Teaching and Learning English in Non-English-Speaking Countries

Teaching and Learning English in Non-English-Speaking Countries

By

Shahnaz Shoro

Teaching and Learning English in Non-English-Speaking Countries

By Shahnaz Shoro

This book first published 2018

Cambridge Scholars Publishing

Lady Stephenson Library, Newcastle upon Tyne, NE6 2PA, UK

British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data
A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT

The aim of this book is to discuss the importance and the role of learning the English language in today's world, especially in non-native English-speaking countries. The nine papers presented in the book 'Learning English in Non-English-Speaking Countries' cover a range of topics, including a critique of the norms of native speakers as compared with international English speakers. There is also a discussion of the three major circles which divide English speakers universally. Since in most south Asian countries, including Pakistan, the carrot-and-stick approach is still considered the only teaching method, I also discuss a few other teaching approaches which have been successfully adopted in some advanced countries, such as humanistic approaches to language teaching and the use of English literature, normally considered a subject for members of the elite class who have an advanced knowledge of the language. In one of my papers, 'Learning English through literary chunks', I suggest that proficiency in the English language, especially the skills of listening and reading, can be enhanced by incorporating into teaching programmes popular chunks, rhymes, quotations, sayings, proverbs and phrases on various topics from a variety of sources, ranging from great literary masterpieces to comics and fairytales. The aim of this book is to make learning English easy, convenient and enjoyable for a wide variety of learners. To achieve this purpose, I have designed English-language courses for nurses, for administrative staff and for teachers and lecturers by introducing some simple and practical teaching and learning techniques and methods. Although the centre of my papers is Pakistan, other countries which have similar linguistic issues can also take benefits from the teaching courses which I describe. In addition, case studies of two Pakistani children aged three and seven years are described and discussed in regard to second-language acquisition in children. English-language learners, teachers, students and office holders in non-English-speaking countries in which proficiency in English is both useful and essential are the main audience for this book.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

INTRODUCTION

The Indo-Pak sub-continent has in many respects remained one of the colonies of the British Empire. The British first arrived in India in the early 1600s and soon established trading posts in a number of cities under the control of the East India Company. By 1765, the Company's influence had grown to such an extent that the British were effectively controlling most parts of the country. This date is often taken as the start of what is referred to as the Raj, a period of British rule in India which lasted until independence or, more correctly, until the partition of the united India in 1947.

The region under British control was commonly called British India in contemporaneous usage, and included areas directly administered by the United Kingdom which were ruled by indigenous rulers, but under British tutelage, and called the princely states. This system of governance was instituted on 28 June 1858, when, after the Indian Rebellion of 1857, the rule of the British East India Company was transferred to the crown in the person of Queen Victoria (who, in 1876, was proclaimed Empress of India).

As far as the origins of the use of English in India are concerned, the English language probably arrived in South Asia with the British merchant adventurers who came to India for trading purposes to establish the East India Company. After the colonisation of India, English was initially only taught to the local population by Christian missionaries. There were no official attempts to force the language on the population as a whole, but by the 1700s, English had become firmly established as the language of administration. By 1857, universities had opened in Bombay, Calcutta and Madras, in which members of the socially advanced class preferred to study in English. English was increasingly accepted as the language of government, of the social elite and of the national press.

At Independence, the united India was partitioned into two main states/countries, India and Pakistan, and it was intended that English would gradually be replaced as the language of administration in India as well as in Pakistan. For India, there was no simple solution as to which

language should replace it. At first Hindi, the most widely spoken language, seemed the obvious choice, but following violent protests in 1963 in the state of Tamil Nadu against the imposition of Hindi as a national language, opinion remained divided. Pakistan faced a different situation. To replace English, Urdu (Hindi vocabulary enriched by words from the Persian, Arabic and Turkic languages, written in a modified form of the Perso-Arabic alphabet) was declared the national language/*lingua franca* of Pakistan in order to promote national unity. As the country was also home to several regional languages, five of these languages, Bengali, Punjabi, Pashto, Sindhi and Balochi, were and still are provincial languages. The decision outraged the various nationalities residing in Pakistan and one of the reasons for the separation of Bangal (now Bangla Desh) was a linguistic issue because the Bangalis believed that the Bengali language had the right to become Pakistan's national language as it was spoken by the majority of the population. Many times, the government of Pakistan has announced plans to make Urdu the sole official language and abolish English as the second official language, but none of these plans have ever succeeded. English is the language of the cultural, social and political elite, offering significant economic, political and social advantages to fluent speakers. The speakers of the English language automatically enjoy greater social status and have easier access to positions of power and influence. So although English is not an indigenous language of Pakistan, it enjoys the status of the 'undeclared official language or a second language'.

Despite continued pressure from nationalists, English is widely used in the media, in higher education and in government and therefore remains a common means of communication among the ruling classes and between speakers of mutually unintelligible languages. However, because of the negative propaganda against the English language and deteriorating educational standards, learning English has been difficult for the majority of ordinary people. Pakistan has a range of private English-speaking schools in which all the subjects are taught in English. Nevertheless, these expensive schools are out of the reach of the majority of people. In government-run schools, the standard of teaching English is not appreciable. People with lower incomes continue to search for English-language teaching organisations and language-learning courses in order to pass the examinations for various jobs as all the tests and job interviews are mostly taken in English.

The intention behind publishing this book is to provide various Pakistani government and non-government educational and professional institutions

with simple and practical language-learning courses which fulfil the requirements of people who want to learn English. The book has reasonably detailed notes about the four major skills of learning English, identifying and focusing on specific problems in regard to the English language and to professional requirements; it also considers the role of motivation in language learning, native-speakers' norms and international English. For English-language teachers in schools and colleges and in teacher-training institutes in Pakistan, the humanistic approach to language teaching is introduced and, along with the concept of L3 and the new inner circle in learning to learn, learning English through literary chunks is also presented. There are some short learner-training programmes for nurses, clerks and office bearers in various departments of Pakistan. Most importantly, for people who are interested in enabling their children to become fluent in English from their childhood, second-language acquisition in Pakistani children (two case studies) is also included. Because English-language learning is one of the most debated issues in Pakistani educational and professional fields, this book will be of great interest to a wide variety of readers including teachers, language learners, students, linguistic departments, general readers who are struggling to learn English and professionals who want to overcome the language barrier.

<div align="right">Dr Shahnaz Shoro</div>

CHAPTER ONE

NATIVE-SPEAKER NORMS
AND INTERNATIONAL ENGLISH:
A CRITIQUE

The English language is spreading rapidly all around the world. Perhaps it is not an exaggeration to say that it is the only language which has successfully become a global language at all levels of communication. As a universal language, it is raising different issues among people of different parts of the world. The interesting thing is that the debates and discussions on these issues produce a variety of results according to the different social and psychological needs and the perspective of the particular environment of the learners and instructors.

In this paper, I shall consider a questionnaire survey conducted by Ivor Timmis who explored two main issues concerning the pronunciation norms of native speakers and the differences between the English grammar described in the conventional way in ELT material and the grammar used in the conversation of native speakers. Timmis's survey generated a total of 600 responses from students and teachers of English from 45 countries. The idea of conducting the survey was driven by observing a class discussion about "appropriate norms and models for the class room". Interest was also accelerated by the research work already conducted on these issues by Prodromou (1997), Carter and McCarthy (1995), Jenkins (1998) and Willy (1999). Another key factor was Timmis's own determination to realise the differences between his speaking and his teaching of English. Principally, he wanted to find out the extent to which students and teachers of English want to adopt the norms of native speakers in pronunciation and the use of informal grammar in everyday conversation.

The question concerned with pronunciation norms was answered by 400 students from fourteen different countries and their views were confirmed by fifteen interviews held in Leeds in the UK. Slightly different questionnaires were distributed among the teachers attending an IATEFL conference in

Dublin in the Irish Republic in 2000; the participants were from 45 countries and they returned 180 replies.

In the question regarding pronunciation norms, the student respondents were given two examples of types of student and were asked to select one. The majority, 67% of them, preferred the model A student, who wanted to speak like a native speaker, and only 32% chose student B, who had an intelligible pronunciation for both native and non-native speakers with interference from his L1. Interestingly, 64% of the students who came from South Africa, India and Pakistan favoured student B, but for a good number of students, native-like pronunciation was the touchstone.

On the same issue, the teachers were also given a third 'no preference' option, and for student B and 'no preference' they had nearly same opinion. Many teachers opined that although student B also had a good standard, accomplishing the accent of a native speaker should be made a long-term goal.

On the second topic, grammar, three types of student were presented for the student respondents to choose from. This question was designed to find the extent to which the grammatical norms of native speakers are idealised by students. The majority, 68%, of the students preferred student E, who knew and used both formal and informal structures. Students C and D were each selected by an equal number of respondents. Student C actually used understandable grammar, both by native and non-native speakers, but realised that sometimes he was considered by native speakers to use incorrect grammar. Student D did not like learning the informal use of grammar.

Teachers, on this topic, were again given a further option of 'no preference'. Of the teachers, 54% preferred student E and only 5% selected student D. Native and non-native teachers equally chose student E, who knew the grammatical structure of written as well as spoken informal English.

As far as the students' choice for informal spoken grammar was concerned, two examples of conversation were given to the students. Example A was based on a sophisticated grammatical structure as written in the ELT material. Example B was based on a typical native-to-native informal conversation. The majority, 63%, of the students preferred example B and 34% chose example A. Also, 37% preferred the use of the kind of English in example B. It is also interesting that 63% correctly

identified the native-speaker extract and that those who disagreed with the use of the informal type of grammar did not identify the speech between native-to-native speakers. So for the majority of the students, the informal use of grammar carried importance only in speaking with native speakers.

Both of the examples were given to the teachers with two additional points: either to expose students to the natural flow of English, or to hide the exposure for two reasons, mainly because this type of style is unnecessary for communication between non-native speakers and secondly that it would be complicated for a non-native speaker to handle.

Timmis concluded that for the majority of the students, learning to communicate was more important, but for a significant number of them, adopting the norms of native speakers was the paradigm. Both the teachers and the students showed large differences as far as the informal use of grammar by native speakers is concerned. Timmis suggested that teachers should rethink their responsibilities and consider these issues in the context of achieving an appropriate understanding in the English-speaking world.

Timmis's study dealt with the two main issues which concern language learners and users; the pronunciation norm and the informal grammar found in spoken corpora. The motivation for the study was to determine the extent to which students and teachers want to acquire the pronunciation and data-attested spoken norms of native speakers.

Although the findings are interesting, the survey had several flaws. Instead of compiling a clear and deep survey questionnaire, Timmis had prepared quite vague models of students for the respondents to choose between and did not give open choices to either the students or the teachers to present their own views according to their personal experiences and experiments. The questions did not ask about which part of the world the participants lived in, their personal circumstances or the conditions in which they used English, which would have been important in order to understand the different thinking of teachers and students according to their locations, teaching and learning stages, involvement, environment, exposure, age, intelligence, professional responsibilities, future plans, job requirements, social needs, amount of work, purpose of study, motivation, patience, cultural background and regional conflicts and identities. Instead of just giving two or three models displaying the native accent, he should have included at least three more choices:

1. a student who prefers the GA (General American) accent of English,
2. a student who prefers RP (Received Pronunciation); and
3. a student who attaches no importance to English accent.

Some countries have their own complexities in and hindrances to acquiring English because of multiple political, psychological and religious differences. For example, in countries which were subjected to British colonialism and in post-imperial countries, the attitude of learners towards English is inevitably different from that of students who belong to the countries which, for instance, are part of the European Union. In countries where people have strong reservations about American and British policies and pro-European international organisations, the learning approach is entirely different from that in countries which are very impressed by western culture and society. Likewise, those who are religious fundamentalists look upon these issues differently. It would therefore have been more appropriate to divide the participants into at least three groups; ESL, EFL and native-speaking countries.

The questionnaires were distributed among teachers when they were away from their home countries and their familiar teaching scenarios. This could possibly have been a cause of them not revealing their real thoughts, but mainly this was because they had no choice other than to follow the words and the choices given in the questionnaires. The option of 'no preference' seems useless and served no real purpose other than to give respondents a neutral response option.

The respondents in a third group whose opinions Timmis obtained (in fifteen interviews) all belonged to just one English university. The superficial comments which were made by teachers at the University of Leeds clearly revealed a lack of awareness of the social, cultural and psychological needs of developing and underdeveloped countries to learn English. It was also not clear whether they had observed or taught in any of the Third World countries in order to comprehend the socio-linguistic differences and approaches there. Their comments threw no light at all on the choices made by the students and teachers.

It is unfortunate that the scores obtained by both students and teachers in Timmis's survey show no surprising results. Although students from South Africa, Pakistan, India and China preferred the choice of the model student who was not ashamed of having interference from L1, it is clear that competence to the level of sounding like a native speaker was the

ideal for both students and teachers. As far as the choice about grammar is concerned, preference was given to the student who had control of both formal and informal grammar. The vast majority of the students wanted to acquire natural and informal conversation, which seems precisely the opposite of standard written grammar. A considerable proportion of the student participants did not want to acquire the norms of native speakers.

The survey could have been effective if open choices had been given to the students and teachers by presenting a full and proper survey questionnaire instead of simply giving a few models, in order to ensure that the teachers and students would have a wide range of options for selection. Furthermore, Timmis did not state the time allowed to the students or the teachers to complete the questionnaire and he also gave no information about whether he circulated the questionnaires inside the classroom or out of it. The students should have been categorised into various stages of learning proficiency, by genres and by their requirements for learning English. Sadly, analysis of the conduct and the findings of the survey shows that it lacked many aspects which would have made the study worthwhile and helpful. Timmis (2001: 17) himself realistically stated that "It would be absurd to suggest that this survey provides a statistically accurate picture of the state of opinion among students and teachers, the sample is but a tiny fraction of the English language learning and teaching population". There is clearly a need for a broader and more comprehensive survey.

References

Carter, R.A. and McCarthy, M.J. (1995). Grammar and the Spoken Language. *Applied Linguistics*, *16*(2): 141-158.

Jenkins, J. (1998). Which Pronunciation Norms and Models for English as an International Language? *ELT Journal*, *52*(2): 119-126.

Prodromou, L. (1997). Global English and its Struggle against the Octopus. *IATEFL Newsletter*, 135: 12-14.

Timmis. I. (1 July 2002). Native-speaker Norms and International English: a Classroom View. *ELT Journal*, *56*(3): 240-249, https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/56.3.240.

—. (2015). *Corpus Linguistics for ELT: Research and Practice* (Routledge Corpus Linguistics Guides). New York: Routledge.

Willy, V.L. (1999). 'Markedness and Prototypical Speakers' Attributes'. In *Issues in Cognitive Linguistics*, Leon De Stadler and Cristoph Eyrich (eds), pp.567-576. Berlin.

CHAPTER TWO

L3 AND THE NEW INNER CIRCLE

The distinguished linguist Paul Emmerson proposed a new form of "fully intelligible international English" which he called L3. His proposal was a reworking of Braj Kachru's 'three circles' of language users. Kachru divided English speakers into three circles:

A: The *Inner Circle*: native speakers – British, American, Caribbean, Canadian and Australian people.

B: The *Outer Circle*: countries where English is used as an official language alongside other languages, such as the Indian sub-continent, some African territories and Singapore.

C: The *Extended Circle*: countries where English has the status of a second language, such as countries in the Far East, the Middle East and Africa, such as Zimbabwe.

Emmerson divided people into various categories and countries belonging to different L1s. When they get together and speak English, they speak neither RP (Received Pronunciation) nor GA (General American) even though they speak mutually comprehensible versions of the English language. He firmly believed that the country of origin carries no importance for an individual's ability to communicate effectively in an international context. He introduced two new terminologies:

1. *RP/GA minus*

An individual's appropriate pronunciation according to a written phonetic script with little accent from the L1. Stress on key words. No use of assimilation/adaptation, unlike native speakers.

2. *High-frequency lexis plus*

An individual who can use almost three thousand common words frequently. Uses the high-frequency portion of language, both vocabulary and functional language. Uses extra low-frequency words according to interest or occupation which are easily understandable. Uses only the most common phrasal verbs.

His three circles of intelligibility take in nearly all the speakers of English in the world except for absolute beginners. He identified six categories of English speaker:

1. Individuals who have an advanced level of English through exposure, education, experience or living abroad.
2. Individuals without a strong accent who are sensitively aware of the problems of non-native speakers. May be a native-speaker or teacher of English, or any individual with a different background.
3. Individuals with a reasonable level of English.
4. Speakers without a strong accent; may belong to a native or non-native country and use weak forms and a low-frequency lexis.
5. Speakers with basic levels of English, maybe at pre-intermediate level.
6. Speakers who cannot code-switch to L3. May be native or non-native speakers.

These six categories are formed into pairs each forming one circle. Categories one and two constitute the inner circle, whereas speakers of categories three and four comprise the outer circle and those of categories five and six form the extended circle.

```
        ┌─────────┐
        │  5 + 6  │
        └─────────┘
      ┌─────────┐
      │  3 + 4  │
      └─────────┘
    ┌─────────┐
    │  1 + 2  │
    └─────────┘
```
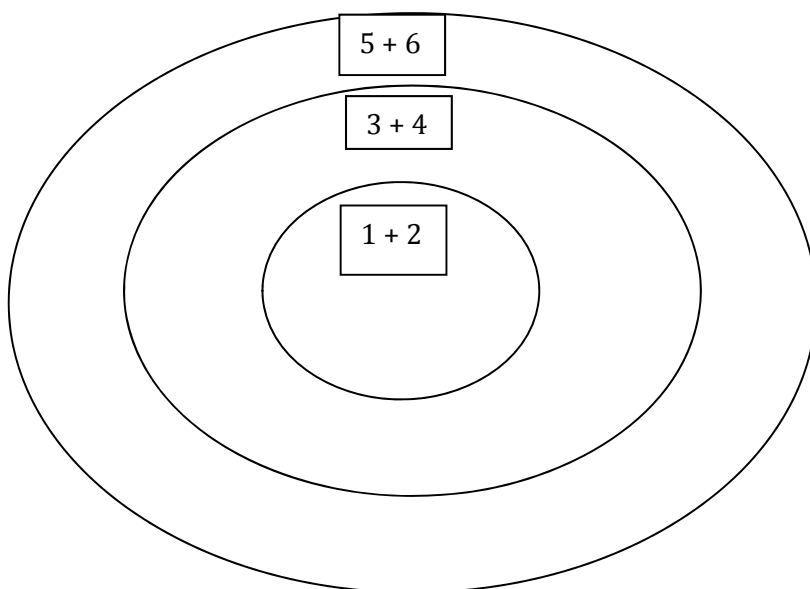
As far as grammar is concerned, Emmerson did not see it as essential but he did believe that it is an integral part of L3. Qualifications and exposure decide the importance of grammar. He gave three reasons for wanting to learn grammar:

1. To appear well-educated and not to be seen as a speaker of pidgin;
2. To become a fluent speaker; and
3. To achieve a sense of completeness and discovery.

In L3, the use of lexis needs little social and cultural context to be understood; he described this as a matter of choice. In his words, "what you see is what you get". His final formula appeared as:

L3 = 'RP/GA minus' with 'High-frequency lexis plus' (with 'personally appropriate grammar').

Language continues to change for a variety of social and cultural reasons. Our own tribal, provincial and national languages have all undergone these changes. Some languages have died, some are surviving and some are being sucked up by the most powerful language of the day which is, of course, English. From Gower to Chaucer, from Chaucer to Shakespeare

and from Shakespeare to Ben Okri, the English language has gone through multi-dimensional, visible and surprising changes. Today the English language has largely been accepted as a global language. According to modern research, around 1.5 billion people speak English as a first language, second language or foreign language, and the number is increasing each day. Undoubtedly, English has successfully become the language of trade, commerce, media, art, theatre, business management, science and technology. I, as a Pakistani teacher of English literature, firmly believe that English is the language which will take over almost all the languages of the world. People around the world are curious to learn to speak English for a variety of reasons. English has proved itself the fittest language to survive all challenges to come.

Since English is becoming the international *lingua franca* in numerous domains across the globe, it is no longer controversial to speculate that its native speakers are in the minority among the total number of its daily users. Linguists are researching into language with relevance to the problems of the real world. Multi-disciplinary approaches are being promoted to carry out research into language and related concerns in various fields encompassed by applied linguistics. This research into language is producing some creditable as well as complicated theories.

As already mentioned at the start of this paper, Braj Kachru, a well-known Indian linguist, divided English users into three circles, but the latest development of Kachru's classification was presented by Paul Emmerson with the claim that he had included all English users except for beginners into three circles. I believe that it is quite difficult fully to comprehend Emmerson's theory. He talks about RP/GA English. This is a time when English users speak many different dialects of English; the English spoken in southeast England, for example, and BBC English (what is called 'received pronunciation' or RP) are not the same and never have been. He does not talk about 'Standard English'. To have an advanced level of English is, for him, sufficient to be included in the inner circle whether a person is a native or a non-native speaker. A question arises here as to where is the place of intellectuals, creative writers, poets, philosophers, linguists and researchers? Can they be equivalent to what Emmerson referred to as "A good language learner or a businessman with many international contacts"? Within the same circle, he talks only about speaking ability. It is obvious that some people are very good at speaking and listening but have no competence in writing and reading. How can all of them be classified together?

Another question is 'Why just three circles?' They cannot classify the millions of speakers who speak English in all the continents of the world and have their own L1s, each with its particular grammar, pronunciation and phonetics. When these elements mix with English, they appear in a different way. For example, in my country when people speak English, we call it Pakistani English, whereas in Singapore they call it Singlish. It is the same in other countries where they localise English and speak it in their own way and in their native accent. In the Arabian language there are very good writers such as Naguib Mehfooz, but in the Arabic language, there is no letter 'P' and they pronounce it as 'B'. So what is the place of Arabian speakers of the English language in Emmerson's three-circle theory?

As far as phonological, lexical and grammatical features are concerned, Emmerson stated that "How much and what features of grammar appear in any one individual's L3 depend on the person concerned". Can it really be a matter of choice? My view is that grammar is an essential part of language. If a person thinks that he is fluent in speaking but does not care about singulars and plurals, he may use the wrong forms of verbs, he cares less about using modals and his language could not be called standard language. Without correct grammar, a speaker will appear to be illiterate.

Emmerson rightly concluded that the expressions of L3 speakers are transparent and do not carry hidden meaning. L3 speakers are objective in their approach, and their purpose for speaking the language is different. Native speakers, however, speak English not only to convey the content objectively but they speak subjective and metaphorical language wherein their lexis carries idioms and many layers of meaning, which is the beauty of language.

Emmerson's theory was based on native, non-native, well-educated, semi-educated, business personnel, teachers, students and people who have multi-dimensional backgrounds whether they live in the west or in the east. He considered all of them to be part of the English-speaking world. For him, the concept of Standard English has to be revised and reconstituted. When he observes English speakers of different origins and ethnicities who speak non-RP or non-GA English but it is mutually understandable and acceptable sometimes with a non-standard form of grammar, he sees the emergence of a new form of English which is already fully operational and functional among its users. This L3 is supposed to be simple and easy. The importance of grammar is certainly there but it carries only secondary importance.

Emmerson's theory is very important from another angle, given the fact that he is going to be the pioneer of the new forthcoming standard of the English language. Currently, the number of non-native speakers of English in the world is greater than the number of native speakers and it is increasing daily. The English spoken by non-native speakers is going to dominate the world very soon. In the near future it is predicted that all varieties of non-native English will amalgamate and merge and a new, blended English will come into being containing a new and different vocabulary, accent and pronunciation. In this futuristic scenario, the hegemony of native English will certainly diminish and a new standard of English will replace the present one.

References

Emmerson, P. (2005). L3 and the New Inner Circle. *Journal of Education and Development*: Oxford University Press, *19*(5): 12-14.

Kachru, B.B. (1986). *The Alchemy of English, The Spread, Functions and Models of Non-Native Englishes*. Oxford: Pergamon Institute of English.

Kachru, B.B. (ed.) (1992). *The Other Tongue English across Cultures* (2nd edn). Urbana IL: University of Illinois Press.

CHAPTER THREE

HUMANISTIC APPROACHES
IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Introduction

When different European civilisations and cultures came into contact during the Renaissance, learning foreign languages became a matter of importance. Since that time, different types of approach have been used in language teaching. During the First and Second World Wars and in the decades since, there have been many experiments in the process of teaching language. Some of the major trends and methodologies have been

1. the grammar-translation approach;
2. the direct method approach;
3. the reading approach,
4. the audio-lingual approach;
5. the oral or situational approach;
6. the cognitive approach;
7. affective humanistic approaches;
8. comprehension approaches;
9. communicative approaches; and
10. syllabus design approaches.

Language teaching has been a fluctuating field in which new theories emerge regularly and attract the attention of educationists. Some of the teaching methodologies become popular as soon as they emerge but others face a reluctant reaction to being accepted. Such has been the case with humanistic approaches to language teaching, which are seen as a purely American phenomenon based on an optimistic philosophy of education with a strong focus on individual and personal growth.

Despite the various methodologies and approaches, the traditional ways of dealing with the problems of learning and learners have often been criticised. Some of the theories are considered to be difficult to prove or irrational. Although these methodologies have had a significant positive

impact on language teaching, some educationists and critics have consistently discussed the lack of particular aspects in them.

Whenever a new theory emerges, it creates a sort of unrest among the people involved in the field. This has happened with the humanistic approaches to language teaching. In this paper, I shall go through the historical background to the emergence of the methodology of humanistic approaches in teaching language, the therapeutic origins of humanism, how language teaching has been affected by these theories and what sort of development has been seen in language teaching because of these theories. In order to do this, I shall describe some of the details of my own teaching context regarding teaching techniques and offer some suggestions on how to incorporate the humanistic approaches into this type of teaching system with reference to the age and language level of the students.

The historical background to the emergence of the humanistic approach to teaching language is linked to the humanistic psychology which emerged in the 1950s with the formation of the American Association for Humanistic Psychology (AAHP), whose founders included Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow and George Kelly. In the early 1960s, Rogers, Maslow, Kelly, Combs and Arthur W. and George Isaac Brown had a deep concern about the prevailing education system in language teaching. Their worries about the existing system were mainly that it involved learners' heads only; their feelings and emotions were completely missing. Rogers (1957) stated that humans have a strong tendency to react to music, beauty and colour. A number of techniques and methods had to be introduced to humanise the education system. Including these aspects in education can result in better learning. They described it as knowledge transmission, not education. They said that too much apprehension about the intellectual or cognitive part of learning would cause serious social consequences. They believed that the love and the excitement had gone out of education; students felt left out, distanced and ignored. Interest needed to be raised. 'Bringing together ideas and learning' seemed to be the motivation for their approach. Another viewpoint which was heard from the critics was that too much irrelevant information was given in the current system; more focus should be given to the human side. The major failing of the existing system was an inability to help students to discover the personal meaning of the information provided. In the opinion of Moskowitz, "our preoccupation with information has dehumanized our schools, alienated our youth, and produced a system irrelevant for most students" (Moskowitz, 1978: 9).

When discussing the problems and promises of educational leadership, a number of critics have commented that in a dead classroom, learning is mechanistic, routine, over-ritualised, dull and boring. Robotic teachers perceive children as containers or receptacles whose primary function is to receive and hold subject matter. The live classroom, however, is one which is full of learning activities in which students are enthusiastically involved and each student is genuinely respected and treated as a human being by the teacher because "Learning involves living with uncertainty and unknown outcomes" (Shreeves, Sims & Trowler, 2010: 12).

The development of humanistic approaches in English-language teaching had its roots in the therapeutic origins of humanism in the context of education. The humanist psychology of Rogers, Maslow and Kelly was concerned with the exploration of the individual's inner thoughts and feelings with the motto 'Let's humanise education'. The therapeutic origins of humanism in English-language teaching will be discussed next.

Carl Rogers (1902-1987), a humanistic philosopher, counsellor, therapist and educator, put forward the idea of freedom to learn. The aim of Rogerian counselling was to help patients to become fully functional human beings in society. Counselling had to be based on a completely philanthropic attitude. A passion for listening and a helping attitude will help to develop self-esteem in order to make a person more confident. Rogerian counselling suggested three qualities which characterise a good therapist; these are the conditions which are needed to promote growth and self-acceptance in client-centric counselling:

1. *Empathy*: the ability to feel and understand an individual passionately;
2. *Prizing*: unconditional positive reward; and
3. *Genuineness*: the naturalness of the therapist, creating a natural relationship with a person.

Rogers believed that these features should be the main qualities of a good teacher. A teacher should be able to transfer these characteristics to the classroom and to facilitate his/her students. Humanistic learning theory stems from individual uniqueness, wholeness and potential. Rogers, Maslow and Kelly referred to an interest in "Topics having little place in existing theories and systems e.g., love, creativity, self-growth, self-actualization, higher values, being, becoming, spontaneity, play, humour, affection, naturalness, warmth, autonomy, responsibility".

In regard to the emphasis within humanism, the question arises: How can education be humanised? What characteristics will make it humanistic? Moskowitz (1978) suggested that it can be done by building a warm, supportive, accepting and non-threatening climate because everyone of any age and in any culture has the same basic needs, and that awareness strategies can be used to teach any language at any level and within any curriculum. The focus should be on identifying strengths, developing a positive self-image and giving and receiving positive feedback. To understand self and others makes a teacher's work more effective. The way to judge and evaluate strengths and weaknesses should be very cultured and refined; no-one should be put down and everybody is respected. A teacher can develop better interpersonal skills through low-risk activities in which students have a right to pass some things related to the language-learning class. Encouragement is essential in foreign-language learning and no students should be made to feel small.

Some procedural steps must be followed before carrying out an activity in the classroom in order for students to be fully prepared. They should know the purpose of the activity and they should be directed regarding examples and responses. After instructions have been given, the target activity should be carried out and after that, feedback should be gathered, such as what the students think that they have learnt from the activity and their feelings about the work which they have done. Then the teacher should summarise the purpose and the learning for the whole class. This would have a positive impact in foreign-language teaching. This might enable foreign-language teaching to play an important role in education towards co-operation and empathy. Stevick (1980) described the following five features of humanism:

1. *Feelings*: this aspect of humanism involves personal emotions and aesthetic approval. It encourages positive feelings in people regarding their surroundings and possessions. It refutes those feelings which compel human beings to not take pleasure in their artistic senses.
2. *Social relations*: this aspect gives confidence for students to develop friendly relations and to be co-operative with others and it discourages anyone to go against the prevailing attitudes.
3. *Responsibility*: this aspect recognises the importance of being criticised and scrutinised by society. It values self-correction and prevents people from feeling that their importance is being denied.
4. *Intellect*: this aspect deals with intelligence, reason and understanding. It fights against whatever gets in the way of thinking and

rationalisation. The mind works through this with all its capacity and reacts if it comes across something which is difficult to prove through intellect.
5. *Self-actualisation*: self-realisation is a major part of this aspect of humanism. It is in fact a quest for the full realisation of one's deepest, truest qualities. This aspect believes that since conformity leads to enslavement, the pursuit of uniqueness brings about liberation.

Humanistic approaches draw their inspiration from psychology rather than from other disciplines such as linguistics. The language learner is regarded as a whole person with emotional and intellectual needs. Proponents of humanistic language teaching claim that their methods tend to reach those parts in learners which have traditionally been neglected. The three approaches which will be discussed in the following paragraphs, community language learning or counselling learning, suggestopaedia and the silent way, have been attributed to humanistic language teaching. Nunan (1991: 234) discussed a diverse range of classroom techniques and teaching methods and believed that

> … if learners can be encouraged to adopt the right attitudes, interests and motivation in the target language and culture, as well as in the learning environment in which they find themselves, then successful learning will occur, and if these affective factors are not right, then no set of techniques is likely to succeed, regardless of how carefully they have been devised or how solidly they are based on the latest theory and research.

Community Language Learning (CLL)

This is a method developed by a professor of psychology and a specialist in counselling, Charles Curran (1913-1978) and his associates. His application of psychological counselling techniques to learning is known as counselling-learning. The purpose behind it was to identify fully the roles of the teacher (the counsellor) and the learners (the clients) in the language classroom. It derived its primary insight from Rogerian counselling (Rogers, 1951). It was also described as a humanistic technique (Moskowitz, 1978); a blend of what the students feel and think about the learning of target languages. It is linked with another set of practices used in some types of bilingual education programme, referred to by Mackey (1999) as "language alternation".

CLL was primarily designed for monolingual conversation classes where the teacher-counsellor could speak the learners' L1. It is a method which is based on English for communication and is extremely learner-focused. The course focuses on learner empowerment. A typical CLL lesson has five stages (Bolitho, British Council, 1982):

1. Stage 1 - ***Reflection***
2. Stage 2 - ***Recorded conversation***
3. Stage 3 - ***Discussion***
4. Stage 4 - ***Transcription***
5. Stage 5 - ***Language Analysis***

In this format, several issues have to be taken into consideration if a CLL lesson is to work effectively, including the length of the stages and working with monolingual, multilingual or large classes. In a CLL classroom, students sit in a circle around a tape-recorder to create a community atmosphere. They reflect in silence about what they would like to talk about and can brainstorm their ideas on the board before recording them. First, they express their ideas in their L1 and the teacher translates the language chunks into English. If the students feel comfortable enough, they try to express themselves in English and the teacher can help to correct their English. When they feel ready to speak, they record their sentences into the microphone. Here they are working on pace and fluency. The third stage is a discussion about the students' views on how they think the conversation went and their feelings about recording their words into a microphone; they also judge their level of comfort while speaking for recording. They listen to the recording and transcribe their conversations. The teacher can intervene if the students want him/her to. At the start, the students might want the teacher to help frequently but the teacher should try to keep at a distance in order to enable them to learn by themselves (Parkinson & Maher, 1998). The teacher gives a further explanation and then gets the students to analyse the language of either the same lesson or the next one. This involves looking at the form of tenses and the vocabulary used. By this means, the students are totally involved in the analysis process, whether it is of tenses, lexis or discourse. The teacher can guide the analysis by choosing the most common problems encountered in the recording stages. The intention is to create a mutually supportive community in which learners 'grow' from a position of dependence on a teacher to the point where they are able to function autonomously. Richards and Rodgers (2001) stated that the timing of this will depend entirely on how quickly each class responds to all the levels of the CLL process. The teacher has to be careful to ensure that the