AUDIOLINGUAL METHOD; 
THEORY AND GUIDANCE FOR CLASSROOM PRACTICES

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Abstract

Audiolingual Method (ALM) emerged in 1950s on the shake of military purposes and its popularity declined in 1970s, criticized by linguists and practitioners in the aspect of language and learning theory as well as learning outcomes, together with the rise of communicative approach and other language teaching methods. The practice is still exist nowadays especially in teaching pronunciation, recorded materials and language labs. In general, this method based on structural linguistics and psychological behaviorism; purposed to enable students to speak target language like native speakers do; develops oral communication through drills and repetition; teaches grammar inductively followed by filling gaps exercises; teaches new vocabulary through mimicry; puts listening and speaking in the top priority then develop reading and writing on spoken basis; and allows the further writing and translation in teaching students at advanced level. This paper discussed these features as guidance for teacher to teach English by using this method.

Key words: audio-lingual, aural-oral, drill, and repetition

A. BACKGROUND 

The traditional language teaching method (GTM) failed to enable students to accomplish oral communication which is necessary in the latter age when people from variety of languages are more mobile. Old belief on comprehension on written texts as the most important in language declined, because at the time people from different languages meet, they need to speak each other. Consequently, ability in oral communication gradually got equivalent position and importance with the other skills in the society and education. Audiolingual method was a reaction to the former language teaching practices established as the need for oral communication increased from time to time in the USA.

Oral communication mastery of foreign languages was necessary in America during World War II for fulfilling military purposes in the field of war. It

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led to the emergence of a special language teaching program. As stated by Woodsworth (1967) during the Second World War trained speakers of foreign languages were in great demand². Similarly, Larsen-Freeman (1986) affirms that there was a need for people to learn foreign languages rapidly for military purposes³. Likewise, Brown (1994) states that World War II broke out involved the United States into the worldwide conflict. It heightened the need for Americans to become orally proficient in the languages of both their allies and their enemies⁴. Therefore, Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that to supply the U.S. government with personnel who were fluent in German, French, Italian, Chinese, Japanese, Malay and other languages, and who could work as interpreter, code-rooms assistants, and translators, it was necessary to set up a special language training program⁵. In summary, involvement of the U.S.A. in the war demanded the need to orally master foreign languages for variety works needed at field, which in turn required the former language teaching to be replaced.

The attempt realized in the establishment of a commission involving linguists from fifty five American Universities which in the latter period generated Adiobilingualism. Richards and Rodgers (2001) indicate that for satisfying the army need, the U.S. government commissioned American universities to develop a language program for the military personnel⁶. The regarding program came to be known as the Army Specialized Trained Program (ASTP) (Richards and Rodgers, 2001⁷ and Brown, 1994⁸) was established in 1942 (Richards and Rodgers)⁹. The

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² Woodsworth, John Alan. *An Analysis of Audiolingual Approach As Applied to Methods of Teaching Russian*. Simon Fraser University, 1967, p. 4
⁶ Ibid, 50.
⁷ Loc cit
⁸ Op cit, p. 57
⁹ Op cit, p. 50

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commission worked from 1943 to 1964\textsuperscript{10}. The product was formerly known as ‘Army Method’ which by mid-1950s emerged to become Audiolingualism (Richards and Rodgers\textsuperscript{11}, and Brown 1994\textsuperscript{12}).

After the World War II, this method got more popularity in America and around the world. It was applied in the schools as a language teaching method provisioned with language recording materials and the development of language laboratories. Richards and Rodgers (2001) indicate that ALM was used in America for teaching English to foreign students prior to their schooling in the universities\textsuperscript{13}, beside for teaching foreign languages to American students who would go to universities abroad for studying technologies developed in countries outside America which took attention since the launch of first Russian satellite in 1957\textsuperscript{14}. Audiolingual method got popularity ever since, provisioned with electronic media and materials. Helgesen (2003) indicates that the popularity of the Audiolingual method paralleled the establishment of language laboratories for dialogue and pattern practice drills\textsuperscript{15}. Such materials formerly provided in language labs around the world, and then CLT’s materials replaced a lot of them in the latter periods after the dominance of communicative approach.

After being used to replace GTM, the next generation of linguists and practitioners addressed criticism on its theory of language and learning. Chomsky (1966, in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) rejected its theory of language (structural linguistics) and learning (behaviorism) together with the rising of language theory—transformational grammar—and psychological theory—cognitivism\textsuperscript{16}. The development and change in philosophy of language and psychology at time took the ALM and all of its features into question. In the practice, (Kirch, 1967)

\begin{thebibliography}{9}
\bibitem{10} Loc cit
\bibitem{11} Ibid, p. 51
\bibitem{12} Op cit, p. 57
\bibitem{13} Op cit., p. 51
\bibitem{14} Ibid., p. 53
\bibitem{15} Helgesen, Marc. \textit{Listening}. In David Nunan (Ed). Practical English Language Teaching. Mc Graw Hill, Boston, 2003, p. 25
\bibitem{16} Op cit., p. 65-66
\end{thebibliography}
also adds that many teachers complain that their students memorize dialogues and can reproduce them perfectly, but do not know what they are saying\textsuperscript{17}.

In spite of the criticism, some of its application is still exist nowadays prominently in the use of language labs and other recorded language teaching materials for teaching speaking and pronunciation which provide drilling and repetition exercises. Nunan (2003) indicates that Audiolingualism is still popular today, whose influence can be seen in variety of drill based techniques and exercises\textsuperscript{18}. Besides, Jones (2004, in Richards and Renandya (Ed), 2004) points out that with the development of recording technology and the rise of Audiolingualism, such methods became the stock-in-trade of language teaching, and, although now discredited in the areas of grammar and vocabulary teaching, the ‘listen and repeat’ approach had persisted in teaching of pronunciation\textsuperscript{19}. Besides, the writer also considers that this method is applicable in certain situation for appropriate intended goals and objectives like other methods and approaches. Hence, this paper is written to be guidance for teachers to understand, to develop materials and to practice the teaching in the classrooms.

B. DISCUSSION

As indicated above, Audiolingual Method is the product of ASTP commission from 1943 to 1946 on the shake of World War II in America, which focuses on speech. Woodsworth (1967) points out that the term Audiolingual approach is use to denote a specific pedagogical orientation which grew out of language teaching programs for United States military personnel during the Second World War\textsuperscript{20}. Its basic distinction from the traditional approach is that language is to be taught as speech rather than writing and grammar, as living

\textsuperscript{17} Op cit., p. 383
\textsuperscript{20} Op cit, p. 4
vehicle of communication rather than fossilized set of printed rules and paradigms.\textsuperscript{21} Besides, ALM also known as Oral-Aural Method of which history can be drawn back to European History. Woodsworth (1967) states that oral-aural basis of language teaching was firstly announced by Jan Komensky (Comenius) in 1632, a Czech educator in his book entitled ‘Didactica Magna’ as an attack to GTM\textsuperscript{22}, which strongly proposed the primary emphasis in language to learn as it heard and spoken.\textsuperscript{23} It was formerly realized in British as ‘The Direct Method’ and revived in America as Audiolingual Method with several differences.

Lexically, ‘audiolingual’ is derived from words ‘audio’ and ‘language’. It is to say that this method offers to teach language through the transfer of listening (audio or aural or ear). This method is also known as Aural-Oral Method, which refers to the emphasis of using ear (aural) to listen and mouth (oral) to speak or to repeat. Then, the term ‘Army Method’ is from the fact that this method was originally established on the shake of military purposes, even though in the latter time it was applied in formal schools. The following discussion concerns with theoretical description of Audiolingual bases and instructional design.

1. Language Theory

Theory of language underlying Audiolingual Method was derived from the view of American linguists in 1940s and 1950s. Richards and Rodgers (2001) acknowledge the theory as ‘structural linguistics\textsuperscript{24}, Larsen-Freeman (1986) identifies it as ‘descriptive linguistics\textsuperscript{25}, and more progressively Brown (1994) recognizes it as ‘scientific descriptive analysis’ which was the work of ‘structural linguists’\textsuperscript{26}. In short, there are different terms in addressing the language theory of Audiolingualism based on the experts, but they are similar in its conceptual description as explained below.

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{21} Ibid, p. iii
\item \textsuperscript{22} Ibid, p. 3
\item \textsuperscript{23} Ibid, p. 4
\item \textsuperscript{24} Op cit., p. 54
\item \textsuperscript{25} Op cit., p. 31 and 44
\item \textsuperscript{26} Op cit., p. 57 and 111
\end{itemize}
Descriptive or structural linguistics is an effort to improve the former classic theory of language derived from categories of Latin grammar to a more logic and unique descriptions of structural organization of language. Larsen-Freeman (1986) states that in the view of descriptive linguistics, every language is seen as having its own unique system which comprises its phonological, morphological and syntactic patterns. Similarly, Richards and Rodgers (2001) indicate an effort to transcribe spoken utterances in language phonetically and later working out the phonemic, morphological (stems, prefixes, and suffixes, etc.), and syntactic (phrases, clauses, sentence types) systems underlying the grammar of the language. To sum up, Latin model of grammar description was developed, includes written and spoken features.

Again, Richards and Rodgers (2001) describe important tenets in language theory of Audiolingualism as follows. The first tenet is ‘structural’ which comprises the following characteristics:

a) Elements of language were thought as being linearly produced in a rule governed (structured) way;

b) Language samples could be exhaustively described at any structural level of description (phonetic, phonemic, morphological, etc.) and;

c) Linguistic levels were thought of as systems within systems—that is being pyramidally structured; phonemic led to morphemic systems, and these in turn led to higher level systems of phrases, clauses and sentences.

Linguistic description above displays the complete system of a language which implicates the learning of language as to master all the elements the system. It plays major role in developing and sequencing materials for language teaching. The other important tenet of ALM is that the primary medium of language is oral, which was asserted by Moulton (1961)

27 Op cit., p. 44
28 Op cit., p. 54-55
29 Ibid., p. 55
30 Loc cit.

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in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) who states that language is speech, not writing...a language is what the native speakers says, not what someone thinks they ought to say. This principle in turn determines the way they treat language skills—put oral communication in the top priority among others.

2. Learning Theory

Learning theory underlies instruction in Audiolingual Method is behaviorism which emerged at the same period as structural linguistics, and then both of them well-matched in combination to create the method. According to Brown (1994) at the same time, behavioristic psychologists advocated conditioning and habit formation models of learning that were perfectly married with mimicry drills and pattern practices of Audiolingual methodology. Similarly, Larsen Freeman (1986) points out that there was at that time exciting new ideas about language and learning emanating from the disciplines of descriptive linguistics and behavioral psychology. Harmer (2004) also indicates that Audiolingualism is the name given to a language-teaching methodology based heavily on behaviorist theory of learning. Similarly, Richard-Amato (2003) states that Audiolingualism (ALM), a new “scientific” oral method, was based on behavioral (Skinner, 1957) and adhered to the theory that language is acquired through habit formation and stimulus/response association. In short, emerge of Audiolingualism was closely related to the rising of structural linguistics and behavioristic psychology in term of period and philosophy.

Behaviorism views learning as habit formation through conditioning which in the practice realized in stimulus-response (S-R) association, which closely relates three elements: stimulus, response and reinforcement. The rule

31 Loc cit.
32 Op cit, p. 57
33 Op cit, p. 31
is: when an organism (animal or human) is given a stimulus, it will give response. If the response is reinforced, it seems to occur again; contrary if the response is not reinforced or given negative reinforcement (prohibition or punishment) it tends to not occur again. Richards and Rodgers (2001) describe the S-R relationship in the following figure.

![Figure 1. Relationship model of stimulus, response and reinforcement](image)

3. Principles and Characteristics

Derived from language and learning theory above, advocates of Audiolingual Method compose variety of principles reflected the development and application of this method in teaching English. Among them, Rivers 1964 in Richards and Rodgers, 2001) presents one of the most common principles as follows:

a. Foreign language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit formation. Good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes. By memorizing dialogues and performing pattern

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36 Op cit., p. 57

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drills the chance of producing mistakes are minimized. Language is verbal behavior—that is, the automatic production and comprehension of utterances—and can be learned by inducing the students to do likewise.
b. Language skills are learned more effectively in the items if be learned in the target language are presented in spoken form they are seen in written form. Aural-oral training is needed to provide the foundation for the development of other language skills.
c. Analogy provides a better foundation for language learning than analysis. Analogy involves the processes of generalization until students have practice a pattern in variety of contexts and are thought ot have acquired a perception of analogies involved. Drills can enable learners to form correct analogies. Hence the approach to the teaching grammar is essentially inductive rather than deductive.
d. The meanings that the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in linguistic and cultural context and not in isolation. Teaching a language thus involves teaching aspects of the cultural system of the people who speak the language37.

In short, Audiolingual Method principally perceived language learning as mechanical habit formation, emphasis the teaching on spoken form of language, provide analogy as basis for language use development, and teach meanings of word in linguistic and context of its use. Then, in the practice Audiolingual Method reveal the following features.
a. Priority is given to spoken rather than written language
b. Language learning is basically a matter of developing a set habits through drilling
c. Teach the language, not about the language (avoid grammar explanation).

(Nunan (2003)38

37 Ibid, p. 57
38 Op cit., p. 8
Besides, Prator and Celce-Murcia (1979 in Brown: 1994) summed up characteristics of ALM as follows:

a. New material is presented in dialog form
b. There is dependence of mimicry, memorization of set phrases, and overlearning
c. Structures are sequenced by means contrastive analysis and taught one time
d. Structural patterns are taught using repetitive drills
e. There is a little or no grammatical explanation. Grammar is taught by inductive analogy rather than deductive explanation
f. Vocabulary is strictly limited and learned in context
g. There is much use of tapes, language labs and visual aids
h. Great importance is attached to pronunciation
i. Very little use of the mother tongue by teachers is permitted
j. Successful responses are immediately reinforced
k. There is a great effort to get students to produce error-free utterances
l. There is a tendency to manipulate language and disregard content

In conclusion, the application of Audiolingual Method compatibly reflects the theoretical basis of language (structural linguistics) and learning (behaviorism: S-R association), both in the lesson development and classroom processes. It is seen that all the principles intentionally planned and applied in all aspects of language teaching as they reflected in the characteristics.

4. Focus on language skills

As consequence of the second tenet of language theory ‘structural or descriptive linguistics’ which consider oral as the primary medium of language, ALM places listening and speaking as most important language skills. Nunan (2003) states that priority is given to spoken rather than written

39 Op cit., p. 57

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Similarly, Richard-Amato (2003) points out that listening and speaking skills took precedence over reading and writing. Equally Larsen-Freeman (1982) affirms that natural order of skills presentation is adhered to listening, speaking, reading and writing. In short, Audiolingual Method puts listening and speaking at higher position than reading and writing.

Furthermore, speaking and listening are put as basis for developing reading and writing. Woodsworth (1967) states that language learning, as defined audiolingually involves the acquisition of skills in speaking and understanding speech, while reading and writing are secondary skills based on the spoken language. In addition, Richards and Rodgers (2001) point out that we learn to speak before we learn to read and write. Likewise, Carrol (1963 in Woodsworth, 1967) underlies that language is first of all, systems of sounds for social communication; writing is a secondary derivative system for the recording of spoken language. Again, Richards and Rodgers (2001) add that when reading and writing introduced, students are taught to read and write what they have already learned to say orally. In short, spoken language is used as basis for teaching written language.

5. Goals and Objectives

The long range purpose (goal) of Audiolingual Method is to enable students speak in the target language like the native speakers do. Larsen-Freeman (1986) states that the goal of ALM is to make the students able to use the target language communicatively. Progressively, Brooks (1964, in Richards and Rodgers 2001) state that the long range purpose of Audiolingual Method is to obtain the language as native speaker uses it...

40 Op cit., p. 5
41 Op cit., p. 17
42 Op cit., p. 44
43 Op cit., p. iii
44 Op cit., p. 55
45 Op cit., p. 5
46 Op cit., p. 59
47 Op cit., p. 43

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knowledge of a second language as it possessed by a true bilingualist. At this point, works what Chen (2011) states that in ALM, to learn the target language is to master the elements of the target language system. In short, the goal of ALM is to enable students speak the target language like the native speakers do, which comprises mastery of all elements of the language system.

The goal is actualized in a structural syllabus in which materials are graded according to prominence, levels and complexity. Richards and Rodgers (2001) point out that language skills in the syllabus presented in sequence: listening, speaking, reading and writing, which Larsen-Freeman (1982) indicates as natural order language skills acquisition. Students’ ability is graded into three levels: beginning, intermediate and advanced level (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Then, materials and instruction matched with the levels. Brooks (1964 in Woodworth, 1967) specifies that audiolingual learner is to hear more than he speaks, and is to speak only on the basis of what he has heard. In other words, learning speaking is on the basis of listening. Therefore, Richards and Rodgers (2001) states that language may be presented in entirely orally first written representation can be withheld from learners in early stages (beginning level). At early levels, when reading and writing introduced, students are taught to read and write what they have already learned to say orally (beginning-intermediate level)..., and at more advanced levels, more complex reading and writing task may be introduced includes translation.

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48 Op cit., p. 58
50 Op cit., p. 59
51 Op cit., p. 44
52 Op cit., p. 50
53 Op cit., p. 24
54 Ibid, p. 59
55 Loc cit

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Short range purposes (the objectives) of this method developed on the basis of language proficiency levels. Based on the explanation above possible objectives contained within subject matters are:

a. comprehending listening (early beginner)

b. obtaining accurate pronunciation similar to what they hear, control the structure of sounds and forms (early beginner)

c. recognizing speech symbols as graphic signs in the printed pages, understand the meanings of the signs when they are uttered by native speakers (beginner-intermediate)

d. able to write down what they hear and say together with pronunciation graphic signs (beginner-intermediate)

e. able to write certain type of text (advanced)

f. able to translate certain text (advanced)

Taking these objectives into practice of syllabus and lesson plan development will certainly take proficiency identification prior to composing the objectives statements. Proficiency level determines the objective statements and from the statements you can identify what proficiency level the students are.

6. Learning Materials

Materials are emphasized on everyday speech in form of dialogs provisioned with related structures and relevant expressions required to accomplish the communicative purpose of the dialogs in form of drills. Larsen-Freeman (1982) states that every day speech is emphasized in Audiolingual Method. The level of complexity of the speech is graded, however, so that beginning students are presented with only simple forms.\textsuperscript{56} Besides, Richard-Amato (2003) points out that sometimes, however, these sentences did resemble real communication in that situational scenario to be memorized included greetings and idiomatic expressions.\textsuperscript{57} Also, Diaz-Rico

\textsuperscript{56} Op cit, p. 44
\textsuperscript{57} Op cit, p. 17
(2004) indicates that teacher provided pattern drills based on carefully ordered grammatical structures in the target language\(^{58}\). In addition, Larsen-Freeman (1982) states that teacher presents the structures for any particular unit included in the new dialog\(^ {59}\). In short, the materials consist of structures or expressions’ drills and dialogs in which the structures or expressions employed applicably.

Audiolingual method involves variety kinds of drilling materials to present the structure of the targeted language. Brooks (1964 in Richards and Rodgers, 2001)\(^ {60}\), present 12 types of drills employed in ALM explained as follows:

1) **Repetition.** Students repeat an utterance aloud as soon as they heard it without looking at text. The utterance must be brief enough to be retained by the ear. Sound is as important as form and order. In this type of drilling, a teacher utters a sentence and the students repeat them again and again. After the first utterance is memorized, it is added with other utterance.

Example:  
**Teacher**  
- I met him.  
**Students**  
- I met him. (repeated again and again)

After students had memorized that utterance, it then added with ‘yesterday. In the end, it can be completely added with ‘*When I went to Simago-mago with my family for vacation........*’ The utterance is presented to the students part by part logically until the whole sentences are given.

2) **Inflection.** Words in an utterance/ sentence occur in the other utterance/sentence is changed due to grammatical rule.

Example:  
- I bought the *flower.*  
  \[ \Rightarrow \text{I bought the } \text{flowers} \]

- I *like* candy.  
  \[ \Rightarrow \text{She } \text{likes} \text{ candy.} \]

\(^{58}\) Op cit. p. 38  
\(^{59}\) Op cit., p. 44  
\(^{60}\) Op cit., p. 60-62  

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- I have a cat.
  \[ \rightarrow \text{She has a cat.} \]

3) **Replacement.** One word in an utterance is replaced by another.

Example:
- He bought this house cheap.
  \[ \rightarrow \text{He bought it cheap.} \]
- Helen left early.
  \[ \rightarrow \text{She left early.} \]
- They gave their boss a watch.
  \[ \rightarrow \text{They gave him a watch.} \]

4) **Restatement.** The students rephrase an utterance and address it to someone else, according to instructions.

Example:
- Tell him to wait for you.
  \[ \rightarrow \text{Wait for me!} \]
- Ask her how old she is.
  \[ \rightarrow \text{How old are you?} \]
- Ask John when he began.
  \[ \rightarrow \text{John, when did you begin?} \]

5) **Completion.** The students hear an utterance that is complete except for one word, and then repeats the utterances in completed form. Example:

- I will go my way and you will go___.
  \[ \rightarrow \text{I will go my way and you will go yours.} \]
- We all have ___ own troubles.
  \[ \rightarrow \text{We all have our own troubles.} \]

6) **Transposition.** A change in word order is necessary when a word is added.

Example:
- A: “I am hungry.” (so). B: “So am I.”
- A: “I will never do it again.” (neither). B: “Neither will I.”

7) **Expansion.** When a word is added it takes a certain place in the sequence.

Example:
8) **Contraction.** A single word stands for a phrase or a clause.

Example:
- Put your hand *on the table*. \(\rightarrow\) Put your hand *there*.
- They believe *that the earth is flat*. \(\rightarrow\) They believe *it*.

9) **Transformation.** A sentence is transformed by being made negative or interrogative or through changes in tense, mood, aspect, or modality.

Example: - He knows my address.
- He doesn’t know my address.
- Does he know my address?
- He used to know my address.
- If he had known my address.

10) **Integration.** Two separate utterances are integrated into one. Example:

- They must be honest. This is important.
  \(\rightarrow\) It is important that they must be honest
- I know that man. He is looking for you.
  \(\rightarrow\) I know the man who is looking for you....

11) **Rejoinder.** The students make an appropriate rejoinder to a given utterance. He is told in advance to respond in one of the following ways:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expressions</th>
<th>Reply</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Be polite.</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Thank you!</td>
<td>- You are welcome!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- May I take one?</td>
<td>- Certainly!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Agree.</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- He is following us.</td>
<td>- I think you’re right.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- This is good coffee.</td>
<td>- It’s very good.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12) **Restoration.** The students are given a sequence of words that have been culled from a sentence but still bear its basic meaning. He uses these
words with a minimum of changes and additions to restore the sentence to its original form. He may be told whether the time is present, past or future. Example: Restore the following words into Present Continuous!

- Students/wait/bus.
  → The students are waiting for the bus.

- Boys/build/house/tree.
  → The boys are building a house on a tree.

They may also be not told the tense, but give them clearer clues.
Example: Change the following words into correct sentences!

- Students/waiting/bus.
  → The students are waiting for the bus.

- Boys/built/house/tree.
  → The boys built a house on a tree.

7. Learning Experience

As described in theory of learning section, learning experience in ALM is develop on the basis of behaviorism which views learning process as habit formation. Nunan (2003) points out that Audiolingualism was the first method to be based on a theory of learning behaviorism, which viewed all learning as a process of forming habits, and a theory of language-structural linguistics. In addition, Diaz-Rico (2004) states that students developed correct language habits by repetitious training, often used technology such as tape recording in language laboratories. In short, learning activities in ALM is based on the view of behaviorism which in the application develops language through repetition and use recorded materials and language labs.

61 Op cit, p. 5
ALM doesn’t allow the teaching of grammar rules deductively; the techniques applied to the teaching of structure are through analogical examples (inductive) in form of drills and dialogs. Richard-Amato (2003) points out that rules were presented but not formally explained63. Similarly, Nunan (2003) states that ALM teaches the language, not about the language. (Avoid teaching grammar rules. Get learners to develop their skills through drill and practice-teach through ‘analogy’ not ‘analysis’)64. In conclusion, teaching grammar in ALM is inductive through drills and repetition.

Vocabulary is presented with grammar in dialogs, strictly limited in context, and helped with the use of teaching aids, demonstration and association. Larsen-Freeman (1986) points out that new vocabulary and structure are presented through dialogs65, is contextualized within the dialogs66, using relevant things or pictures67. Similarly, Administrator (2011) states that vocabulary is strictly limited and learned in context. Concrete vocabulary is taught through demonstration, objects and pictures. Abstract vocabulary is taught through association of ideas68. In brief, vocabulary is taught contextually in dialogs facilitated with aids in order to help students understand the meaning without consulting dictionary.

Teacher is authority in the classroom; he prepares the materials, performs and controls the process of language learning, on the other hand students are performers and imitators. Larsen-Freeman (1982) points out that in ALM the teacher is like an orchestra leader, directing and controlling the language behavior of the students. He or she also is responsible for providing

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63 Op cit, p. 17
64 Op cit, p. 5
65 Op cit., p. 43
66 Ibid, p. 44
67 Ibid, p. 37

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students with a good model for imitation\textsuperscript{69}. Role of the teacher was to direct and control students’ behavior, provide a model, and reinforce correct responses (Doggett, 1986 in Diaz-Rico, 2004)\textsuperscript{70}. On the other hand, according to Larsen-Freeman (1982) students in ALM are imitators of the teacher’s model or tapes supplied for model speakers. They follow the teacher’s directions and respond as accurately and as rapidly as possible\textsuperscript{71}. In short, teachers are responsible in providing the materials, performing and controlling the learning activities and reinforcing the correct responses, and at the same time students are performing the directions and imitating the given materials.

The activities are variety types of drill techniques and repetition to familiarize students with the sounds and structural pattern of the target language, focus on oral communication from grammar practices to dialog. Nunan (2003) states that language learning is...drilling\textsuperscript{72}. Fries (1945, in Savignon, 1982) adds that the practice which the student contributes must be oral practice\textsuperscript{73}. Additionally, Bailey (2003) points out that people supposedly learned to speak by practicing grammatical structures and then later using them in conversation\textsuperscript{74}. The related types of drills are extracted as follows:

- **Dialog memorization.** Students memorize a short dialogue through mimicry; students usually take the role of one person in the dialog, and teacher the other.

- **Backward build-up (expansion) drill.** The teacher breaks up a long line to several parts. Students repeat the sentence part by part, usually begins from the last part of the line.

\textsuperscript{69} Op cit, p. 43
\textsuperscript{70} Op cit, p. 38
\textsuperscript{71} Op cit, p. 43
\textsuperscript{72}Op cit, p. 5
\textsuperscript{73}Savignon, Sandra J. *Communicative Competence. Theory and Classroom Practice.* Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1982, p. 20
\textsuperscript{74} Bailey, Kathleen M. *Speaking.* In David Nunan (Ed). *Practical English Language Teaching.* Mc Graw Hill, Boston, 2003, p. 49
- **Repetition drill.** Students are asked to repeat the teacher’s model accurately and as quickly as possible.

- **Chain drill.** Chain of conversation that forms around the room as students, one by one, ask and answer questions of each other.

- **Single slot substitution drill.** The teacher says a line, usually from a dialog. Next, the teacher says a word or phrase—called the cue. The students repeat the line the teacher has given them, substituting the cue into the line in its proper place.

- **Multiple slot substitution drill.** This is similar to the single slot substitution. The difference is that the teacher gives cue phrases one at a time that fit into different slots in the dialog line.

- **Question and answer drill.** This drill gives students practice with answering questions provided by the teacher quickly and correctly.

- **Use of minimal pairs.** The teacher works with pair of words which differ in only one sound, e.g. sheep/ship. Students are initially asked to perceive the difference between the two words and later to be able to say the words.

- **Complete the dialog.** Selected words are erased from a dialog students have learned. Students complete the dialog by filling in the blanks with the missing words.

- **Grammar game.** The games are designed to get students to practice grammar point within a context (Larsen-Freeman, 1982)\(^\text{75}\).

There are two types of procedure by which ALM lessons are performed; top down (from drill to dialogs) and bottom up (from dialogs to drills) model. Richards (2006: 7) describes the procedure as follows:

1) Students first hear a model dialogue (either read by the teacher or tape) containing key structures that are focus of the lesson. They repeat each line of the dialogue, individually and in chorus. The teacher pays attention to pronunciation, intonation, and fluency. Correction of mistakes of

\(^{75}\) Op cit, p. 45-47
pronunciation or grammar is direct and immediate. The dialogue is memorized gradually, line by line. A line may be broken down into several phases if necessary. The dialogue is read aloud in chorus, one half saying one speaker’s part the other half responding. The students consult their book throughout this phase.

2) The dialogue is adapted to the students’ interest or situation, through changing certain key words or phrases. This is acted out by the students.

3) Certain key structures from the dialogue are selected and used as the basis for pattern drills of different kinds. These are first practiced in chorus and then individually. Some grammatical explanation is offered at this point, but this is kept to an absolute minimum.

4) The students may refer to their textbook, and follow up reading writing, or vocabulary activities based on the dialogue may be introduced.

5) Follow-up activities may take place in the language laboratory, where further dialogue and drill work is carried out.\(^{76}\)

Another procedure described by Nunan (2003) is as follows:

1) Present the new language item to be learned, giving a clear demonstration of its meaning through nonverbal means such as by picture or actions. (Do not give grammar explanation).

2) Model the target pattern, using a number of examples.

3) Get the whole class to mimic and memorize the new pattern following the teacher’s model.

4) Introduce a substitution drill, first to the whole class, then with the class divided into two, and then with individual responses.

5) Repeat the first four steps, using negative versions of the target structure.

6) Repeat the first four steps, using interrogative (question) versions of the target structure.

\(^{76}\)Richards, Jack C. *Communicative Language Teaching Today*. 2006. Retrieved from [www.cambridge.com](http://www.cambridge.com) in June 10, 2008 at 05.49 PM
7) Check for transfer, using previously unhearsed cues. Solicit both whole class and individual responses.⁷⁷

8. Evaluation

Evaluation of language lessons in this method is made compatible with objectives of each lesson. Consistent with the objective items described in the section, the evaluation flexible with students proficiency level may cover:
- ability in comprehending listening utterances
- ability in pronouncing utterances and dialogs
- ability to identify speech symbols and graphic signs
- ability to write down utterances with the speech symbols and graphic signs
- ability to memorize texts or dialogs
- ability to write certain type text, and
- ability to translate text

C. CONCLUSION

Audioliolingual method is language teaching originated by linguists in America during World War II on the shake of military purposes, emerged due to the inability of GTM to make students accomplish oral communication skills. This method is based on structural/descriptive linguistics which developed language view to more details and unique more than Latin model of grammar description, beside put speech on top position of language skills.

Instruction is based on the theory of psychological behaviorism which was emerged at the same time as structural linguistics. It views learning as habit formation which in ALM actualized in drilling and repetition practices. There are many kinds of drills and techniques by which the materials are presented to the students, of which purpose is to enable students speaks the targeted language communicatively like the native speakers do.


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In the latter age, this method is discredited in the aspects of language and learning theory as well as practical outcomes. This method declined in 1970s, but the practice is still exist nowadays especially in teaching pronunciation and other recorded language teaching materials as well as language labs.

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