There is a Slavonic proverb "If you wish to talk well, you must murder the language first." This, of course, implies that when a person tries to use a (foreign) language effectively in speech, fear of committing errors should not hold him back. Errors teach a man how to avoid them. Very often teachers of language overlook this and demand of their students faultless accuracy and fluency from the beginning in spite of the training they get in various approaches and methods of language teaching. This attitude of teachers instills diffidence into the students and hampers quick learning. Even a cursory glance at the varieties of language teaching methods that have existed, and still exist, will show that it is not possible to establish a simple dichotomy between different approaches to language teaching. But, if we must refer to polarities in methods of teaching, there are methods generating from an inductive view of language learning and those from a deductive view.

Methods related to the inductive approach to language teaching tended to stress use and practice. Learning could take place, it was assumed, only if the
thing that was symbolised was actually present in its own form, or in the form of a representation. The rules of grammar, as these are characterised by the grammarians, were thought to be of little use to the teaching of language, and explanation was considered unimportant and misleading. Proponents of the Direct Method regarded cultural content as the most important tool in inductive language teaching; the foreign patterns of behaviour that went with the language had to be taught as an indivisible part of the language.

In contrast, methods that related to the deductive approach took the written word (as opposed to the spoken word) to have priority of importance. It sought to teach the structural regularities of the system, leaving the learner to adduce or exemplify in contexts of use. The most common of the methods in the deductive tradition was the Grammar-Translation Method. It frequently attempted to inculcate grammar through explanations of grammatical rules of a foreign language by translation into the mother tongue.

As seen in the earlier chapter, behaviourist approaches to language learning and acquisition emphasise that learning involves forming 'habits'. Language habits can be correct or incorrect, depending on whether the sentences that are used are structurally identical
with observable language data. Speech is as Important for the second language learners as it is for first language learners. Great emphasis was placed on the eradication of 'mother tongue' influences in second language learning. Not only are most errors directly traceable to the interference from the first language, but so great is the difference between the first and the second languages likely to be that there is no possible useful role that can be played by the former in the learning of the latter.

Now, we enter into yet another recent and important phase of language learning. Chomsky's appeal is to the notion of linguistic "tacit knowledge" as opposed to the notion of a repertoire of imitative verbal behaviours in the performance of some "act". The behaviouristic view of the nature of language learning was savagely attacked by Chomsky in the 1950s and in the years that followed he set out to produce a linguistic theory which would supersede the structuralistic model of Bloomfield and his followers. The resulting development of transformational-generative grammar did not have a direct impact on language teaching but an alternative learning theory, known as cognitive-code, was developed. It placed emphasis more on the conscious understanding of the rules which lead to the production of
linguistic patterns than on unconscious learning of the patterns themselves. Wow this "tacit knowledge" is increasingly be in/;-, equated to the notion of "communication competence".

The ultimate aim in learning a second language must generally be to achieve the same intelligibility and linguistic creativity that the native speaker possesses. The criterion of our success as teachers is not whether our pupils can remember so many sentences, so many phrases and so many words that they have been taught, but whether they can construct new utterances in the languages. It follows that the principal task in the learning of a second language is the mastery of the finite system by which linguistic creativity is achieved. One question that has to be discussed is whether languages are learnt by the same psychological processes as they are acquired. The most obvious contrast between language learning and language acquisition is the amount of exposure to language. Language learning mainly takes place in formal classroom situations and hence is a conscious effort at learning a language. Language acquisition, on the other hand, is an unconscious process of gaining a language because the learner is more exposed to the language at home, while
at play in the classroom and so on. For language learning to be effective, the learner must be provided with opportunities to observe not only from among the forms that are the immediate subject of the language but all the forms of the language that have been learned up to that point.

In this context it must be understood that both cognitive-code and habit-formation theories have a role to play in language acquisition and language learning. Students should not be discouraged from thinking about the language and making use of generalisations, but, at the same time, the value of simple repetition, for many students, should not be ignored. The teacher should be sensitive to the individual needs of the students. The sensitivity to individual needs is the major characteristic of the Functional-Notational Approach to language teaching, as has already been explained.

The new approach adopted now is evolved from the earlier approaches and reflects ideas of the past as well as of the present and gives a lot of importance to student involvement. In India, only three approaches have been elaborately tried so far in English language teaching. They are the Grammar-Translation Approach, the Structural Approach and the Situational Approach. But, to understand the present trend called the
Communicative Approach, it becomes imperative that all the different approaches with their underlying linguistic theories must be at least reviewed.

The Grammar-Translation Method concerns itself primarily with the written language and ignores authentic spoken communication and variations of language which go with it. An alternative was provided by the Direct Method which emphasised aural-oral skills and rejected the use of the students’ mother tongue. The Direct Method provided the chance for intensive immersion in the second language and tried to emphasise effective language use rather than the intellectual analysis characteristic of the Grammar-Translation Method. A.S. Hornby, West and Gatenby were the pioneers in Britain who contributed much to the shift from the Grammar-Translation Method to the Direct Method.

By this time Skinner’s behaviouristic theory, viewing language learning as habit formation, had gained much attention in the field of linguistics. Linguists like Bloomfield and Fries started applying the idea of structural linguistics to language teaching. This resulted in the Structural Approach.

It took some time for the next theoretical discussion to develop into a full-fledged 'method' and this was the first time that language teaching methods
became primarily responsive to linguistic and psychological theories rather than to the institutions and arguments of successful teachers. What emerged after the Structural Approach was the audio-lingual method. As against the direct and reading method in this audio-lingual method, the emphasis was on long dialogues, usually centred on one or more carefully-graded structures. It was a string tenet of audio-lingualism that grammar should be learned unconsciously.

Then came the Situational Approach with unit titles such as "At the Supermarket", "At the Post Office" etc. Nearly every utterance in the dialogue stemmed from that theme or that centre of interest. The utterances were all related to one social situation.

Human language differs from animal language not only in the unique way it exploits sounds, the substance of expression, but also in its enormous subtlety of variation in constructing a complex social interaction. Language is central to human experience and the faculty of language is the faculty of linguistic creation. A firm mastery of the finite system of a language will speed up this creativity. The cognitive-code placed emphasis on the conscious learning of the finite system. The Chomskyan notion of
competence in sentence-based and enables the language user to produce and comprehend sentences that are new. The Functional-Notional Approach served as a bridge between the habit-formation theory and the cognitive-code theory. Within the developmental matrix in which knowledge of sentences of a language is acquired children also acquire knowledge of a set of ways in which sentences are used. Both the notions and functions were taken into account before the methodology was decided on. This effected a switch of attention from teaching the language system to teaching language as communication. When this shift became more pronounced, it was labelled the "communicative movement" or the "Communicative Approach". This approach has tended to concentrate on teaching the use of the language in social situations rather than teaching the grammatical rules that we need to produce correct sentences. As a result, there have been a number of interesting practical developments. From a finite experience of speech acts and their interdependence with socio-cultural features, the learners develop a general theory of speech to conduct and interpret social life. Therefore, this Communicative Approach implies the following preparatory activities as
1. The needs of the learners are analysed to find out what types of language use are most necessary for them.

2. The syllabus is specified not only in terms of the language items learners are likely to need, but also in terms of meanings that they may want to express and the things they may want to do with their language.

3. Materials are developed which take into account the different ways in which people use language—they may be organised around topics, or functions of language—and they are so organised that students are forced to try to express themselves through the language, often without much help from the teacher.

4. Teachers are trained to use group work and simultaneous pair work in class so that students have as many opportunities as possible to work intensively on their own.

5. Materials and techniques are devised to individualise work so that all students in a class do not have to work in the same way, at the same pace, at the same time.
6. Language teaching is seen as an effort to involve the whole person and it is not treated as a purely technical exercise but as related to the genuine feelings, interests and needs of students.

7. It is assumed that students will necessarily make mistakes as they learn a new language and that they need the opportunity to experiment with language, even if that means making mistakes while they do so. (4)

Throughout the 1970s teachers continued to teach with procedures drawn from Grammar-Translation', Direct and audio-lingual methods, and no doubt from many other methods. Nevertheless, it is probably fair to say that all teachers will be gradually influenced by the change demanded by the Communicative Approach.

The influence of this approach was felt in the beginning of the 1980s. Of particular interest is a project in schools in South India whose progress was watched closely by linguists all over the world. A. P. R. Howatt, in A History of English Language Teaching, has given an excellent summary of the project:

It starts from a 'strong' interpretation of the Communicative Approach which means among other things that the children follow a communication syllabus, not a language one.
This course is organised round a series of communicative tasks which are graded in order of conceptual difficulty, beginning with very simple tasks like labelling and moving to more complex tasks such as map-making. The language work by the teacher in helping the children to accomplish the tasks provides the necessary input, and in the initial stages, the primary emphasis is on comprehension. As the children's 'internal grammar' matures their capacity to generate language of their own strengthens, and given time, the early deviance in surface forms is replaced by forms closer to the Standard.

This project, directed by N.s. Prabhu and located at the Regional Institute of English in Bangalore, began in 1979 and is still continuing at three centres in South India. Initial results have been encouraging but some of its characteristics will cause comment if not controversy—in particular, the low priority it attaches to social communication. It is in some ways a rather austere programme in keeping with the
constraints imposed by its location. This lends *given* it strength. If Corder is right in saying that 'given motivation', it is inevitable that a human being will learn a second language, if he is exposed to the data, the eventual outcome of the Bangalore project should show not only that it can be done, but that it can be done with the simplest means. But whatever happened, Bangalore has set the context for one of the most interesting arguments of the eighties, if not beyond. (288)

The Bangalore/Madras Communicational Teaching Project (CTP) grew out of the dissatisfaction with the 'structural' approach to teaching English. Notional-Functional syllabuses were taken into deep consideration, but Prabhu and his associates believed that the need for change in syllabus content was less pressing than that for change in methodology. This belief was fuelled by the expectation that linguists' generalisations about language structure are unlikely to affect whatever generalisations are involved in the learner's process of grammar construction. Thus, the CTP syllabus contains no linguistic specification at all, but
instead comprises a series of tasks in the form of problem-solving activities. The central tenet of the CTP is that language form is best learnt when the learner's attention is focussed on meaning. More specially, as J. Asher, in "The Total Physical Approach to Second Language Learning," says,

Grammar-construction by the learner is an unconscious process which is best facilitated by bringing about in the learner a pre-occupation with meaning, saying or doing. (17)

Consequently, the syllabus is dictated by the methodology which is three-pronged: pre-task, task and feedback. The pre-task makes known the nature of the task, brings relevant language into play, regulates the difficulty level of the task, and allows some learners to learn from attempts made by others. The task itself is a self-reliant effort by each learner to achieve a clearly perceived goal (e.g. interpreting a schedule or goal). The feedback gives the learners an indication of how successfully they have done the task. In another part of this chapter a model lesson given by Robert Bellarmine using the Communicative Approach to demonstrate the approach is analysed in detail.
Alan Davies was invited to report on the feasibility of an evaluation of the Bangalore Project during his visit to South India in 1983. The stated purpose in seeking an evaluation was explained by Davies himself in *The ELT Journal*, to assess through appropriate tests whether there is any demonstrable difference in terms of attainment in English between classes of children who have been taught by the Communicative Approach and their peers who have been taught by the other methods in their respective schools (5) « As a result of Davies's report, which provided a design for the evaluation, Alan Beretta constructed the Instruments of evaluation and visited India to carry out the evaluation early in 1984. He was to compare the communicative method with the Indian version of the structural method. Three hypotheses were to be confirmed or disproved by the results of the tests, as stated by Davies and Beretta in their report, "Evaluation of the Bangalore Project":

1# There is a difference between the language abilities arising from form-focused teaching and those arising from meaning-focused teaching. Thus, each group is expected to perform significantly better on its own achievement test.
2. Acquisition of non-syllabus-based structure is best achieved without focus on form. If this were true, experimental classes (CTP classes) would do significantly better than control classes in the proficiency tests of contextualised grammar and dictation.

3« Structure acquired without focus on form is more readily available for deployment than structure learned with focus on form; for this to be confirmed, CTP groups would have to score significantly higher than control groups in the proficiency test of listening/reading comprehension. (120-26)

Four schools, each with one experimental (CTP) and one control class were included in the evaluation. Within the constraints and allowing necessary modifications where necessary, the evaluation was carried out. The results revealed a pattern which was consistent with the first and the third hypotheses, and in part consistent with the second and central hypothesis.

Since the CTP was widely acclaimed, Prabhu published his *Second Language Pedagogy* in 1984, stating his insight into the CTP together with comments on the programme by eminent contemporary linguists in the field. His project proved to be the pioneer,
opening the channel for others to experiment on the Communicative Approach in India.

Eminent linguists have emphasised the fact that grammar or fragments of grammar a pupil produces will be the grammar of the spoken language rather than the grammar of writing* Also, language makes a clear distinction between statements about the use to which we put language (its meaning) and the actual shape which units of language have and the relationship that exists between them (its form). In natural foreign language learning, acquisition cannot be simply additive; complex bits of language are learned in a whole chunk at a time.

By creating a dramatic situation in the classroom—in part simply by acting out dialogues, but also in part by relabelling objects and people in the room—to prepare for imaginative role-playing, the teacher can go beyond the space limit of the classroom indefinitely and provide imaginatively natural contexts for the language being used. This provides the pupil competence in the use of the language. Competence is dependent upon both (tacit) knowledge and (ability to) use.

Alan Maley points out that communicative competence requires mastery in four major strands of a language—grammatical, socio-linguistic, discourse and strategic competence ("A Rose is a Rose" 141).
It is clear that what is meant by grammatical competence is the mastery of the language code. Such competence focuses directly on the knowledge and skill required to understand and express accurately the literal meaning of an utterance. It is assumed that once the 'correct' grammar consisting of rules is written, it will provide a basis for the study of performance as a whole, including the study of the use of language in its social contexts of use. The Communicative Approach aims at internalising grammar system through creating communicative pressure to express oneself and in the process using the correct forms without consciously studying them.

Socio-linguistic competence involves the ability to produce and understand utterances which are appropriate in terms of the context in which they are uttered. This necessarily involves a sensitivity to factors such as status, role, attitude, purpose, degree of formality, social convention and so on. M. A. K. Halliday illustrates this in his paper, "Towards a Sociological Semantics" thus:

Let us take an example of the use of language by a mother for the purpose of controlling the behaviour of a child.
This example is invented, but it is based on actual investigation of social learning—
including, among a number of different contexts that of a regulation of children's behaviour by the mother carried out in London under the direction of Basil Bernstein. (27)

The small boy has been playing with the neighbourhood children on a building site, and has come home grasping some object which he has acquired in the process. His mother disapproves of it, and wishes both to express her disapproval and to prevent him from doing the same thing again. Supposing she elects to adopt linguistic measures, the sort of thing she might say would be:

1. That's very naughty of you
2. I'll smack you if you do that again
3. I don't like you to do that
4. That thing doesn't belong to you
5. Daddy would be very cross

These represent different means of control which might be characterised as (1) categorisation of behaviour in terms of disapproval or approval on moral ground, (2) Threat of punishment United to repetition of behaviour, (3) Emotional appeal, (4) Categorisation of an object in terms of the social institution of
ownership and (5) Warning of disapproval by the other parent (Halliday 28).

There are social aspects of language use. So, in socio-linguisties the criteria for selecting the areas of study are sociological. The geographical variations of a language, such as different dialects, the level of language to be used, depending on the situation, make language teaching more complex but at the same time, if used properly, more interesting.

Discourse competence on the other hand concerns the ability to combine meanings with unified and acceptable spoken or written texts in different sources. For example, in the dialogue given below, there is a fulfilment of grammatical and socio-linguistic expectation.

Speaker A: What did the rain do?

Speaker B: The crops were destroyed by the rain.

A simple answer in active voice would have sufficed and would have proved the discourse competence of Speaker B. In discourse terms the answer given by B does not fit in, though grammatically and socio-linguistic ally it is acceptable. Language, it should be borne in mind, does not occur in stray words or sentences, but in connected meaningful discourse.
Strategic competence relates to verbal or non-verbal strategies which learners may need to use either to compensate for breakdowns in communication or to enhance the effectiveness of communication. This competence is an outward symbol that the language system has been internalised by the pupil because strategic competence is the outcome of an awareness of every measure in the utterances of the speaker and the listener.

Taking all these into account, we can say that the Communicative Approach has the following characteristics:

a) It concentrates more on the use of the language form than on teaching the appropriacy of the form.

b) There is a tendency to favour fluency-focussed rather than accuracy-focussed activities.

c) The fulfilment of the communication tasks should be achieved through language rather than exercises on the language.

d) There is greater emphasis on the students' initiative and interaction rather than on teacher-oriented language classes.

e) This approach displays a rare sensitivity to individual differences.

f) It emphasises awareness of the variation in the
Based on these facts, the textbook is designed to promote communicative competence. The scope and the composition of an ideal textbook have been suggested by Maley in his article, "A Rose is a Rose is a Rose, or Is It? Can Communicative Competence be Taught?% thus:

1) Learners learn with conscious effort and unconsciously, without effort. Therefore the textbook would need to offer scope for both kinds of language-

2) Teaching can be accuracy-oriented or fluency-focussed; accuracy should be made an optional part of the work and fluency the obligatory part.

3) Acceptable models or the indications to students would avoid waste of time in useless correction work.

4) The tasks in the book would thus need to develop holistic processing.

5) To mirror real communication the major language-skill should be integrated in the syllabus—spoken language should be part of the syllabus.

6) There should be more scope for individual work for the learners.
7) Motivation would be increased through problem-solving activities which would engage both the cognitive and affective resources of the learner.

8) Analytical and creative thinking should be given scope.

9) Language used in the classroom should be immediately relevant, inherent in the task, rather than learnt for some eventual and hypothetical later use.

10) The material should be elegant, economical and aesthetically pleasing. (141-42)

Maley has also suggested a few methodologies that could be followed and a few techniques that could be used in the classroom.

1) The information gap or problem-solving principle could be used in a minor or a major key.

Illustration:

'a) Two students, each with a picture with minor variations. Through verbal interaction, they are to discover the differences.

t> Some jewels are stolen in a train. Students are presented with information of various kinds which have to be interpreted to arrive at the discovery of a solution.

Z) The game principle gives more emphasis to activities rather than learning of a language.
For example:

a) The students can be divided into two groups. One group can mime a story and the other group can interpret it.

b) From a set of pictures the students can be asked to derive a story.

3) The bi-sociative principle stimulates the creative faculties by exposure to unusual combinations and random data. For example, each group of three students is given 5 words. For each word they should find 3 others which rhyme with each of the 5 words given. Then, the group of six chooses 2 words from each of the 5 groups of rhyming words and with these composes a short poem of 10 words and this is carried out till a lengthy poem is made by the students themselves. (145)

The techniques mentioned above require a lot of student participation and ultimately ensure the sustained interest of the students.

Bellarmine, Special Officer in The British Council at Madras, gave a demonstration of the effective use of the Communicative Approach to language teaching during the Seminar on 'English Language Teaching in India' organised by the Faculty of English and Foreign
A resume of the experiment conducted by Bellarmine with the students of M.A. in Communicative English, and the members of the Faculty is given in the following pages to highlight the effectiveness of this particular approach.

The topic taken by Bellarmine was 'ELT in India' and the point he proposed to make was that when the term 'new trends' is used in ELT, it need not be a novelty to everyone—its import depends on the nature of perception. In science, which deals with factual evidence, it is possible to have new theories. In a world of technology and practicability it is possible to have new theories, but in the world of theories it is not always possible to have unanimously new ideas.

He started his lecturette, which lasted for fifteen minutes, with an anecdote of a man's experience in an antique shop. One of the students was asked to keep time and at the end of every sentence, the student was required to make a mark in his book. The others were asked to make notes on the lecturette.

A customer had a good look around when he entered the antique shop. Apparently he was a regular customer and the shop-owner had given him full freedom to roam about in the shop. (Bellarmine described various objets d'art along with a detailed account of how the
customer was greeted by the shop-keeper.) After a thorough inspection, the customer asked the shop-keeper whether he had anything new for him to see. The shop-keeper replied that at the moment he did not have anything new but was expecting a new piece within a fortnight.

Then, one representative from the students side and another from the staff were asked to reproduce the lecturette from the notes they had made. Whereas most of the students gave a detailed description of the greetings and the objets d'art, the staff concentrated on the 'strange' use of the word 'new' in the antique shop. The word 'new' meant a new arrival and the object itself. Then Bellarmine explained the concept of 'new' in this context. 'Newness' in this context related to the state of perception. The customer did not notice anything which was not already familiar to him in the antique shop and therefore he asked if there was anything 'new' for him to see.

Then Bellarmine took another ten minutes to narrate another anecdote. It was about the experience of a doctor inventing a new equipment called hyperbolic oxygen chamber. Patients with weak lungs could be put in this chamber where the recovery process would be
speeded up by increases in the amount of oxygen breathed in. The equipment which was called "new" here meant a "novel" or "hitherto unknown" equipment.

In the world of science and technology, there are always possibilities of new discoveries; in language teaching the "newness" of theories depends on the perception of the teachers. ELT today tries to cater to the individual needs of students and teaching is individualised ensuring complete participation of the students.

In the second session which lasted for 20 minutes there was pair-work, each pair working on different topics and later reading them out. The common element was 'an unforgettable experience.' Different pairs chose to write on different experiences ranging from eating and travelling to failure in examination. The papers were exchanged and evaluated on the basis of interest of the topic, use of language, coherence of sentences, etc.

During the third session an assessment of the work done was made. During the lecturette on ELT, while the teacher was talking the audience was equally active taking notes. Then they had the task of reading out from the notes they had taken of the salient points
made during the lecture. When one person read out, the others either supplemented or corrected his points. After that, one from the audience summarised the whole proceedings. A scaled score-card, as shown below was prepared to evaluate a) the effectiveness of the method, b) the participation by the students, and c) the role played by the teacher.

THE ASSESSMENT SCALE

+ 3 J + 2 ; + 1 ; 0 ; - 1 ; - 2 ; - 3

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<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Relevance</th>
<th>Interest</th>
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<td>ELT Principles</td>
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The participants were asked to fill in the score-card according to the scale, which was explained as:

+3 = excellent; +2 = good; +1 = fair; 0 = average; 
-1 = poor; -2 = very poor; -3 = hopeless.

For every activity the students had to give marks for relevance of the activity, interest evoked by the teacher, treatment of the theme (the language used, appropriateness of expression, etc.) and the overall impression created. The student who was assigned the task of keeping time came out with the following observations:

a) The total time taken by the teacher was forty minutes.

b) The time used up by participants in passive activities like listening, note-making and active tasks like discussions, reading out notes, drafting report etc., was fifty-five minutes.

The two sessions took up about an hour and forty-five minutes with a break of ten minutes for tea. As the time-keeper showed, out of the one hour and thirty-five minutes, the time taken by the students was comparatively more than the time taken by the teacher. The students were given adequate practice in
listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. In the course of the exercise, questions on vocabulary, such as the usage of words like 'antique' and 'novel' and questions on the structure of the sentences were raised by the teacher; grammar teaching/learning was incidental and through speech communication.

The assessment scale showed a very positive result, which was an evidence of the success of the method. In schools and colleges the Communicative Approach to language teaching ought to be adopted in the same way. In this approach teaching is individualised and, since every student is involved in a particular task, students play an active role and grammar is taught through communication. In order to implement the Communicative Approach successfully there is need for two major changes—one an institutional change which involves change in the syllabus, examination system, textbooks, teaching materials etc., and the other an immediate and imperative change in teacher education. This theme is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 6.

In many parts of the world, the teaching of English has assumed the crucial auxiliary role of providing the means for furthering specialist education and therefore the emphasis is on comprehension.
A knowledge of how the language functions in communication does not automatically follow from a knowledge of sentences. There is need for change of focus from the sentence as the basic unit in language teaching to the use of sentences in combination. Once we accept the need to teach language as communication, we can obviously no longer think of language in terms only of sentences. We must consider the nature of discourse and how best to teach it.

Language teaching materials in the past were largely derived from theoretical sentence grammars. We now need materials derived from a description of discourse* materials which will effect the transfer from grammatical competence, a knowledge of sentences, to what has been called communicative competence—a knowledge of how sentences are used in the performance of communicative acts of different kinds because language does not occur in stray words or sentences but in connected discourse.

As has already been pointed out, the objectives of teaching of the English language have undergone many changes and the emphasis has been shifted from teaching words in terms of the rules, mother tongue equivalent and teaching the grammar to treating the
sentence as the basic unit, and /jiving a thorough grounding in basic structures and sentence patterns, teaching sentences in combination and internalising the grammar and other aspects of language mainly through discourse. This shift has been gradual and has been the result of a critical evaluation which showed the merits and demerits of each approach or method and, based on this evaluation, the necessary changes were wrought.

Like any other method, the Communicative Approach also has its own merits and demerits. The greatest advantage of this method is that there is a strong likelihood of mastery over the four aspects of the language such as grammar, socio-linguistics, discourse and strategy competence.

This approach is relevant to the pupil because it does not stop with the use of an alien language in a limited situation and atmosphere, mainly the classroom, but ensures the use of the language outside the classroom too because the student is being trained in the use of the language for a very vital and basic purpose of any human being—to communicate with others.

Since the student is able to learn communicative competence through this method, which enables him to i
have a meaningful social interaction, he naturally finds this method more interesting and motivating and hence learns the language with greater eagerness.

This approach has another great advantage in the sense that the language is learnt and is interpreted through inference rather than through formation of hypothesis.

It is an accepted fact that language is conventional and the conventions of language use are socio-culturally defined. Since language is conventional, its superordinate purpose is communication. To be communicatively competent is to know, and correctly use norms governing what is possible, feasible and successful, and learning' or acquiring a language is done through an urge, a pressure and a strong desire to communicate with fellow-beings. The response to the question, "Are we teaching language for communication? or, Are we teaching communication via language?" might be, "We are language teachers." Actually these two are not incompatible. Linguistic competence and communicative competence are interlinked as shown below:

\[ C \cap C \]  
\[ \text{C.C. - Communicative Competence.} \]
\[ L.C. \]  
\[ \text{L.C. - Linguistic Competence.} \]
It would be advisable for the teachers of language to focus on communicative skills, because this focus will necessarily involve developing most areas of linguistic competence. If we focus on linguistic skills alone we will be failing to deal with a major part of the constituents of communicative competence. This necessitates the evolution of a communicative methodology. As Brumfit says in his article "Communicative Language Teaching; An Educational Perspective,"

Communicative methodology, then, would start from communication, with exercises which constituted communication challenges for students. As they attempted the exercise students would have to stretch their linguistic capabilities to perform the given tasks, and would be given subsequent teaching, which would be of a traditional form, where they clearly perceived themselves to need to improve to establish communication adequately in relation to the task. Such a procedure is not simply an answer to a motivation problem; even more it is a matter of
learning principle, for the complexity of the linguistic and communicative systems being operated require that new learning must be closely assimilated with what is already known, and if language is being learnt for use, then new learning must be directly associated with use. (188-89)

Language is a means to express one's thoughts. If a student is not able to express his thoughts, after having learnt a language (English) for eight to ten years, then the teaching must be deemed to have failed. This may be due to too much emphasis on grammar or literacy aspects in a syllabus or it may be due to the inadequacy of the training the teachers get. The Communicative Approach to language teaching makes a great demand on the professional training and competence of the teachers. Since this approach is skill-based, the teachers are often called upon to use their ingenuity, as the textbooks serve only the purpose of a handbook for them. While designing the syllabus, it is of course necessary to keep the specific needs of the pupils in mind; it is as much important to train the teachers to handle the syllabus. This is generally achieved, but the fact that it is equally necessary to train the teachers to deal with the
syllabus competently is often forgotten.

The needs and purposes for learning English may differ from one group to another and indeed there are innumerable groups with different needs and they learn the language for different purposes. So, the syllabus is to be evolved keeping in mind their specific needs and purposes. The following chapter analyses and evaluates the components of communicative syllabi of high schools and higher secondary schools of Tamil Nadu and the subsequent chapter analyses the teacher education programme in India.