

Discussing the future of anything is always challenging, especially the future of language teaching. The conservative temptation is to assume that things will carry on much as they have in the past and that the future will be recognizable from clues in the present.

After all, classrooms have maintained their familiar organization for a thousand years. Why then should methodology alter radically if the classroom stays the same? The alternative is to predict a science-fiction future in which, given one's ecological or technological bias, the future is nothing like the present.

My own predictions, then, will address both temptations. Some of the predictions assume the carrying on and refinement of current trends; others appear more like science fiction in their vision.

The recent past

The 20th century has seen an immense amount of activity in language teaching methodology. Grammar Translation, the Direct Method, Audio-Lingualism—all preceded what some have called the Age of Methods, comprising most of the final decades of the last century (Richards and Rodgers 1986). During this period a number of new methods clamored for attention and vied for adherents.

Inevitably a reaction set in to what some saw as scatter-fire approaches to language teaching, leading to an “anti-methods” view of language teaching methodology. Long (1989) stated that “methods don’t exist”; Nunan (1991) supported criticisms of the profession and its preoccupation with methods; Brown (1994a) opined that “The era of methods is over”; and Woodward (1996) noted that the profession is now in a period of “post-method thinking.”

Several alternatives were offered to the view that methods were at the heart of methodology. Brown (1994a) argued that methodology should comprise putting into practice certain general principles of good language teaching derived from research or observation. Another view was that methodology should build on conscious modeling by less experienced teachers of the practices of expert or experienced teachers, whatever these practices might be (Freeman 1992).

Next phases in language teaching methodology

In assembling my methodological predictions, I have borrowed ideas from other commentators and have created some scenarios of my own. Some of these predictions are based on experience of the last century. Others are somewhat idiosyncratic but draw on material already existing outside the immediate purview of language teaching. I propose ten scenarios which may, individually and collectively, shape the teaching of second languages in the next decades of this new millennium. These speculations are presented in several brief outline sketches. I have given the millennial candidates identifying labels in a somewhat tongue-in-cheek style, perhaps reminiscent of yesteryear's method labels.

The methodological predictions are as follows:

1. *Teacher/Learner Collaboration*: Using matchmaking techniques to link learners and teachers who have similar styles and approaches to language learning
2. *Method Synergistics*: Crossbreeding elements of various methods to find those practices which best support effective learning
3. *Curriculum Developmentalism*: Viewing methodology as an integrated component in a larger view of instructional design

4. *Content-Basics*: Assuming that language learning is a by-product of a focus on meaning, on acquiring some specific topical content

5. *Multi-intelligencia*: Basing instruction on a “multiple-intelligences” view, in which different approaches play to different learner talents

6. *Total Functional Response*: Reconstructing the Notional/Functional idea with some new systemic twists

7. *Stratopedia*: Teaching learners the strategies they need so that they can learn on their own

8. *Lexical Phraseology*: Recrafting both the nature and substance of language learning (LL) to focus on lexical phrases and collocations

9. *O-zone Whole Language*: Engaging all aspects of language study—literature, language history, linguistic analysis, and so forth—in support of second language learning

10. *Full-frontal Communicativity*: Engaging all aspects of human communicative capacities—expression, gesture, tone, and so forth—in support of second language learning

Teacher/learner collaborates

The classification of learning styles (e.g., Kolb 1984 and Willing 1998) and teaching styles (e.g., McCarthy 1984) has received considerable attention in recent years; however, relatively little attention has been paid to how to match learner and teacher styles, either theoretically or practically. My first prediction is that this kind of “matchmaking” will occupy considerably more attention in instructional planning in the future. As an example of how this might work, I have borrowed some material on method analysis from Richards and Rodgers (1986). In a paper on learner and teacher styles and strategies in methods (Rodgers 1979), I synopsized the characterizations of learner roles and teacher roles for each of the eight methods analyzed in the text. I then suggested a matchmaking procedure by which individual teachers might consider the appropriateness of recommended methods depending on how they characterized themselves and their students. In other words, I tried to suggest how teachers might identify “good-fit” methods to adopt or adapt for use in their own teaching/ learning situations.

METHODS AND LEARNER ROLES	
<i>Method</i>	<i>Learner Roles</i>
Situational Language Teaching (SLT)	Imitator Memorizer
Audio-lingualism (AL)	Pattern Practicer Accuracy Enthusiast
Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)	Improvisor Negotiator
Total Physical Response (TPR)	Order Taker Performer
The Silent Way (SW)	Inventor Problem Solver
Community Language Learning (CLL)	Collaborator Whole Person
The Natural Approach (NA)	Guesser Immerser
Suggestopedia (S)	Relaxer True Believer

METHODS AND TEACHER ROLES	
<i>Method</i>	<i>Teacher Roles</i>
Situational Language Teaching (SLT)	Context Setter Error Corrector
Audio-lingualism (AL)	Language Modeler Drill Leader
Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)	Needs Analyst Task Designer
Total Physical Response (TPR)	Commander Action Monitor
The Silent Way (SW)	Pantomimist Neutral Observer
Community Language Learning (CLL)	Counselor Paraphraser
The Natural Approach (NA)	Actor Props User
Suggestopedia (S)	Autohypnotist

Shorthand identification of learner roles and teacher roles were created as shown in the two charts above. In application, teachers were encouraged to characterize their own teaching style (or a teaching style to which they aspired) and to characterize the learning style(s) they found predominant among their students. With this information, they then matched styles to learner roles and teacher roles in the charts. Close matches led to a discussion of how teachers and students might be matched and to an examination of procedures associated with the methods suggested as a result of the learner and teacher matches. Such procedures were assumed to be likely nominees for individual teacher adoption or adaptation. (For those

unfamiliar with the major features of these methods, I refer you to Richards and Rodgers [1986] or to Nunan's [1988] one-page outline of the text.)

If such matchmaking becomes theoretically viable, a major challenge for the future will be how to put such information into practice in ELT classes. This problem challenges other notions of how individual differences in learning and teaching can be analyzed and accommodated (e.g., Strategopedia and Multi-intelligencia below).

Method synergistics

Methods have been criticized for claiming universality of application as well as uniqueness in their individual properties and

particular insights. Although the search for commonalities across methods has been discouraged, such commonalities do exist. For example, one sub class of methods proposes that a prolonged listening period should precede production, and the other, that production should be a first target. One set of methods regards L2 learning as similar to L1 learning, and the other set views L2 learning as significantly unlike L1 learning. However, these supraordinate commonalities are too abstract to help a language educator searching for insights into the language learning process or for suggestions for improving classroom teaching.

In several earlier papers (Rodgers 1989, 1990), I examined method statements and

THE BIG B's OF LANGUAGE LEARNING INFLUENCE

Classroom external

- Birth—Native intelligence and aptitude
- Bloom—Optimal biological period(s) for language learning
- Background—Home and community past experience
- Bath—Immersion in a second language situation
- Badge—High status of second language in the community
- Bridge—Desire of the learner to join a new culture
- Bedroom—Language acquired from love partners
- Bread—Financial rewards for language learning
- Bullets—Physical threat for not learning a new language
- By-product—Language learning in association with other important learning

Classroom internal

(Refer to methods and learner roles on the previous page for method abbreviations)

- Brains—Requiring use of problem-solving, thinking capacities in connection with LL (SLT, CLT, SW, NA)
- Breezy—Experiencing LL in a minimum stress, low affective filter environment (SW, TPR, CLL, NA, S)
- Buddies—Undertaking LL with practice and support of partners (CLT, CLL)
- Belonging—Being part of a supportive LL community (SW, CLL)
- Biography—Building LL around personal details and interests of the learners (CLT, CLL)
- Bugling—Providing attention calls and surprises to keep learners alert and interested (TPR, NA)
- Body—Involving physical as well as mental self (SW, TPR)
- Bargaining—Creating situations in which language is used to negotiate meaning (CLT)
- Baskets—Providing mental categories for sorting and remembering language learned (TPR, CLL, S)
- Belief—Convincing learners of their LL success (CLL, NA, S)
- Bluff—Creating opportunities for learners to demonstrate more language competence than they actually have (TPR, CLL, S)
- Bounds—Setting LL goals which are clear, useful, and obtainable (CLT, NA)
- Beyond—Demonstrating out-of-class payoffs for LL (CLT, CLL)
- Beat—Orchestrating language presentation and practice with rhythm (S)

practices in an attempt to extract those assumptions about language learning that were critical to learner success. The result of these analyses of the general literature are summarized in the “Big B’s” chart on the previous page.

The chart identifies features that positively influence the learning of second languages. Features at the top of the chart are outside the context of the classroom and the control of the teacher. These are labeled “classroom external” features. The more relevant claims are in the second half of the chart, which shows those positive features that are within the context of the classroom and the control of the teacher. These are called “classroom internal” influences.

We know that teacher beliefs significantly affect teaching success. Teachers with a strong belief in the positive influence of one or more of these factors will then look to the methods that support these factors as sources of ideas for their classroom.

Curriculum developmentalism

A curriculum development model that has been used quite extensively in project design in the institution where I was associate director is called the KILA Model. It is diagrammed below. Educational design comprises four kinds of considerations, which we have called Knowledge, Instructional, Learner, and Administrative considerations. Successful educational design is achieved only in the area in which all considerations are in congruence and synchrony.

The components of the model are briefly explained below (for more complete discussion of the model see Rogers 1989).

Knowledge Considerations: In language education, knowledge considerations involve the input/output assumptions about what language is, as well as specification of the content—the topical range—of the instructional language examples or texts presented and the student responses anticipated.

Instructional Considerations: Instructional considerations reflect the input of teachers and other staff involved with instruction. They also include methods, materials, programs, technologies, and educational environments, as well as time and scheduling techniques and plans for reporting on learning progress to all stakeholders.

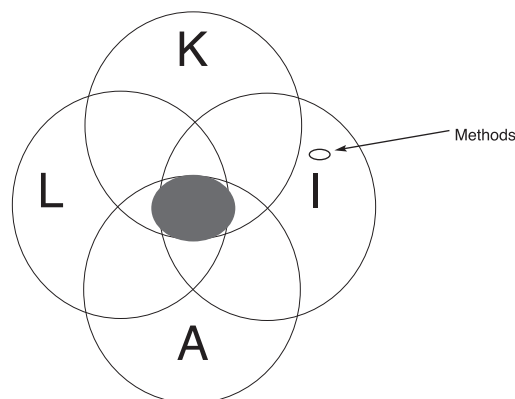
Learner Considerations: Learner considerations involve the ages, proficiency levels, and developmental stages of the learner or learners. Considerations include societal expectations and learners’ self-perceptions, prior learning experiences and preferred learning styles, strategies, environments, and groupings.

Administrative Considerations: Administrative considerations comprise the choice of instructional models and the scale, pace, and style of educational delivery. Plans for and execution of teacher and learner selection, evaluation, and promotion, as well as environmental development and institutional image, are also administrative considerations.

Successful educational program design and delivery demands successful integration of all four sets of considerations rather than a dominance by any one set.

It is important to note that what has been called Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has, in fact, reflected preoccupation with different kinds of considerations at various points in its brief history. The changing nature of CLT has made definition and description of CLT often difficult to formulate and confusing to follow (e.g., Yalden 1983). In its first phase, the “Wilkins Period,” CLT concerned itself with attempts to redefine the knowledge base, principally by defining language organization in terms of notions and functions rather than in terms of grammatical structures. In the second phase, the “Munby Period,” CLT focused on determining learner needs through various mechanisms proposed for needs assessment. In its third phase, the “Prabhu” Period, CLT

THE KILA MODEL



was defined by the kind of instructional techniques employed—group work, task accomplishment, meaning negotiation, caring and sharing, and so forth. So, CLT focused on *knowledge considerations*—notions and functions (Wilkins 1976)—in Phase 1; *learner considerations*—learner needs specification (Munby 1979)—in Phase 2; and *instructional considerations*—task-based instruction (Prabhu 1987)—in Phase 3. CLT is still seeking an integrated realization of these considerations.

As the diagram suggests, methodology or methods represents only a small subset of those considerations in the area I have labeled “Instructional.” The view proposed in this section is that we now require a methodology designed in consonance with other instructional considerations, just as these instructional considerations need to be in consonance with the other three elements of the KILA Model.

Despite some early proposals in respect to the curriculum developmental view for language education (e.g., Richards 1984) and some more recent texts on this topic (e.g., Johnson 1989; Brown 1996), the curriculum development perspective in language education, particularly in methodology, has been rarely mentioned and is unformed in conceptualization.

Content-Basics

The Content-Basics perspective assumes that language learning is a by-product of a focus on meaning—on acquiring some specific topical content. This view has supporters who hold that to teach language as if it were a set of patterns or rules or interactions apart from content is not only misguided, but impossible (Crandall 1997).

Content-based instruction has not adequately addressed two key questions, which future ELT teachers must address. These questions are “What content?” and “How much content?”

A late 20th century maxim of language teaching was “Don’t teach about language, teach language.” Content-based instruction proponents say, “Don’t teach a second language, teach content in a second language.” But language appears to be the natural content for language teachers to teach. If we are not to teach about language (e.g., grammar), but are to teach content

about something, what is the “about something” that we are supposed to teach? In most academic situations, language teachers are neither invited nor equipped to use a second language to teach mathematics, science, history, physical education, or other traditional academic content areas. Some teach, in a second language, content, such as astrology that does not compete with the academic curriculum. This brings its own set of problems. If content is inherent in language use, and if content-based approaches to language learning and teaching seem to promise more effective routes to second language mastery, then we must ask ourselves what content is best for the language class. The natural content for language people is language itself and literature. We are beginning to see a resurgence of interest in literature and in the topic of language as “the basic human technology,” as sources of content in language teaching. More such attention will develop in the future.

The second question is “How much content?” As in other ELT matters, there is often a polar, all-or-nothing approach to content-based approaches. Often there is a hidden assumption that language learning gains are only appreciable when content blocks comprise entire courses or blocks of courses, as in immersion or sheltered immersion teaching. However, much shorter blocks of interesting, meaning-structured units are also highly productive in language learning.

Samuel Johnson (1755), in the discussion of his plan for the famous Johnson dictionary, provides persuasive support for the use of individual sentences as content blocks. A major feature of the Johnson dictionary was the set of sentence quotations accompanying each word entry. These provided “special precedents” drawn from great writers. Johnson considered these sentences as necessary and sufficient contexts to exemplify the best use of word entries in speech and writing. Johnson’s practice of using sentence citations to show word meaning became standard for most of the major English dictionaries. So sentences, as Johnson proved, can be interesting, useful, and content-rich.

The centrality of L2 input as the driving force in language development is a product of

the comprehensibility, interest, authenticity, and relevance of the input to the learner. Sentences and longer texts can be judged against these criteria. Consider the following sentences of somewhat parallel grammatical structure in terms of these criterial attributes.

IT TAKES TWO HOURS TO DRIVE FROM PLAINVILLE TO CENTER CITY.

IT TAKES TWO HOURS TO GO FROM NEW YORK TO PHILADELPHIA BY TRAIN.

IT TAKES TWO HOURS TO SHAMPOO A CAMEL FROM TAIL TO HEAD.

The first sentence is comprehensible but not authentic, interesting, or relevant. Sentence two is comprehensible and authentic. Sentence three is comprehensible, authentic, and interesting (at least to me).

My point is that the relationship between content sized words, sentences, texts, courses, programs, and degrees of language learning are still unknown. Until the data are clearer, we might well follow the tenet, "Every bit of content helps." That is, every use of meaningful, relevant input contributes to language development. This means that when educators choose or create any materials for language teaching practice, these materials need to be interestingly content-rich.

Multi-intelligencia

The framework here is borrowed from Howard Gardner (1983), who proposed a view of natural human talents that is labeled the Multiple Intelligences Model. This model is one of a variety of learning style models that have been proposed in general education

with follow-up inquiry by language educators (see, e.g., Christison 1998). Gardner claims his view of intelligence (or intelligences) is culture-free and avoids the conceptual narrowness usually associated with models of intelligence (e.g., the Intelligence Quotient, IQ testing model). The chart below shows Gardner's eight native intelligences and suggests classroom activities that parallel each of these particular intelligences.

However, most teachers cannot create eight learning centers in their classes to accommodate the diversity of talents in their students. If the only intent of such schema is to raise teacher awareness of learner diversity and interest and to encourage teachers to plan instructional diversity in keeping with this awareness, this goal is reasonable. But is it enough?

As noted, the Multiple Intelligences Model is one of a number of models of student learning styles. The challenge for the future consists of determining the validity of these models for LL, developing sensitive yet practical means for assessing individual learning styles, and finding realistic ways in which such information can provide more effective LL experiences to the full range of learners within the constraints that define most of the world's ELT classes.

Total functional response

I offer this somewhat tongue-in-cheek designation for a reemerging interest in functional foci in LT methodology. Wilkins's (1976) earlier Notional/Functional proposals met with a number of criticisms (e.g., Widdowson 1979, Long and Crookes 1993).

Intelligence Type	Appropriate Educational Activities
<i>Linguistic:</i>	lectures, worksheets, word games, journals, debates
<i>Logical:</i>	mathematical: puzzles, estimations, problem solving
<i>Spatial:</i>	charts, graphic organizers, drawing, films
<i>Bodily:</i>	"hands-on," mime, craft, demonstrations
<i>Musical:</i>	singing, poetry, Jazz Chants, mood music
<i>Interpersonal:</i>	group work, peer tutoring, class projects
<i>Intrapersonal:</i>	reflection, interest centers, personal values tasks
<i>Naturalist:</i>	field trips, show and tell, plant/animal projects

(Adapted from Christison, personal communication, 1998)

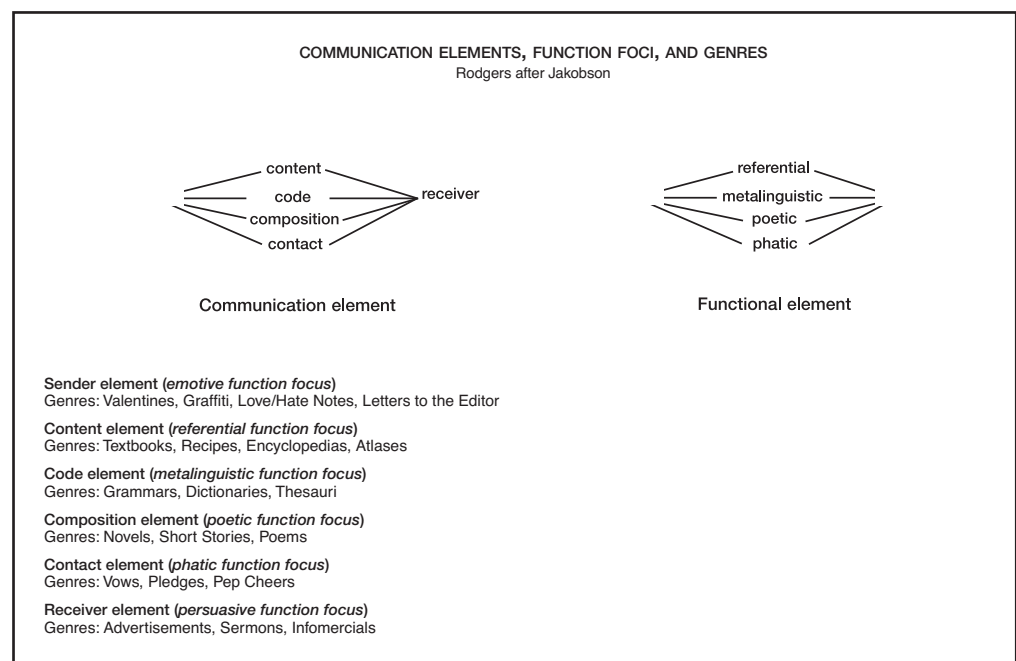
However, new leads in discourse and genre analysis, schema theory, pragmatics, and Hallidayan systemic/functional grammar anticipate a return to the foreground of functionally based approaches to language teaching. The general relationship between language functions and text genres can be sampled in my adaptation of a model of language functions proposed by Roman Jakobson (1960) (See below). Jakobson claims that there are six elements involved in any communication act and that associated with each element there is a focus function. For example, if the focus in communication of any message is predominantly on the message *sender*, the function is likely to be an *emotive* function (how I feel about this).

One pedagogical proposal has led to a widespread recasting of the first and second language program in Australian schools built around text genre. Students are taught both reading and writing within the framework of five basic text genres identified as report, procedure, explanation, exposition, and recount. This increased interest in pedagogical treatment of functional text types is, in part, due to increased attention to top-down processing in reading and listening. If students are aware of the type of text they are reading or listening to, they are better able to predict text sequence and text content. It also appears that text types may be more

universal than grammar patterns, and thus some positive transfer can be expected between L1 and L2 text structure. Most influential, however, seems to be the link between form and function at the text level. Knowing the form of a sentence will not tell a person much about its meaning. Knowing the form of a text will tell the reader considerable about the kind of meaningful material likely and not likely to be included in the text. Thus, I anticipate increased attention to language functions, genre, and text types in both L1 and L2 instruction.

Stratopedia

One of the objections noted to methods as a focus of methodology is that methods are seen as too top-down and too insensitive to learner interests and needs. The most clearly learner-centered approach sees the learner as the initiator of the act of learning. To prepare learners to assume this new role, a school of practice has developed with the purpose of equipping learners with appropriate learning strategies to take on responsibility for self-direction and a teaching approach directed to this goal called learner training (LT). The claim for Stratopedia to be a new force in LT methodology is clearly framed by Holec (1995:265), who maintains that “to teach the learner to learn, that is to enable him to carry out the various steps which make up the



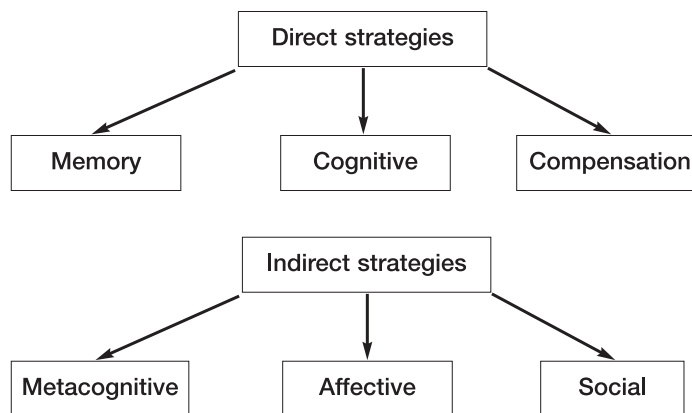
learning process, is considered the best way of ensuring that learning takes place.”

A number of taxonomies of learner strategies have been proposed, most of which have considerable overlap, one with the other. Oxford’s categorization was one of the first proposed and is arguably the best known. Oxford (1990) posits the six kinds of strategies as shown in the diagram.

Such strategies include, at the most basic level, memory tricks, and at higher levels, cognitive and metacognitive strategies for learning, thinking, planning, and self-monitoring. Research findings suggest that strategies can indeed be taught to language learners, that learners will apply these strategies in language learning tasks, and that such application does produce significant gains in language learning (see, e.g., O’Malley and Chamot 1990).

For example, the researched and highly successful Keyword Technique is a memory strategy that supports the learning of L2-L1 vocabulary pairs through visual imagery. Consider this L2-L1 pair: *pato* (Sp.) = *duck* (Eng.). A verbal link might be made between the Spanish L2 item *pato* and the English sound-alike *pot*. Then a visual image is created that links *pot* with the English L1 meaning *duck*, in this case a *duck* wearing a *pot* for a helmet or a *duck* crying while being cooked in a *pot*. Through the keyword link *pot* learners quickly associate *pato* = *duck*. Such methods tested in some 600 published studies have often proved three to four times as efficient as alternative techniques for storing and retrieving L2-L1 as well as L1-L2 vocabulary pairs.

However, this and other strategies contradict the long-held axioms of language learning which hold that vocabulary should be learned in context and that memory tricks will interfere with fluency and ultimately with ability to acquire advanced competence in L2. Some of language teaching’s most favored commandments will quietly disappear in the near future in order to support institutionally sanctioned training of learner strategies, such as the Keyword Technique. More generally, increasing emphasis on learning training in course books, curriculum design, and teacher training suggests that Learning Training will be a major methodology theme of the future.



from Oxford (1990)

Lexical phraseology

Lexical phraseology is based on an alternative view to the Chomskian premise that sentence creation is largely innovative, and any model of language must account for the capacity of every human being to create and interpret sentences that they have never produced or heard previously. In contrast, the lexical phraseology view holds that only “a minority of spoken clauses are entirely novel creations” and that “memorized clauses and clause-sequences form a high proportion of the fluent stretches of speech heard in every day conversation.... The number of memorized complete clauses and sentences known to the mature English speaker probably amounts, at least, to several hundreds of thousands” (Pawley and Syder 1983).

The large-scale computer studies of language corpora, such as the Cobuild study at Birmingham University, have examined such patterns of phrase and clause sequences as they appear in samples of various kinds of texts, including spoken samples. The Cobuild corpus comprises over 200 million words online. Studies of lexical collocation based on these corpora have provided hard data to support the speculative inquiries into lexical phraseology of researchers such as Pawley and Syder (1983). For language teachers, the results of such inquiries have led to conclusions like those of James Nattinger (1980:341):

“Perhaps we should base our teaching on the assumption that, for a great deal of the time anyway, language production consists of piecing together the ready-made units

appropriate for a particular situation and that comprehension relies on knowing which of these patterns to predict in these situations. Our teaching, therefore, would center on these patterns and the ways they can be pieced together, along with the ways they vary and the situations in which they occur.”

If, indeed, the mature English speaker knows “several hundreds of thousands” of such ready-made expressions, what should the language teacher and learner do in response to this knowledge? Is massive memorization possible or recommended? Is prolonged immersion in an L2 environment the only answer?

The practical implications for language teaching of these observations on the repetitive habits of native speakers in their speech and writing have only begun to be explored. One author proposes an “L1/L2 contrastive approach” to the study of lexical collocations, suggesting that “the teaching of lexical collocations in EFL should concentrate on items for which there is no direct translational equivalence in English and in the learners’ respective mother tongues” (Bahns 1993).

Some ideas for grouping and sequencing lexical phrases and clauses for L2 study have been offered (e.g., Willis 1990; Hunston, Francis, and Manning 1997; Lewis 1993). However, these are preliminary proposals and do not adequately address the enormity of the learning task that earlier-quoted commentaries suggest. Lexical phraseology is an approach in search of a methodology, and

this search will be one of the major LT enterprises of the coming decades.

O-zone Whole Language

Whole Language has been a major theme of language arts (L1) instruction in United States schools for the past two decades, and more recently has been of some interest to ELT educators (Rigg 1991) and the subject of considerable discussion. Whole Language advocates appear to share the view that language education should consider language in its broadest, most varied sense and should incorporate literary study, process writing, authentic content, and learner collaboration in language teaching. They feel that such foci make conscious attention to specific skill development undesirable and unnecessary.

An alternative view of this phenomenon is incorporated in the chart, “The Seven A’s.” My claim here is that a more comprehensive view of language assists the language learner in grasping what language is and what the broadest goals of language learning are, thereby helping the learner attain these goals. Fuller development of these ideas is found in Rodgers (1979).

Renewed interest in some type of “focus on form” has been a major theme in second language acquisition (SLA) research in the last decade. Various labels such as consciousness-raising, noticing, attending, enhancing input, and so forth, it asserts that students will not learn what they are not aware of. One approach is to bring more language focus to bear on literary texts through the use of parallel texts or comparative translations. Comparative study of two English translations of the same short story is an example of parallel texts. Study of the two translations highlights contrasts in the linguistic choices made by the translators and the responses made to these choices by the student as reader. Ultimately, students might compose one or more texts of their own, which would parallel in some way the texts examined. In pairs, one student might act as presenter/interpreter of one of the two short story translations, and a partner might act as presenter/interpreter of the other. A short example follows:

Parallel Texts: Opening sentences from two translations of a Korean short story.

1a. “Cranes” by Hwang Sun-Won (translated by Kevin O’Rourke)

ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION (THE SEVEN A’s)	
Aspect	Instructional focus
Language as <i>abilities</i>	Tool skills: reading, writing, listening, speaking
Language as <i>art</i>	Literature, creative writing
Language as <i>artifact</i>	Structure of English History of English
Language as <i>analysis</i>	Problem solving, critical linguistics
Language as <i>acculturation</i>	Interpersonal/intercultural Understanding/communication
Language as <i>affect</i>	Intrapersonal understanding Humanistic, self-awareness
Language as <i>activation</i>	Communication competence Persuasion to action

“The village on the northern side of the 38th Parallel frontier was ever so quiet and desolate beneath the high, clear autumn sky. White gourds leaned on white gourds as they swayed in the yard of an empty house.”

1b. “The Crane” by Hwang Sun-Won (translated by Kim Se-young)

“The northern village at the border of the 38th Parallel was ever so snug under the bright high autumn sky. In the space between the two main rooms of the empty farm house, a white empty gourd was lying against another white empty gourd.”

Examples of student activities based on parallel texts.

Think of the village as described in 1a and 1b as two different villages. Which one would you choose to live in? Why?

Write an opening sentence of a short story in which you briefly introduce the village of 1a as it might appear in winter rather than autumn.

Sentences A and B draw pictures of the positions of the white gourds in the text. What language influenced the positioning of the gourds?

Full-frontal communicativity

A number of commentators have reminded us that what linguists concern themselves with represents only a very small part of human communication. John Lotz, an early director of the Center for Applied Linguistics, often quoted “the fact” that language constituted only 1 percent of the information in human speech. Lotz (1963) identified rhythm, speed, pitch, intonation, timbre, and hesitation phenomena as the more important meaning-bearers in speech. One study done in the United States showed that in the communication of attitudes, 93 percent of the message was transmitted by the tone of the voice and by facial expression, whereas only 7 percent of the speaker’s attitude was transmitted by words (Mehrabian and Ferris 1967). Another researcher noted that “teachers find it hard to believe that the average American speaks for only 10–11 minutes a day, and that more than 65% of the social meaning of a typical two-person exchange is carried by nonverbal cues” (Birdwhistle 1974).

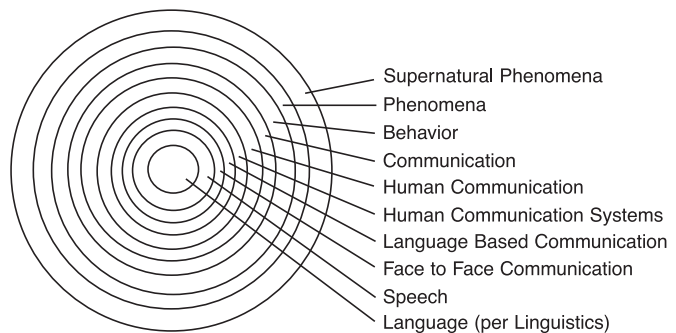
Recent commentators in language teaching have echoed these earlier messages. Brown reminds us that “We communicate so

much information non-verbally in conversations that often the verbal aspect of the conversation is negligible” (Brown 1994a). Despite these cautions, language teaching has traditionally chosen to restrict its attention to the linguistic component of human intercourse, even when the approach is labeled “Communicative.”

In reflecting on the future of LT methodology, I have attempted to survey this wider ground of human communication. The contexts for this consideration are framed in a diagram entitled “Communication Circles” that comprises a set of ten concentric circles with increasingly larger circles representing increasingly more comprehensive views of communication phenomena.

Within each circle are phenomena with assigned communicative intent. To understand the role of the phenomena in the inner rings in communication, and particularly how these might be organized for second language instruction, we need all the help we can get. Several 20th century methodologists have begun to explore the relationship between language and some of these other communicative aspects. A major challenge will be finding the teaching techniques and instructional time for integrating such insights into the LT classroom.

COMMUNICATION CIRCLES



- Language = Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, etc.
- Speech = Tone, Hesitation, Speed, etc.
- Face-to-Face Communication = Expression, Gesture, Distance, etc.
- Language-Based Communication = Writing, Codes, Deaf Sign Language, etc.
- Human Communication Systems = Hula, Indian Sign Language, etc.
- Human Communication = Film, Music, Painting, etc.
- Communication = Animal Communication, Extraterrestrial Communication, etc.
- Behavior = Motion, Eating, Reproducing, etc.
- Natural Phenomena = Storms, Eclipses, Droughts, etc.
- Supernatural Phenomena = Ghosts, Levitation, Mesmerism, etc.

Conclusion

In this article, I have provided an overview of ten potential paths that ELT teachers might find themselves traveling in the opening years of the new millennium. I know that teachers will be blazing many new trails of their own, and I encourage you all to share your experiences with your colleagues.

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Note: Technologists have been predicting the disappearance of the textbook for almost a century. In 1912, Thomas Edison boasted, “I am spending more than my income [on] getting up a set of 6,000 films to teach the 19 million children in the schools of the United States to do away entirely with books.” Maybe in the next hundred years it will come to pass.

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