonym or antonym; or the learners can match sentences in a passage with a given set of paraphrases. Reading words written in code is also an identification technique. Identification techniques can also include translation from the mother tongue or to the mother tongue. For example, the teacher says a word and the learners translate

it; or the teacher gives a definition in the foreign language and the learners give a single word in the mother tongue; or the teacher says a word in the mother tongue and the learners say the English word.

(c) following directions

In some techniques the learners follow directions or explanations and act on them. For example, the teacher explains to the learners how to make a difficult sound and they try to produce it; or the teacher tells the learners a rule, for example, a spelling rule, and they apply it to some materials; or the learners study a set of pronunciation diagrams and say the sound pictured in the diagrams. Some examples of following directions are similar to identification techniques, except that following directions is usually more complicated than most identification techniques.

(d) answering questions

In some techniques the learners answer questions. True/False statements are included in this type. Questions can be asked or answered in the mother tongue. For example, in some reading courses where writing is not taught, questions on the reading passage are written in English but the learners answer in their mother tongue. The questions can also be asked or answered by means of pictures and diagrams. Learners can take the teacher's place and ask the questions while the teacher or other learners answer them. There is a wide variety of question forms and types. Stevick's (1959) excellent article on teaching techniques describes some of these.

(e) completion

In completion techniques the learners are given words, sentences, or pictures that have parts missing or that can have parts added to them. The learners complete the words, sentences or passage by filling in the missing parts, or by saying what is missing from the picture.

(f) ordering

In ordering techniques the learners are presented with a set of items in the wrong order that they must rearrange in the desired order. For example, the learners are presented with a set of letters, *okob*. They must rearrange these letters to make a word, *book*. Words can be rearranged to make a sentence, sentences to make a passage, pictures to make a story, and so on. Ordering techniques can easily be combined with other SR relationships. For example, the learners are presented with a set of letters that can be rearranged to make an English word. The learners respond by giving the mother-tongue translation of the word.

Some ordering techniques, like the examples given above, can be done without the learners referring to any other clues. Other ordering techniques contain extra information so that the learners can do the ordering correctly. For example, the learners are given a set of words. The teacher reads the words quickly in a different order and while listening to this information the learners number or put the words in the same order as the teacher says them. Or the learners read a

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passage. After they have read it they are given a set of sentences containing the main points in the passage. The learners must put these sentences in the right order so that the order of the main points in the sentences is the same as the order of the same main points in the passage.

(g) substitution

In substitution techniques the learners replace one or more parts of a word, sentence, passage, picture, story, etc. So, the stimulus of a substitution technique has two parts, the frame which contains the part where the substitution must be made, for example, a word, sentence, etc., and the substitute item which fits into the frame. So, for example, if the frame is a sentence, *He seldom goes there*, the teacher can give the substitute item *often* which replaces *seldom* in the frame to give the response *He often goes there*.

(h) transformation

In transformation techniques the learners have to rewrite or say words, sentences, or passages by changing the grammar or organisation of the form of the stimulus. This type of technique also includes rewriting passages, substitution techniques where grammar changes are necessary and joining two or more sentences together to make one sentence.

(i) correction

In correction techniques the learners look for mistakes either in ideas or form and describe them or correct them. They include techniques like finding grammar mistakes in sentences, finding unnecessary and unusual words which have been put in a reading passage, finding wrong facts in a reading passage, finding the word that does not go with the others in a phrase, describing wrong items in pictures, etc. Learners show that they have found the mistakes either by underlining or circling them, etc., or even by writing the corrected item.

(j) summarising

In summarising techniques the learners look for the main ideas in a passage, picture story, etc., and list the ideas. Writing a précis is also a summarising technique.

(k) classification

In classification techniques the learners closely study sounds, sentence patterns, the arrangement of passages, etc., and see what is the same and what is different among the items, and classify the items and describe each class; or the learners study sounds, etc., to see if a given rule applies to the sounds or not.

The learners can respond either by putting sounds, words, or sentences that are the same in some way into the same group, or by making a rule or describing each class as a result of studying and classifying different things.

(1) free production or reception

In free production techniques the learners speak or write on a given subject without any type of model to follow. For example, a learner must give a speech on a previously unprepared subject, or must write an original composition on a given subject. In free reception techniques, the learners listen or read without having to give any response that could be checked or marked by the teacher.

Two factors that determine helpfulness of SR relationships

Now let us return and discuss the two factors that determine whether a particular type of relationship will help learning or not.

The first factor is the learners' level of achievement. If the same language material is used, then a distinguishing rather than an identification technique is usually easier for the learners. That is, it is usually easier to decide whether two sounds are the same or different than to repeat the sounds correctly. Many of the types of SR relationship that were described can be put in order of difficulty in this way. So, it is better to go from one type of relationship to another type that is not too much more difficult than to jump from one type of relationship to another in a disorganized way. This gradual progression is part of what Stevick (1959) calls the rhythm of class activity. The type of relationship should suit the level of achievement that the learners have reached with the particular material. Some writers (for example Prator, 1970; Valette & Disick, 1972) have classified language teaching techniques on a four or five level system beginning with what Valette and Disick call "mechanical skills" where the learner performs using memory rather than understanding. The main techniques at this level are identification (particularly repetition), substitution, transformation, and distinguishing techniques which draw attention to form. At the second level, "knowledge", the learner shows knowledge of facts, rules, and data related to foreign language learning. At the third level, "transfer", the learner uses this knowledge in new situations. Identification (including translation), following directions, answering questions (with some multiple-choice guides) and completion techniques which give attention to meaning are used at this level. Valette and Disick's fourth level is "communication", where the learner uses the foreign language and culture as a natural means of communication. Summarising and free production techniques are used at this level. A particular SR relationship, for example, answering questions, can appear at more than one level depending on the way it is used, but usually, given the same material, SR relationships and thus teaching techniques can be ordered according to the levels.

The second factor is the language learning theory presupposed. Some teachers believe that knowledge about language can help language learners. Teachers who believe this make use of a classification SR relationship in many of the techniques they use. Some teachers believe that learning a language is learning a system of habits. These teachers favour identification and substitution techniques. Some teachers believe that the mother tongue generally has a bad effect on learning another language. These teachers avoid techniques which use translation. Each type of SR relationship can be judged by asking, "Is

distinguishing (or any other type of relationship) a useful activity for language learning?" Each teacher has to decide the answer to this question for himself because language learning experiments are not likely to provide the answers.

Types of SR relationships can also be considered from a more general point of view. The questions the teacher can ask himself are, "Is correcting (or any other type of relationship) a worthwhile educational activity?" and "If my learners repeated (or any other type of relationship) things that they heard outside the classroom, would I be happy?" Many techniques which are considered good for language teaching might not be considered good in other classes or outside the school. It may be good for a group to repeat what the teacher says, but many people are not pleased to hear groups shouting together in the street. When someone teaches, he teaches two things. He teaches the material in his lesson, and he teaches the way that he presents the material. For example, one of the reasons some people do not like the use of punishment and fear as a means of teaching is that although it might give good results in that the material is learnt, it also might teach the learners that it is good to use violence and threats to get people to do something.

The method of presentation or technique is usually repeated much more often than particular pieces of material. So, if repetition has an effect on learning, it is clear that we should realize the importance of the types of techniques we use to present material to learners. The fashion of not using translation as a teaching technique has also had effects that extend outside the classroom.

The SR relationship is thus a very important component to consider when deciding to use a particular technique or not. This relationship is important not only for language learning but also for the general aims of education.

(4) *Response*

By carefully observing the response that the learners make in a technique the teacher can get information about the effectiveness of the technique. The response can be spoken (Rv), written (Rw), or some non-language activity (Rx). For example, in an identification technique, the teacher can show an object to the learners (a non-language stimulus, Sx) and the learners either say (Rv) what it is, or write (Rw) what it is. Spoken or written responses can be in the foreign language or in the mother tongue (see Nation, *ELTJ* forthcoming, for a discussion of the use of the mother tongue). If the response is spoken, the learners are practising speaking. If the response is written, the learners are practising writing. So, the type of response used in a technique partly depends on the skills that the learners need to practise.

Other considerations like ease of checking or marking, number of people in the class and spread of ability of the learners also have an effect on the type of response used. There are twenty-five possible stimulus and response combinations. Nine of them, Sx-Rx, Sx-Rv(mt), Sx-Rw(mt), Sv(mt)-Rx, Sv(mt)-Rv(mt), Sv(mt)-Rw(mt), Sw(mt)-Rx,

Sw(mt)-Rv(mt), Sw(mt)-Rw(mt), are *not* foreign language learning activities. All of the sixteen useful stimulus-and-response combinations can be used with each of the twelve SR relationships.

(5) *Work arrangement*

There are four main types of arrangements. They are individual (I), co-operating (\rightleftharpoons), combining (\leftrightarrow), and superior-inferior ($\frac{1}{2}$).

(a) individual

In an individual arrangement, each learner works by himself.

(b) co-operating

In a co-operating arrangement, learners help each other to do the same piece of work with the same materials in front of them. For example, two learners answer a set of comprehension questions together, or a group of learners co-operate to write a single composition.

(c) combining

In a combining arrangement one learner or group of learners has half of the information and the other learner has the other half. They must put both parts together to do the exercise. For example, one learner has a list of words, *pin, fin, tin, fun*. The other learner has a list that is not quite the same, *pin, pin, fin, fun*. One learner says his first word "pin", and the other learner looks at his own sheet to see if his word is the same. If it is, he says, "the same" and the two learners write "the same" on their sheets. Then the second learner says the second word "pin", and the first learner looks at his own sheet and says "different" and they both write "different" (see Byers, 1973). So, in a combining arrangement, both learners or groups are equal, but have different information.

(d) superior-inferior

In a superior-inferior arrangement, one learner, a group, or the teacher has information that the others do not have, and he gives that information to them. A dictation where the teacher reads the dictation aloud and the learners write is like this. A lecture is another example of a superior-inferior arrangement.

The arrangement of work and the arrangement of seats and desks in the classroom are closely related. If, for example, the teacher wants to take part in a co-operating activity, he needs to move away from the blackboard and sit among his students. Learners who are co-operating need to sit near each other and need to be able to communicate directly with each member of the group.

Learners in a combining arrangement face each other. The arrangement of work is also closely related to the learning that occurs. An individual arrangement usually allows learners to work at their own speed. It also may give rise to mistakes. A co-operating arrangement lets learners teach and check each other. Usually fewer mistakes are made with this arrangement than with the individual arrangement. The co-operating arrangement allows for discussion of the work although

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this is not always done in the foreign language. Work which is too difficult for some learners to do individually can often be done in a co-operating arrangement. A combining arrangement encourages communication with a purpose between the learners. This communication should be in the foreign language because the communication is as important as the result of the communication.

A superior-inferior arrangement has the danger of discouraging discussion by the inferior member and encouraging the superior member to do a great deal of work. The arrangement of work may also have social effects and for this reason some teachers do not like to use the superior-inferior arrangement.

(6) *Group size*

The size of the group involved in a technique can have an effect on the number of mistakes made, the amount of marking and the checking that needs to be done, the time required, the difficulty of the material, the amount of work done by each learner, and the amount of noise in the classroom. For the purposes of the chart on page 3, group sizes have been divided into three types, namely pairs, groups (that is, a class divided into parts containing more than two members), and whole classes including the teacher. Co-operating, combining and superior-inferior arrangements can occur in pairs, with groups, or with the class as a whole. For example, in a superior-inferior arrangement, the work can be done in pairs by one learner giving a dictation to another learner. The work can be done in small or large groups by one learner giving a dictation to the others in his group or by one group giving a dictation to another group with the learners in the superior group taking turns to read sentences. The work can be done with the whole class, the teacher, or the individual learner reading the dictation piece aloud for the whole class.

(7) *Presenting the stimulus*

By presenting the stimulus in certain ways the teacher can make techniques more interesting and challenging to the learners. Thus the teacher can repeat old materials and still be sure of the learners' attention. The way that the stimulus is presented can also affect the difficulty of a technique for the learners.

(a) repetition

The stimulus can be presented only once, or it can be repeated several times. If the learners are told that the stimulus will only be presented once and will not be repeated, then this encourages the learners to pay attention. Dictations, for example, can be read only once instead of three or more times as is usually done.

(b) speed

The stimulus can be presented quickly or slowly. Usually the greater the speed, the greater the challenge. A simple repetition technique, for example, can become challenging if the teacher presents the stimulus very quickly.

(c) length and complexity

In some techniques the stimulus is presented part by part, for example, in dictations, substitution drill and translation techniques. If the parts that are presented are long, for example, a ten or twelve word phrase in a dictation, or several parts are presented at once, for example, two or more items to substitute in a model sentence, then the technique is very challenging. It is usually a good idea to repeat the parts when they are long so that the activity is not too difficult.

(d) noise

Noise can be added to the stimulus. The word *noise* here has the wide meaning of anything that interferes with the transmission of the message. An identification technique, for example, is more challenging if the teacher hits his hands together as he says the sentence for the learners to repeat. A written sentence can contain words that should not be there and which the learners must omit when they copy the sentence.

(e) delay

There can be a delay between the stimulus and the response. In a sentence repetition technique the delay can be ten seconds or more. In an identification technique which requires the learners to copy something from the blackboard, the material can be rubbed off and an hour or a day later the learners can be asked to write it out again from memory. As well as adding interest, delay encourages the learners to repeat the material to themselves several times during the interval and thus helps learning.

(f) guessing

The learners are not given enough clues in the stimulus to know the correct response so they must guess. The value of a technique which involves guessing is that such a technique catches the learners' interest and provides opportunity for repeated attention to the material. Here is an example of a technique which involves guessing. The teacher draws about twelve pictures on the blackboard. The learners do not know the English names^a for the pictures. A learner goes to the blackboard. While the teacher repeats one of the new words, the learner tries to guess, by pointing, which picture is the right one. If he points to the wrong picture, the teacher just repeats the word. When the learner points to the right picture, the teacher says "Yes". Then he says another word and the learner tries to point to the right picture. This continues until the teacher has said all the words and the learner (or several learners) has correctly pointed to the right pictures. When some words have been guessed correctly the teacher should repeat them many times while the learner points. Each time before the teacher says a word that the learners have not tried to guess before, all the known words should be said again for revision while the learner points.

(g) learner ↔ teacher

A learner can become the teacher and present the stimulus to the other learners or to the teacher. This makes a technique interesting

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because the other learners are eager to see if the learner presenting the stimulus does it correctly or not. It is also useful language practice for learners to use the language of the superior member in a superior-inferior arrangement. For example, the learners can ask questions instead of answering them.

(8) *Guiding the response*

New techniques can be devised, or old techniques can be varied or made easier for the learners, by providing more than one stimulus; by having more than one SR relationship; by providing a set of choices from which the learners choose the correct response; by providing responses which must be matched with items in the stimulus; by providing extra information; or by providing models of good responses.

(a) more than one stimulus

It is sometimes easier for beginners to repeat a spoken stimulus (Sv) if they can also see a written stimulus (Sw). It is sometimes easier to answer questions about a written passage if the learners listen to the passage (Sv) while reading it (Sw).

(b) more than one SR relationship





Writing a new word that the learners have just heard (identification) is easier if the letters of the words are given in the wrong order on the blackboard, so that the learners rearrange the letters (ordering) while listening to the word. A summarising exercise is easier if it is combined with answering questions where the answers to the questions give the main points in the summary.

(c) choices

A completion exercise, for example, is easier if the learner is given a set of choices to help him complete a sentence. Techniques with multiple-choice items guide the learners towards the correct response.

(d) matching

Matching is similar to providing choices except that there is usually an equal number of stimulus and response items. In the following example with an identification SR relationship there are four items in each column.

a hat	
a book	
a cat	
a dog	

(e) extra information

Extra information can make it easier for the learners to carry out an activity. Here is an answering-questions technique where extra information from the teacher is essential for success. The teacher asks the learners a question that he is sure they cannot answer, for example, "How many kilometres is it from here to Paris?" When one learner tries to guess the answer the teacher says things like, "No, it's less than

that." or "No, it's less than half of that." or "Take away a few kilometres." etc. By the things that he says, the teacher guides the learners to the correct answer. This is an amusing technique because at last, by listening to the information that the teacher gives about the answers, the learners are able to give the correct answer to the question.

When trying to get the learners to spell a word that they have just heard, the teacher can say, "I want you to spell *charm*. You know how to spell *farm* and you know how to spell *choose*, so spell *charm*." In this technique the teacher provides extra information by reminding the learners of facts that they already know which will help them to make the correct response.

(f) models

Most language teaching techniques are easier for the learners if the learners' responses can follow a model that has already been explained to them.

Using the chart

All the preceding description can be put into one chart. By going through the columns on the chart on page 3 it is possible to devise new language teaching techniques.

Let us now imagine that a teacher wants to give his class practice in understanding and giving directions. He has decided to use maps to help him do this. Let us use the chart to make up some new techniques that will give the learners useful practice. The numbers in brackets in the descriptions of the techniques refer to the columns on the chart.

The teacher wants to give listening practice first so he uses a distinguishing technique (3). He draws a simple map on the blackboard. He says (2Sv) a sentence (1M), for example, "Turn to the right." Then he points to the map and by moving the pointer shows a turn to the right (2Sx). The learners (6 class) answer (4Rv) "the same" (5 ✱). The teacher does this with several sentences. Sometimes the sentence is the same as the movement he shows on the map; sometimes it is different.

To give further listening practice the teacher uses an identification technique (3). Using the same map on the board the teacher says (2Sv) a sentence (1M), for example, "Take the second street on the left." After the teacher says the sentence a learner (6 class) shows the movement (5 ✱) on the map (4Rx). When this is easy for the learners, the teacher speaks quickly (7 speed of S), or gives several directions (7 length and complexity of S) and makes the learner wait a few seconds (7 delay) before the learner shows them all on the map.

As a preparation for the learners saying the sentences, the teacher uses a completion technique. The teacher writes (2Sw) incomplete sentences (1M) on the blackboard. The teacher also traces the route of a short journey corresponding to the incomplete sentences on the map (8Sx more than one S). The learners (6 class) complete (3) the sentences (4Rw) by looking at the journey on the map (5 ✱). The

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teacher can make this more challenging by letting the learners look at the journey on the map and then rubbing out the journey which had been marked before letting the learners complete the sentences (7 delay).

The teacher gives speaking practice (4Rv) by asking the learners (6 class) to repeat (3 identification) the sentences (1F) that he says (2Sv) (5 $\frac{1}{2}$). The technique can be made more interesting by asking the learners to listen to several sentences (7 length and complexity of S) before they repeat them.

The teacher arranges for more speaking practice by letting the learners work in pairs (6). The learners each have a copy of the same map (2Sx). One learner points out a place on his map, without the other learner seeing. The first learner, starting from a certain point on the map that both know, gives (2Sv) the other learner (5 $\frac{1}{2}$) directions on how to get to the place that has been marked out. After the second learner has listened to the directions (1 passages M) and followed them (3 identification) on his own map, he marks (4Rx) the place on his map. The two learners then compare their maps to see if the mark on each map is in the same place.

There are obviously many other techniques that can be devised from the chart to give practice in commands using a map. Usually teachers only make use of a few of the techniques that they could use if they knew about them. By using the system described in this article a teacher should be able to make use of most of the commonly used techniques and even devise many new ones. There are well over 1,000 possible combinations of the items based on the first four columns of the chart.

Some of these will be techniques that are not very different from each other (Stevick, 1959), but many will be useful as well as interesting techniques that can be used to add variety and interest to language lessons and help the language teacher achieve his goals.

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