CHAPTER I

1.1. THE ORIGINS OF COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING:

1.1.1. The Beginning of the End of Traditional Language Teaching:

In language teaching as in many other fields, new movements are generally initiated in reaction to old ones, often the result of a growing dissatisfaction with an existing state of affairs. We might begin our study of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) by analysing the discontent which teachers and applied linguists in the 1960's felt towards the kind of language teaching then prevalent.

The late 1960's saw rapid changes in British language teaching traditions. Hitherto linguists and language teachers had placed too much of importance on mastery of structures as against mastery of language use- the structural approach. Until the 1960's situational language teaching typified the major British approach to teaching English as a foreign language. In situational language teaching language was taught by practising basic structures in meaningful situation based activities. But language teachers observed that acquiring competence did not necessarily result in performance as evidenced by students who had learnt English for more than six years. These students manifested an inability to use
the language for normal communicative purposes.

Newmark's Observation:

The language teacher's discontent is graphically expressed by the American linguist L. Newmark (1966) who speaks of the 'structurally competent' student who has developed the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences but is unable to perform a simple communicative task such as asking for a light from a stranger. He remarks that "... a person, even an intelligent one, who knows perfectly the structure that the linguist teachers cannot know that the way to get his cigarette lit by a stranger when he has no matches is to walk up to him and say one of the utterances: 'Do you have a light?' or 'Got a match?'" The grammatically competent student might perform this task in a perfectly grammatical way by asking "equally well-formed questions, 'Do you have illumination?' or 'Do you have fire? or 'Are you a matches' owner'". A native speaker would instinctively categorize these questions, though grammatically correct, as being 'inappropriate'.

The 'Something Else' of Language Learning - Grammaticality vis-a-vis Appropriateness:

The phenomena of the structurally competent but communicatively incompetent student corroborates the truth of the insight which has shaped recent trends in language teaching - the insight that ability to manipulate the structures of a language correctly is only part of what is involved in learning a language. There is a 'something else' that needs to be learnt, and this 'something else' involves
the ability to be appropriate, to know the right thing to say at the right time. "There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (Hymes, 1970)

Proper words in proper places. When ... is a word in its proper place? One answer is when it finds its niche in a grammatical pattern, when, suitably adjusted by morphological modification, it fits snugly into syntax. Propriety in this sense has to do with internal relationships of words as determined by the linguistic code. In this case we can perhaps talk about the correct placement of words. But that is not the only answer. We can also think of words being in their proper places with reference to their communicative purpose. Here we are concerned with the external relationship of words with the context of their actual occurrence, and propriety is not now a matter of correctness of form in a sentence, but of their appropriacy (or appropriateness) of function in an utterance.

(Widdowson 1992:317-329)

The Traditional Language-Syllabus and its Drawbacks:

The emphasis on mastery of structures materialized at every stage of the teaching procedure and particularly so at the stage of syllabus design. A syllabus is generally a 'list of items we wish to teach', and if the teacher's main aim is the teaching of structures then it is to be presumed that the syllabus as 'lists of items to teach' should be lists of structures, graded in a suitable order for teaching.

This is what syllabuses have usually been until recent times.

We have seen that the structurally competent student is not for the most part communicatively competent. The implication of this argument for syllabus designers is clear.
If language learning is a question of mastering not only structures but also 'meanings' and 'uses' then the syllabus must list items of 'meanings' or 'uses' as well as items of structures. Then the traditional view of the syllabus as a list of structures becomes inadequate.

**Traditional Language Teaching - The Universal Strategy:**

The structurally competent but communicatively incompetent student was the by-product of wrong teaching methods, which, influenced by the audio-lingual tradition, emphasised on teaching the students how to 'form' correctly, that is how to manipulate the structures of the language easily and without error.

A certain universal strategy was adopted by teachers the world over in the teaching of structures - a structure was presented, it was drilled, then it was practised in context (i.e., meaningful situation-based activities), after which the teacher went on to the next structure. In this way the teacher gradually and 'synthetically' (Wilkins 1976) built up the inventory of structural items that the student could handle. The student's language ability was also assessed in a similar way. Structural correctness was rewarded and structural inaccurancy was chastised. Thus success or failure in language learning was interpreted in the light of the students' ability or inability to manipulate the structures of the language. The result of this emphasis has been students who know their grammar but lack the 'something else'.
But to suggest that in the past all language teaching had taken place in a communicative vacuum where structures were learnt like mathematical formulae would be both simplistic and wrong. Language had been put to some sort of communicative use in the classroom—practising requests, commands, greetings etc.—though the scope of such communication was very limited.

Language Teaching Relative to Linguistic Studies:

The predominant focus on 'form' rather than 'meaning' in language teaching was reflective of a similar emphasis within linguistics. Leonard Bloomfield (1987-1949), the American Linguist and his immediate successors confined themselves solely to the study and classification of the forms of a language without touching upon the categories of meaning. And in both fields a parallel reaction took place—a reaction against the view of language as a set of structures and towards a view of language as communication wherein meaning and the uses of language are primary issues. This latter view crystallised itself into the 'Communicative Approach'.

1.1.2. The Genesis of Communicative Language Teaching:

In the mid 1960's British applied linguists began to call into question the theoretical assumptions underlying situational language teaching and the structural approach.
By the end of the 60's it was clear that the situational/structural approach had run its course. There was no future in continuing to pursue the chimera of predicting language on the basis of situational events. What was required was a closer study of the language itself and a return of the traditional concept that utterances carried meaning in themselves and expressed the meanings and intentions of the speakers and writers who created them. (Howatt 1984:280).

This was in part a response to the criticism that prominent American Linguist Noam Chomsky had levelled at structural linguistic theory in his book 'Syntactic Structures' (1957).

1.1.2.1. Chomsky's Transformative Generative Grammar:

In the late 50's Chomsky's book 'Syntactic Structures' introduced Transformative Generative Grammar into the field of linguistic studies. Linguists realised the inadequacy of earlier taxonomic classification of structures and began to concentrate on developing systems of rules which would explain and illustrate, instead of merely describing, the structural possibilities of a language. Yet transformative generative grammar and structural linguistics share a common stand in giving importance to the study of language structures.

1.1.2.1.1. Chomsky's Concept of Competence and Performance:

Chomsky had demonstrated that the structural theories of language had failed to account for the fundamental characteristics of language, i.e. 'the creativity and uniqueness of individual sentences'.

(Richards and Rodgers 1986:64)
Chomsky's transformational theory converges around the two primary concepts of 'competence' and 'performance'. Chomsky (1965) distinguishes between linguistic competence and linguistic performance. Chomsky defines 'competence' as the "speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language". According to him linguistic theory concerns itself solely with competence. But competence is an idealised concept. It is the knowledge that an 'ideal speaker-hearer' has of the language system operating within his homogeneous speech community. In contrast 'performance' is "the actual use of language in concrete situations". Chomsky says that "a record of natural speech will show numerous false starts, deviations from rules, changes of plan in mid-course and so on". Performance exemplifies an incomplete and imperfect representation of the ideal speaker-listener's competence and is treated as being irrelevant by theoretical and descriptive linguists.

... linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions such as memory limitation, distractions, shifts of attention and interest and errors in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance. (Ibid).

1.1.2.1.2. Chomsky's Assumptions of Idealised Situations:

Chomsky's concept of 'competence' assumes three important idealised situations. Linguistic competence is the speaker-listener's knowledge of his language in an:
- idealised language community;
- under idealised psychological conditions;
- under idealised personal conditions of the language user.

(Kohli 1989:19)

... Chomsky's description of competence is based on effacing individual variations, treating the speech community as a monolithic whole and separating linguistic 'knowledge' from psychological and other factors that may influence its realisation in performance ... The Chomskian notion of competence is sentence based (Ibid).

For Chomsky, the focus of linguistic theory was to characterize the abstract qualities speakers possess that enable them to produce grammatically correct sentences in a language and comprehend indefinitely many sentences including those which are new.

1.1.2.1.3 Critiques of the Competence-Performance Distinction:

Chomsky's insistence on the sentence as the unit of linguistic analysis and his own work on syntax, has triggered widespread criticism of the narrowness of his concept of competence. We shall now turn to a consideration of the nature of the general dissatisfaction that has been expressed with the Chomskian concept of 'competence' and 'performance'.

The Views of Hockett, Salzinger, Habermas and others:

On the one hand we have representatives of the older structuralist school attacking the Chomskian theory on varied grounds. Hockett(1968) opines that the notion of
a linguistic rule of which Chomsky's competence is constructed is invalid. Salzinger (1975) questions the validity of the idealizations Chomsky uses. Mathews (1979) objects to the notion of 'internalisation' of rules and puts forward various arguments against the Chomskian notion of competence which relate to the vagueness of human language data, the change in the speech styles of an individual in his lifetime and the difficulty of defining 'intrinsic meanings' of language.

Habermas (1970) suggests that the Chomsky's concept of competence is inadequate because it is (1) 'a monological capacity', (ii) it supports a notion of 'a priorism', and (iii) it is 'elementaristic'.

**Hymes Criticism of Chomsky:**

Dell Hymes (1971), who coined the term 'communicative competence', expressed discontent with Chomsky's transformational view of linguistic study, especially the concepts of competence and performance. Hymes held that Chomsky's view of linguistic theory was sterile and that any linguistic theory would remain incomplete if it did not take into consideration aspects of communication and culture. He points out the unsoundness of idealising competence by idealising individual differences that exist in language ability, or 'tacit knowledge'. He puts forward a representative socio-linguistic view and strongly repudiates the notion which
looks upon the speech community as a monolithic and undifferentiated whole. He draws attention to situations where the illocutionary force of an utterance can neither be interpreted nor comprehended without an accompanying knowledge of the culture system.

Chomsky's notion of competence does not hold water in the study of language in a realistic situation where the speaker-listeners are not 'ideal' and whose language behaviour cannot be categorized as belonging to any 'homogeneous speech community'. For Hymes and similar thinking linguists, socio-cultural factors were of paramount importance in the study of language behaviour, whereas Chomsky relegated this to the less relevant area of performance. According to Hymes, Chomskian linguistics, with its narrow concept of competence, represents a 'Garden of Eden view' which side tracks prime issues of language use, dismissing them to the area of performance... it takes structure as a primary end in itself, and tends to depreciate use'. (Hymes 1972).

The limitation of Chomsky's perspectives appear when the image of the unfolding, mastering, fluent child is set beside the real child in our schools. In such a situation Chomsky's theory seems, if not irrelevant, then at best unrealistic, and idealistic doctrine because of the difference between what one imagines and what one sees and Chomsky's theory seems unable to cope with the difference. To cope with the realities of children as communicating beings requires a theory within which socio-cultural factors have an explicit and constitutive role. And neither is the case in Chomskian Linguistic studies (Ibid).
When linguistic theory takes into consideration socio-cultural factors the Chomskian notions of competence and performance need re-definition.

1.1.2.2. Hymes Redefinition of Chomsky's Linguistic Theory:

Hymes undertook a critical examination of Chomsky's concepts of 'competence' and 'performance' and redefined them in his own terms. In Hymes' redefinition the salient contrast is between 'the actual' and 'the underlying' which is a far more general and comprehensive view of competence than is found in Chomsky. For Chomsky competence implies 'knowledge of the language system': grammatical knowledge. But if competence is understood as the overall underlying knowledge which the speaker-listener possesses, then we have to accept that this involves far more than knowledge of (and ability for) grammaticality. It is necessary to incorporate the rules of grammar with the rules of use. Indeed if a speaker were to produce grammatical sentences with total disregard to the situation in which they are being used, he would certainly be considered deranged. The Hymesian view of competence includes concepts of appropriateness and acceptability - notions which in Chomsky are associated with performance - and the study of competence will inevitably entail consideration of such variables as attitudes, motivation and an number of socio-cultural factors.
Like all socio-culturally based knowledge, linguists too need to define and explain language use with reference to factors beyond the structures of the system. Hymes (1972) writes:

If one analyses the language of a community as if it should be homogeneous, its diversity trips one up ... work with children and with the place of language in education requires a theory that can deal with a heterogeneous speech community, differential competence and the constitutive role of socio-cultural features. Concepts that are unquestionably postulated as basic to linguistics (speaker-listener, speech community, speech act, acceptability, etc.) are, as we see in fact socio-cultural variables, and only when one has moved from their postulation to their analysis can one secure the foundations of linguistic theory itself.

(Ibid).

1.1.2.2.1. Hymes Concept of Communicative Competence:

The communicative approach to language teaching starts from a theory of language as communication. The goal of language teaching is to develop what Hymes (1972) referred to as 'communicative competence'. What is essential in language learning is not so much an understanding of how a language is structured but how a language is used. Hymes theory of communicative competence was a definition of what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community. This notion of competence was in total contrast to Chomsky's detached and unrealistic interpretation of competence.
Hymes Four Sectors of Communicative Competence:

There are several sectors of communicative competence of which the grammatical is one. In Hymes' view, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to:

i) whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible:

ii) Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available:

iii) whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;

iv) whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails.

Brumfit and Johnson (1979:14) have elaborated and clarified Hymes sectors of communicative competence in the following manner:

The first sector, whether or not something is formally possible, could be equated with Chomsky's restricted notion of competence as grammaticality. It is concerned with whether a language permits a structure as grammatical (possible) or rejects it as ungrammatical (impossible).
The second sector deals with feasibility. A sentence like 'the mouse the cat the dog the man the woman married beat chased ate had a white tail' is grammatically possible but not feasible. The production of such sentences cannot be said to constitute competence.

The third sector covers appropriateness to context. The speaker-listener's underlying competence encompasses 'rules of appropriateness' and it is possible for a sentence to be grammatically correct, feasible but inappropriate to a particular situation.

Hymes' fourth and final sector relates to the areas which are referred to as 'accepted usage'. It concerns whether or not something is in fact done. A sentence may be possible, feasible, appropriate and not occur.

The Hymesian concept of communicative competence touches upon the vital question of 'To what extent is language use influenced by knowledge of society?' Which is of great importance when dealing with cross-cultural language teaching.

1.1.2.3. Halliday's Functional Account of Language Use:

Another linguistic theory of communication related to CLT is Halliday's functional account of language use:

Linguistics ... is concerned ... with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning brought into focus.

(Halliday 1970:145)
Halliday, via a number of books and papers, elaborated an influential theory of the functions of language, which complements Hymes’ view of communicative competence. Halliday describes seven basic functions that language performs for children learning their first language:

- the instrumental function: using language to get things;
- the regulatory function: using language to control another's behaviour;
- the interactional function; using language to interact with others;
- the personal function; using language to express personal emotions;
- the heuristic function; using language to learn and discover;
- the imaginative function: using language creatively;
- the representational function; using language to communicate information. (Richards and Rodgers 1986: 70-71)

1.1.2.4. The Contribution of H.G. Widdowson:

H.G. Widdowson is another theorist often cited for his communicative views on the nature of language. In his book 'Teaching Language as Communication' (1978) Widdowson delineated the relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values on text and discourse, focussing upon the communicative acts underlying the ability to use language for different purposes.
Widdowson's Distinction between 'Language Usage' and 'Language Use'.

Language learning not only involves acquiring the ability to compose correct sentences but also being able to use these sentences, or parts of sentences, appropriately in a particular context. Producing correct sentences involves a knowledge of the grammatical rules of the language being learnt, but the learner may display this knowledge with total disregard to the context of use. (For example, 'The telephone is ringing'; 'We love apples'; 'My brother is rich'; etc). These sentences manifest certain rules underlying the language system of English. They are instances of correct English usage. But students are generally not required to exhibit their knowledge in this manner in the normal circumstances of daily life. In reality a person needs to use his or her perception of the language system to achieve some kind of communicative purpose, that is, to produce instances of language use.

The distinction between usage and use is related to Saussure's distinction between langue and parole and Chomsky's similar distinction between competence and performance. It is important to make clear what this distinction is. The notion of competence has to do with a language user's knowledge of abstract linguistic rules. This knowledge has to be put into effect as behaviour, it has to be revealed through performance. When it is put into effect through
the citation of sentences to illustrate these rules, as is done in grammar books, then performance yields instances of usage: abstract knowledge is manifested. When language teachers select structures and vocabulary for their courses they select those items of usage which they judge to be most effective for teaching the underlying rules of the language system. Usage, then is one aspect of performance: that which makes evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his ability to use his knowledge of linguistic rules for effective communication. (Ibid:3).

Normal speech manifests a natural blend of usage and use but these two aspects of performance have been dealt with separately by both linguists as well as teachers. The grammarian tries to interpret a language system by formulating sentences in isolation to illustrate certain abstract rules underlying the system. Teachers, while designing teaching materials and devising classroom procedures, have tended to emphasise usage; selecting and organising language items with a view to illustrating how the rules of the system can be manifested through sentences. Very little attention has been paid to the pertinent question of how such rules can be realised for communicative purposes as use.

1.1.2.5. Canale and Swain's Four Dimensions of Communicative Competence:

Canale and Swain (1980) have analysed communicative competence in terms of four dimensions which are identified as: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence.
Grammatical competence is similar to Chomsky's concept of linguistic competence and what Hymes terms "formally possible". It relates to grammatical capability, i.e., mastery of the language code. "Such competence focuses directly on the knowledge and skill required to understand and express accurately the literal meaning of utterances".

(Canale 1983)

Sociolinguistic competence implies an understanding of the social contexts in which communication takes place, which includes role relationships, the shared information of the participants, and the communicative purpose of their interaction. Here the language user should be sensitive to factors such as status, role, attitudes, purpose, degree of formality, social convention and so on. Maley (1986) gives examples of three instances of inappropriate though perfectly well-formed utterances:

1. "Sit down please." (spoken to a distinguished guest—but with the intonation pattern reserved for commands)
2. "How old are you?" (asked of a middle aged foreign professor one is meeting for the first time).
3. "Why has your face gone red?" (asked of someone who has just been embarrassed by an insensitive personal question)

Often foreign language learners fail to communicate effectively because they have not mastered these aspects of sociolinguistic competence.
Discourse competence can be understood in the light of the interconnectedness of individual messages and of how meaning is complete and comprehensive only in relation to the entire discourse or text. It is the ability to combine meanings with unified and acceptable spoken or written texts in different genres. (Genre covers the type of text involved: narrative, argumentative, scientific report, newspaper articles, news broadcasts, casual conversation, etc.) For Example: Speaker A: What did the boy do?

Speaker B: The benches were broken by the boy. The reply is grammatically and sociolinguistically acceptable, but in discourse terms it is unsuitable. (He broke the benches—this response would be considered appropriate.)

Strategic competence refers to the various coping verbal and non-verbal strategies used by communicators to initiate, terminate, maintain, repair and redirect communication. Breakdowns in communication need to be compensated for or learners may want to enhance the effectiveness of communication. Hesitation fillers such as 'um', 'you know', etc. help repair the coherent flow of a conversation or discourse. In this context paraphrase also assumes importance. (For example, if one does not know the word for 'stop-watch' it can be referred to 'the thing you use for timing races'. Most learners of a foreign language are either
unfamiliar with or do not succeed in mastering these 'repair strategies' perfectly and its importance is self-evident.

Terrel (1977:334) argues strongly that such communication strategies are crucial at the beginning stages of second language learning. Learners must be shown how such strategies can be implemented in the second language and must be actively encouraged to use such strategies, rather than remain silent if they cannot produce grammatically accurate forms.

Strategic competence also allows the participants to perceive the kind of communicative event they are engaged in and envisage its direction of movement. This will enable them to predict moves in advance and to guide the discourse in the desired direction.

1.1.2.6. Di Pietro's Components of Communicative Competence:

Di Pietro (1981) suggested that communicative competence could be subdivided into four major sub-competencies as follows:

Formal Competence: is what is generally referred to as 'linguistic competence'. Formal competence could be further subdivided into grammatical and idiomatic competence.

Grammatical competence is the ability to generate grammatically correct sentences and implies possessing a knowledge of "the regular, systematic features of the language
through which sound and meaning are linked". (Roberts, J.T.1986) Idiomatic competence is the potential to recognise the meaning of idioms and ability to use them correctly and appropriately or in other words "possessing knowledge of the irregular and unsystematic features of the language". (Ibid). Sociocultural competence consists in knowing about sociocultural values and attitudes, "the 'rites de passage' observed in a given society and the linguistic protocols they entail" (Ibid:57) which includes such things as greeting people, introducing oneself, making excuses and apologies, asking for information, obtaining service in shops and restaurants, etc., Such language use is "very largely ritualized and 'predictable', but actually learning it is only one problem: another is learning when to use it, and here there may often exist marked contrasts between different societies". (Ibid).

Psychological competence includes the ability to use language to project one's personality and achieve personal goals which are aspects of 'strategic interaction'.

1.1.2.7. Brumfit and Johnson's Three Disciplines:

Brumfit and Johnson (1979:24) point out that the communicative approach to language teaching draws from three broad disciplines, all of them inextricably linked with communicative and linguistic interaction, and similar to the Hymesian notion of competence. These three disciplines are:
1) the ethnography of speech, anthropology, ethnomethodology and 'sociolinguistics'; (ii) linguistics which rejects the 'centrality of syntax' approach of Chomsky and concerns itself primarily with pragmatics. Here the work of generative semanticists, and linguists with a functional orientation, such as Halliday and the masters of the Prague school are studied in depth and quoted profusely. (iii) philosophers of language—usually the ordinary language philosophers.

1.1.2.8. The Work of the Council of Europe:

Changing educational perspectives in Europe encouraged and precipitated different approaches to foreign language teaching. The increasing independence of European countries prompted educators to focus on the need for greater effort to teach adults the major languages of the European Common Market and the Council of Europe, a regional organisation for cultural and educational cooperation, sponsored many international conferences on language teaching and actively promoted the formation of the International Association of Applied Linguistics. The highest priority was given to the formulation and development of alternative methods of language teaching.

The Unit-Credit System:

A seminar was held in Switzerland in 1971 under the aegis of the Council of Europe following which a group of experts began to investigate the possibility of developing language courses on a unit-credit system, a system in which learning tasks are broken down into "portions or units, each of which
corresponds to a component of a learner's needs and is systematically related to the other portions". (van Ek and Alexander 1980).

The group of experts decided that the foreign language needs of European adults be approached through three initial investigations:

1. "to break down the global concept of language into units and sub-units based on an analysis of particular groups of adult learners, in terms of the communicative situations in which they are characteristically involved. This analysis should lead to a precise articulation of the notion of 'common core' with specialist extensions at different levels'.

2. "to set up on the basis of this analysis an operational specification for learning objectives".

3. "to formulate, in consultation with Steering Group on Educational Technology of the Council of Europe, a meta-system defining the structure of a multi-media learning system to achieve these objectives in terms of the unit/credit concepts". (Trim et al, 1973).

The Council of Europe envisaged breaking down language into appropriate units for acquisition, and credits being awarded for mastery of units towards any necessary qualification in linguistic proficiency. In attempting to analyse and define what kind of units were the most appropriate for describing the learning of foreign languages,
the group made use of the studies of the needs of European language learners and a preliminary document prepared by a British Linguist D.A. Wilkins.

1.1.2.9. The Work of D.A. Wilkins:

D.A. Wilkins (1972) propounded a functional or communicative definition of language to serve as a basis for propagating communicative syllabuses for language teaching. Wilkins analysed the communicative uses of language. He described two types of meanings: notional categories (concepts such as time, sequence, quantity, location, frequency) and categories of communicative function (requests, denials, offers, complaints), i.e. the 'uses' to which we put language.

Wilkins proposed that his notional and functional categories be used in listing concepts and uses for the preparation of the teaching syllabus. He uses the term 'Notional Syllabuses' (the title of the 1979 book) to describe a syllabus containing such lists.

The Functional-Notional Approach:

The Functional-Notional approach attempts to classify exactly what aspects of a language have been mastered by a particular student. It undertakes to formulate a suitable basis for such a classification in terms of what people wanted to do with the language (function) or in terms of what meanings people wanted to convey (notions) rather than in terms of grammatical items as in traditional language teaching models.
It is argued ... that we all understand that we use language to express certain meanings, time, or spatial relations, for example, but we do not all agree that we use language to exemplify grammatical categories invented by linguists! Thus functional-notional organisations of language teaching will incorporate a classification of language which closely matches ordinary peoples' perception of what language is for.

(Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983:12)

On the basis of Wilkin's notional/functional-communicative analysis, the Council of Europe put forward a corpus of specifications for first level communicative language syllabus. These threshold level specifications (van Ek and Alexander 1980) had an influential bearing on the design of communicative language teaching programmes and textbooks in Europe.

1.1.2.9.1. The Difference between Notions and Functions:

We can identify the functions of an utterance by questioning 'What was the speaker's intention in saying it?' The intention is dependent upon the context of the utterance - to greet, to invite, to express sympathy, etc. - in other words, the utterances functions.

But it is possible for the same 'sentence' or utterance to function in different ways, according to context. For example, the sentence 'You will come tomorrow' said by a father to his child may function:
- as a **command** - meaning 'you just make sure you come tomorrow'.

- as a **promise**-meaning 'Don't worry. Whatever happens I'll make sure you're allowed to come tomorrow.

The function of an utterance is determined from its context of use.

The same sentence- 'You will come tomorrow'-can be analysed at a different level, to discover what notions it conveys. First we have the notion of 'a person present, other than the speaker, conveyed by the word 'you'. The notion of futurity is expressed by the use of 'will'. But a 'notional' analysis of this kind will not reveal the speaker's intention (and the utterance's function), that is, why the sentence was said. (Johnson and Morrow 1981: 5-6)

Notions relates to such things as time, space, location, movement, shape, emotions, attitudes and the like; functions relate to whether at any time we want to make, describe, move, change, etc., anything as part of the situations in which we find ourselves.

The above discussion reveals one important aspect of 'notional'/'functional' analysis—that sentences express both notions and functions.
1.1.3. The Final Outcome:

The work of British functional linguists John Firth and M.A.K. Halliday; American work in sociolinguistics undertaken by Dell Hymes, John Gumperz and William Labov; the work of the Council of Europe; the writings of D.A. Wilkins, H.G. Widdowson, C. Candlin, C. Brumfit, K. Johnnson and other British applied linguists for a communicative or functional approach to language teaching; the speedy capitalization of these ideas by textbook writers; and finally the expeditious acceptance of these new principles by British language teaching specialists, curriculum development centres, and even governments, gained national and international recognition to what came to be referred to as the communicative approach or simply CLT.

1.1.4. Communicative Foreign/Second Language Teaching:

It is necessary to distinguish primarily 'communicative' use of the target language from practice uses. It was assumed that the L1—the first language—was always used for message-oriented, communicative purposes. The following is a definition of 'communicative' foreign language use:

Any instance of Foreign language use, productive or receptive, will be considered 'communicative' if it appears that the people involved in producing/attending to the discourse have another purpose/intention additional to the general purpose of modelling/practising/displaying competence in formal aspects of the target Foreign Language. (Mitchell 1988 : 4)
1.1.5 The Strong and Weak Version of Communicative Language Teaching:

Howatt distinguishes between a 'strong' and a 'weak' version of CLT:

There is ... a 'strong' version of the communicative approach and a 'weak' version. The weak version which has become more or less standard practice in the last ten years, stresses the importance of providing the learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching... The strong version of CLT, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the developments of the language system itself. If the former could be described as 'learning to use' English, the latter entails 'using English to learn it'.

(Howatt 1984:279)
1.2. THE THEORETICAL BASIS OF COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING:

CLT is founded on a rich and rather eclectic theory of language. Language experts have described theories of language learning process that are compatible with the communicative approach. Savignon (1983) has considered the role of linguistics, social, cognitive, and individual variables in language acquisition. Krashen (1983) saw acquisition as the fundamental process involved in developing language proficiency and distinguished this process from learning.

1.2.1. The Structural View of Language vis-a-vis the Communicative View:

The structural view of language concentrates on the grammatical system, and describes ways of combining linguistic items. Intuitive knowledge of a multitude of linguistic facts and operations constitute a native speaker's linguistic competence, enabling him to produce new sentences to match the meanings that he needs to express.

The communicative view of language emphasises the fact that language is a system for the expression of meanings. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication and the structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses. It is not only the grammatical and structural features which comprise the primary units of language but also categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.
Languages possess grammatical systems... to express... meanings... which are themselves the whole purpose of communication. The grammatical devices of a language are not to be learned as an end in themselves. It is the capacity to express meanings that is the end. The grammatical system provides the necessary means...

Grammatical form and grammatical meaning are the two sides of the same coin. Detailed examination of grammatical meaning is impossible without reference to the forms that carry the meaning. And the formal systems cannot be looked at in isolation from the meanings they convey... In learning, mastery of forms would be valueless without equal mastery of the meanings they convey.

( Wilkins 1974:5)

A sentences structure is stable and straightforward whereas its communicative function is variable and dependent upon situational and social factors. Just as a single linguistic form can express a number of functions, so also can a single communicative function be expressed by a number of linguistic forms.

1.2.2. The Relationship between Linguistic Competence and Communicative Competence:

Richard Allwright (in Brumfit and Johnson 1979:17-68) traces the relationship between linguistic competence and communicative competence. Now teachers have come to accept that 'communication' is the proper aim for language teaching and the end product of a successful teaching programme will be learners manifesting the ability to communicate successfully. There is a logical and close relationship between linguistic competence and communicative competence as illustrated by the diagram given below.
The diagram implies that there are certain areas of linguistic competence which are irrelevant to communicative competence, but that, in general, linguistic competence is a part of communicative competence. Thus by teaching comprehensively for linguistic competence the teacher runs the risk of leaving a large area of communicative competence untouched, whereas teaching equally comprehensively for communicative competence will take care of all but a small portion of linguistic competence. Therefore if communication is the prime objective of language teaching, the teacher should focus on communicative skills which in turn will naturally lead to the development of most areas of linguistic skills.

1.2.3. Communicative Learning Theory:

Certain learning activities promote greater learning than other activities. Richards and Rodgers (1986:72) have grouped these activities into three categories:

1. The communicative principle: activities that involve real communication.
2. The task principle: activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks to promote learning.

3. The meaningfulness principle: language that is meaningful.

Learning activities are selected or devised so as to engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use rather than mere mechanical practice of language patterns.

1.2.4. Johnson and Littlewood's Skill-Model Theory of Learning:

Johnson (1984) and Littlewood (1884) have discussed alternative learning theories that conform with CLT—a skill-learning model of learning. This theory postulates that the acquisition of communicative competence in a language is a manifestation of skill development involving both cognitive and behavioural aspects.

The cognitive aspect involves the internalisation of plans for creating appropriate behaviour. For language use, these plans derive mainly from the language system—they include grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary, and social conventions governing speech. The behavioural aspect involves the automation of those plans so that they can be converted into fluent performance in real time. This occurs mainly through practice in converting plans into performance.

(Littlewood 1984:74)

Here the emphasis is on practice as a way of developing communicative skills.
1.2.5. Second Language Learning as Creative Construction:

Another popular model views second language acquisition as a process of 'creative construction' wherein a learner 'constructs' a series of internal representations of the second language system.

The learning task which is so complex occurs at a very early age and with exceptional speed. By the age of between three and a half and five, normal children have internalised all the basic structures of their language, a phenomena that cannot be attributed to habit formation alone.

Under natural circumstances children are exposed to different kinds of actual speech. But they arrive at the same underlying rules as other children in their community and seem to pass through similar processes in acquiring these rules. Children seem to be constructing their own rule-systems, gradually adapting it in the direction of the adult system, thereby implying that the child's language is not merely moulded by external forces but it is being creatively constructed by the child as he interacts with those around him. This 'creative construction' hypothesis has had a powerful influence on various theories about second language learning. Research studies have suggested that creative construction is more vigorous and effectual process than habit formation in first language acquisition and could very well apply to second language learning also.
The creative construction model revolves around the cognitive processing strategies that the learners employ while engaged in a particular task, in order to develop internal representations of the second language. As a result learners acquire an underlying knowledge of the language which is independent of actual performance skills. What is suggested is that a person can learn a language without being called upon to use it productively. Productive skills are the external expression of the system internalised by the learner.

This model is diametrically opposite to the learning model that lies at the heart of most older approaches to teaching a second language. Traditional approaches were founded on the hypothesis that by getting learners to repeatedly produce pre-determined pieces of language would lead them to internalise the system underlying the language, ultimately developing in them the ability to operate the system without conscious reflection.

Diagrammatically these differences could be presented thus:

**Creative Construction Model:**

Input from exposure → Internal processing → System constructed by learners → Spontaneous utterance

**Model underlying most teaching:**

Input from exposure → Productive activity → System assimilated by learners → Spontaneous utterance

(Littlewood 1984: 73)
In the Creative Construction Model the internal processing mechanism operates on the input from the language environment and is not directly dependent on the learner's attempts to produce the language themselves. The learners' own utterances are not a contributive factor in the process of internalisation but are an outcome of the system they have internalised.

1.2.6. The Relationship between the Learner and Language:

Brumfit suggests a three-cornered relationship between the learner as a language user and the language itself.

![System of Language Diagram]

(1) System of Language
(2) Socially constructed significance/cultural value of formal system
(3) Learner/user

(Brumfit 1984:39)

All three of these elements interact with each other in the language learning process, but different teaching methodologies argue about the directionality. Advocates of CLT will tend to assume a clockwise process:

![Clockwise Process Diagram]

(1) System of Language
(2) Socially constructed significance/cultural value of formal system
(3) Learner/user

(Brumfit 1984:40)
In a conscious, strongly cognitive learning procedure the process operates in an anti-clockwise direction.

![Diagram](image)

(1) 

(2) 

(3)

(Brumfit 1984:40)

1.2.7. Subconscious and Conscious Aspects of Second Language Learning:

Language learning and performance involves innumerable processes. "... a multitude of signals are sent and received, and the bulk of them occur at a level which is below the threshold of what we call 'consciousness'. In fact, the less conscious one is of the procedure, the more competent one is. Consciousness is, on many occasions, a hinderance rather than a help". (MacArthur 1984:10)

The creative construction model and the skill-learning model adopt similar viewpoints about the goal of language learning. Learners should aim at mastering a set of cognitive structures (rules/plans) which will enable them to create language purposefully and flexibly in accordance with their communicative intentions and goals. The two models propose different means to this goal. Learning in the creative construction model comprises of the global (rather
than piecemeal) elaboration of an internal system where individual parts are integrated with each other from the very beginning. This development occurs spontaneously and subconsciously, while the learner is engrossed in other activities. The skill-learning models lead the learner through a step-by-step assimilation of individual parts of the system, which eventually becomes integrated with each other. This development is the outcome of conscious guidance and training.

The cornerstone of the creative construction model is subconscious learning whereas the skill-learning model focuses on learning which occurs through conscious effort. The psychology of learning is familiar with this distinction and uses different terms to contrast the two such as 'informal' and 'formal' learning, 'spontaneous' and 'controlled' learning, or 'natural' and 'didactic' learning environments (Littlewood 1984). The value of these two aspects of learning was perceived by the language teaching community as well as linguists and we find Harold Palmer, more than seventy years ago (1922), stressing the need to utilise both 'spontaneous' and 'studial' capacities for language learning. Stephen Krashen (1981, 1982) and others have also discussed the distinction and its implications. The subconscious aspects of language learning have gained currency and it forms the basis of all CLT classroom programmes.
1.2.8. **Language Learning Vis-a-Vis Language Acquisition**:

The distinction introduced by Krashen (1978) between language 'learning' and 'acquisition' refers to the degree of awareness on the part of the learner. Acquisition implies the subconscious assimilation of the target language system resulting from the use of the language for real communication. Learning is the conscious manifestation of grammatical knowledge that has resulted from instruction, and it is believed that it cannot lead to acquisition. During spontaneous language use it is the acquired system that is evidenced. The learned system merely monitors the output of the acquired system. Krashen and the other second language acquisition theorists strongly proclaim that language learning comes about through using the language communicatively, rather than through repetitive practice of language skills.

Most of the learning going on in educational settings is designed to be learning with intent or deliberate learning; it is at least to some extent under the learner's volitional control. The contrast between 'rote' or 'mechanical' learning and insightful, meaningful, or cognitive learning refers to the degree of conceptual understanding of the learning task by the learner. The opposition between sudden restructuring, single trial learning, once-and-for-all learning, and gradual learning (practice, repetition, memorization, shaping, stamping-in) indicate not only different speeds of learning but also different mental processes involved. Self-directed learning (auto-instruction, discovery learning, learning by trial and error) can be
distinguished from other-directed learning (learning from a teacher, receptive learning, following a model or indentifying with it, learning by imitation or suggestion. (Stern 1983:311)

1.2.8.1 Three Views of Acquisition and Learning:

1. Stephen Krashen's Monitor Model:

Krashen's Monitor Model aroused widespread interest during the seventies. According to Krashen acquisition and learning feed into separate systems which perform different functions, i.e. there are two independent systems for developing ability in the second language—subconscious language acquisition and conscious language learning.

He postulated a monitor as a construct to refer to the editing and controlling function that can be exercised during the study of a language or when writing or reading. Through his research and writings on learning, acquisition and the Monitor Model, Krashen drew attention to a long-standing problem of language learning, i.e. to what extent language learning is subject to conscious control, or whether more intuitive, less deliberate ways of learning are more effective.

One of the central tenets of Krashen's theory is that learning does not "turn into" acquisition (1982,83). He says that what is consciously learned—through the presentation of rules and explanation of grammar—does not become the basis
of acquisition of the target language. Krashen basis his arguments on three claims (1983:83-)
a) Sometimes there is 'acquisition' without 'learning'-that is, some individuals have considerable competence in a second language but do not know very many rules consciously.
b) There are cases where 'learning' never becomes 'acquisition'-that is, a person can know the rule and continue breaking it.
c) Nobody knows each and every rule that underlies the system of a language.

During communicative language use (in contrast to conscious language exercises), it is the acquired system that operates to create spontaneous utterances. The learner system, given sufficient time, acts only as a 'monitor' to improve and enrich the formal correctness of the language. It has been observed that learners often produce structures correctly when there is no time-pressure, but produce deviant forms when they have to communicate spontaneously. In the light of what is known about cognitive processes in general it is unlikely that the two systems remain separate.

It is possible for adolescents and adults to acquire language through means other than formal study, and learning activities need to focus on the act of communication and the message to be communicated rather than on the linguistic
means that the learner employs. Traditional teaching programmes accepted conscious learning as the sole means to mastery of a second language, either through learning 'rules', or practising the application of those rules in the production of meaningful utterances in the target language. Krashen's model repudiates this view and draws attention to language acquisition as a natural phenomena, very similar to the process children use in mastering a first language. Language is acquired via interaction in the target language where the focus is on the message being conveyed and understood, rather than on the form of their utterances.

During the process of acquisition learners (or acquirers as Krashen calls them) are not consciously aware of the 'rules' they possess: and they may correct their own errors on their intuitive 'feel' of what is and what is not grammatically acceptable utterance in the target language. Fluency in the target language is based on what has been acquired through active communication, and 'formal' knowledge may be used to alter or monitor the output, which has been initiated by the acquired system. While the monitor may function sometimes even before the utterance is actually produced, it cannot be used to initiate utterances in fluent production of the target language.

The Three Conditions for Monitor Use:

Krashen has specified three conditions for use of the Monitor:
In order to think about and use conscious rules effectively, a second language performer needs to have sufficient time. For most people, normal conversation does not allow enough time to think about and use rules. The over-use of rules in conversation can lead to trouble, i.e. a hesitant style of talking and in attention to what the conversation partner is saying.

Focus on Form: To use the Monitor effectively, time is not enough. The performer must also be focussed on form, or thinking about correctness. Even when we have time, we may be so involved in what we are saying that we do not attend to how we are saying it.

Know the rule: This may be a very formidable requirement. Linguistics has taught us that the structure of language is extremely complex, and they[sic] claim to have described only a fragment of the best known languages. We can be sure that our students are exposed only to a small part of the total grammar of the language, and we know that even the best students do not learn every rule they are exposed to.

(Krashen 1982:16)

**KRASHEN'S MONITOR MODEL**

![Diagram](image)

(Krashen 1981:2)
The fundamental claim of Monitor theory is that conscious learning is available to the performer only as a Monitor. In general, utterances are initiated by the acquired system—our fluency in production is based on what we have 'picked up' through active communication. Our 'formal' knowledge of the second language, or conscious learning, may be used to alter the output of the acquired system, sometimes before and sometimes after the utterance is produced. We make these changes to improve accuracy, and the use of the monitor often has this effect.

(Ibid).

CLT thinks in terms of providing an environment in which the learner can develop his acquisition system in an unselfconscious way, and in which the emphasis on the formal system of language and on development of the learning system in the individual is considerably diminished.

The Monitor Concept and Individual Differences in Second-Language Performance:

According to Krashen differences in second language performance arise from monitor use. He distinguishes three types of Monitor users:

1) **Monitor over-users:** These are people who attempt to Monitor all the time, performers who are constantly checking their output with conscious knowledge of the second language. As a result, such performers may speak hesitantly, often self-correct in the middle of utterances, and are so concerned with the correctness that they cannot speak with any real fluency...
ii. **Monitor under-users:** These are performers who have not learned, or if they have learned, prefer not to use their conscious knowledge, even when conditions allow it. Under users are typically uninfluenced by error correction, can self-correct only by using a 'feel' for correctness (e.g. 'it sounds right'), and rely completely on the acquired system...

iii. **The optimal Monitor user:** Our pedagogical goal is to produce optimal users, performers who use the Monitor when it is appropriate and when it does not interfere with communication. Many optimal users will not use grammar in ordinary conversation, where it might interfere... In writing, and in planned speech, however, when there is time, optimal users will typically make whatever corrections they can to raise the accuracy of their output ...

(Ibid.1982:19-20)

Krashen comments that monitor over-users are either 'victims' of a grammar-only type of instruction or are inclined by nature to learn languages through conscious application of rules. On the other hand, monitor under-users are thought to make no, or very little, use of conscious rules.

2. **Stevick’s Interpretation:**

Earl Stevick (1980) supports the view that though acquisition and learning represent different ways of internalising language, the acquired and learned systems do
not remain separate, but can 'bleed' into one another. Within the creative construction framework this implies that structures which have been consciously learnt through practice could pass into the acquired store and become available for use in spontaneous language activity, together with the structures acquired through creative construction, i.e., subconsciously.

3. The Views of Sajavaara:

The skill-learning model proposes two ways for automated structures to develop. One is through conscious learning and practice and the other is for them to develop spontaneously through natural processes of acquisition. Karl Sajavaara (1978) suggests that acquisition could be seen as the predictable and sequential development of structures that are already automated when they emerge, and can operate without conscious attention. In communicative language use there occurs an appropriate blend of structures developed via acquisition and learning. But learned structures which have not yet become automated cannot be effectively utilised unless the speaker has spare attentional capacity to devote to them.

1.2.9. The Role of Communication in Facilitating Subconscious Learning:

A salient point emphasised by second language research is that progress does not only occur when people make a conscious effort to learn. Progress also occurs as a result of spontaneous, subconscious mechanisms, which are activated
when learners are involved in communication with the second language. This insight had wide ranging significance for teaching. In traditional language teaching the conscious element was strong; dialogues were to be learnt, structures to be practised, words to be memorised, and so on. The subconscious element demands a new range of activities, where focus is not on the language itself, but on the communication of meanings. In these conditions linguistic competence develops through the learner's internal processing mechanisms. Learners should be given ample opportunities for communication via the communicative use of language, so that they can integrate separate structures into a creative system for expressing meanings. Communicative interaction provides the right environment for creative construction to take place in response to the language input. Here a situation is provided where internal processes can create and integrate knowledge, outside the control and consciousness of the teacher.

Classroom activities should enable learners to construct their own representation of the language as they would in a natural environment, passing through the same sequences of development as a natural learner. It is imperative that the learner's attention be directed solely on understanding and expressing meaning through language. Form-oriented procedures such as conscious drilling, mechanical structural practices or correction is to be avoided as much as possible.
1.2.10. **Sociolinguistic Considerations of CLT:**

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:22-28) have discussed the impact of sociolinguistic factors on the learner and the development of CLT. The emphasis has now shifted from the former excessive preoccupation with structure to the communicative purpose of the speech act. This is not to say that grammar and situation have been excluded and neglected, but these are no longer considered the primary focus of curriculum writers or teachers. Now attention has turned to the learner and the functions of language—the communicative purposes he wishes to express and understand.

Communication always takes place in definite but varied sociolinguistic situations and hence both linguistic and extralinguistic factors have been taken into consideration by CLT. The approach takes cognizance of the fact that the social rules and psychological attitudes of the participants towards each other in a conversation (employer-employee, teacher-pupil, doctor-patient, parent-child, for example), the place and the time of the communication act, and the activity or topic being discussed will determine to a large extent the form, tone and appropriateness of any oral or written message.

1.2.10.1. **Factors that Underlie any Speech Act:**

Communicative behaviour is always situationally conditioned and therefore subject to infinite variations. The three prime factors that underlie any speech act are:
i. the function the language serves in the real world;

ii. the varieties of language that can be used within each of the functions.

iii. the shared sociocultural allusions or presuppositions which are indispensable for a proper and complete understanding of the oral or written messages received by the listener/reader and which in turn determine their acceptability or appropriateness. Each of these variables has a bearing on teaching and learning.

1.2.10.1.1. The Functions of Language:

1. Wilkins Categories of Functions;

Wilkins (1973,76) lists the following functions:

Modality: to express degrees of certainty, necessity, conviction, volition, obligation and tolerance.

Moral discipline and evaluation: judgement, approval, disapproval.

Suasion: persuasion, recommendation, prediction.

Argument: relating to the exchange of information and views—assertions, agreements, disagreements, denial, concessions.

Rational inquiry and exposition: author's note presenting arguments and evaluation.

Personal emotions: positive and negative.

Emotional relations: greeting, flattery, hostility, etc.

Interpersonal relations: politeness, status, degree of formality and informality.
2. Van Ek's main Functions of Communication

Van Ek (1980) distinguishes the six main functions of communication:

**Imparting and seeking factual information:** Identifying, reporting, correcting, asking.

**Expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes:** expressing agreement/disagreement, accepting/declining an invitation.

**Expressing and finding out emotional attitudes:** pleasure or displeasure, surprise, hope, intention, etc.

**Expressing and finding out moral attitudes:** apologizing, expressing approval/disapproval etc.

**Getting things done:** suggestion, advising, warning, persuasion.

**Socializing:** greeting, taking leave, attracting attention, proposing a toast.

3. Finocchiaro and Brumfit's five Categories

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) group communicative functions into five broad categories: personal, interpersonal, directive, referential and imaginative.

The personal function refers to a person's ability to clarify thoughts/purpose in speech and writing, express all his innermost feelings and emotions such as joy, love, disappointment, anger, sorrow, etc., change or terminate a conversation.
The interpersonal function is the use of language to establish and maintain desirable social and working relationships through expressions of sympathy, joy at another's success, concern for other people's welfare, making or polite breaking of appointments, apologising for errors or commitments not met, polite agreement/disagreement, gentle interruption of another's speech, avoiding an embarrassing subject, etc.

The directive function of language enables the speaker to make requests or suggestions, to persuade or convince.

The referential function or metalinguistic function of language is concerned with speaking or writing about the present, the past or the future, the immediate environment or the language itself. Translation from one language to another would be included here.

Imaginative function refers to the creative abilities such as composing rhymes, poems, essays, stories, plays, etc.

1.2.10.1.2. The Varieties of Language:

A variety of languages could be used within each function. Inappropriate language can either obscure the message or render it irrelevant.
Factors which determine language varieties:

Languages varieties are generally conditioned by three principal factor:

1. **Geographical factors** as in the case of dialects;
2. **Social factors** which depend not only upon social roles but also on different social classes, social status and educational background;
3. **Register** is generally defined as variations of language which differs according to:
   - formality or informality of the situation;
   - the topic, activity, work or profession under discussion;
   - the mode-oral or written-of the discourse.

There are shades of informality and formality in speech and writing ranging from casual or colloquial to the extremely formal.

**Five Broad Categories of Language Varieties:**

Varieties of language may be grouped into five broad categories 1. Formal: in most writing and in giving public reports. 2. Informal: the private, conversational language used in daily communication and in personal letters.
3. Polite: with people one does not know well or people on different levels in terms of age or social position.
4. Familiar: with people one knows intimately.
5. Tentative: tactful language to avoid arguments or embarrassing disagreements.
Code Switching:

We vary our speech many times during the day depending upon the person or persons we are with and the situation in which we find ourselves. This variation of speech is called 'code switching'. Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:25) give the following example:

A doctor playing tennis with a friend would use casual, informal, or familiar register. The same doctor at a formal, professional dinner party would use a consultative, formal register.

1.2.10.1.3. Socio-cultural knowledge/allusions:

The linguistic features pertaining to functions and varieties could be taught over a particular period of time keeping in mind the learner's age, motivation, needs and language levels. But knowing just the linguistic features is not enough. To participate fully in a conversation with a native speaker of the target language in his own country it is necessary for the learner to know about the culture system of the target community and acquiring this knowledge can take a much longer time. In real life interaction messages in oral or written mode may be misunderstood or given false values due to the fact that the listener and speaker or writer and reader do not share similar socio-cultural experiences. Certain gestures or facial expressions may be difficult for the non-native speaker to decipher, and all language operates within a
network of meanings derived from socio-cultural contexts encompassing all aspects of life from clothes to architecture, food to philosophy.

A communicative curriculum provides for the implicit and explicit learning of culture and language varieties through a multimedia approach and a methodology which gives a wide berth to creative language use. Communicative language teaching materials include radio broadcasts, television, tapes, cassettes, documentary and recreational films, and pictures of all kinds as well as short illustrated dialogues in a variety of everyday real life situations. In the absence of adequate finance many schools and colleges will concentrating on the use of pictures in association with mini-dialogues.

1.2.10.2. Sociological factors influencing learning:

Social attitudes to a foreign or second language are especially important in influencing students' attitudes and aptitudes for language learning.

When a comparison is made between language learning achievement in those countries where the knowledge of one or more foreign languages is regarded very favourably and those where it is regarded with indifference or even hostility, it is clear that social and cultural attitudes have a very deep influence on individual learners. If social attitudes are negative, the overall achievement can be relatively poor no matter how well the teacher does his job. If social attitudes are positive, learning may proceed even where teaching is not particularly efficient. The achievement will be highest where attitudes and
teaching together promote effective
learning and lowest where attitudes are
negative and teaching weak.
(Wilkins 1974:48)

1.2.11. Psycholinguistic Components underlying CLT:
Language is inseparable from the process of thought
and it is probable that the two abilities developed
together. When linguistics moves into the area of
psychology it is known as psycholinguistics. The post-war
era was witness to a great deal of interdisciplinary
development in the fields of psychology and linguistics.
Linguists wanted to co-ordinate their linguistic studies
with those of psychologists. Psychologists on their part
woke up to the fact that the linguistic concepts they had
earlier used in their investigations were common-sense
notions of language familiar to most educated persons and
they had failed to pay adequate attention to the more
systematic thoughts on language which had grown into the
science of linguistics. All this led to meetings between
linguists and psychologists, the intention being "to
establish a common basis of discussion on language, to
develop a body of common theory, and to study research
issues". (Stern 1983:295) The result of such interchange
of ideas was a new interdisciplinary field called
'psycholinguistics'.

The rather new discipline coming to be
known as psycholinguistics ... is concerned
in the broadest sense with relations between
messages and the characteristics of human
individuals who select and interpret them. In
In a narrower sense, psycholinguistics studies those processes whereby the intentions of the speaker are transformed into signals in the culturally accepted code and whereby these signals are transformed into the interpretations of hearers. In other words, psycholinguistics deals directly with the processes of encoding and decoding as they relate states of messages to states of communication. (Osgood and Sebeok 1954).

There are three elements within psycholinguistics which are of primary interest to CLT teachers and curriculum writers.

1. **Language in relation to the five levels of human needs:** A CLT curriculum is humanistic in approach. It teaches the appropriate language required at the five levels of human needs— from the basic need for survival to the most elevated need of man—the need of self-realisation or self-actualization. The Council of Europe recommended the following five levels: survival, basic, general competency, advanced and professional.

2. **Self Motivating Curriculum:** The curriculum is self-motivating since it is specifically designed to serve the actual social, cultural, or vocational needs of learners as determined by interviews and needs assessment analysis.

3. **Awareness of learner differences:** A prime feature of CLT is the awareness that each learner is a unique individual with a different rhythm, pace and style of learning. The learning/teaching units and materials range from the very simple to the extremely complex, permitting learners of varying ages, abilities and at different levels to express all the communicative functions of language.
Selection and grading of language items to be learnt has been changed to conform to the actual real-world needs of the learner. For example, the present perfect tense which is used extensively in actual speech is included among the first units. In a CLT curriculum priorities for teaching communicative expressions, structures, topics and notions are determined primarily by the communication act the learners need or wish to express.

1.2.12. The place of Linguistics in the Communicative Approach:

The term 'Linguistics' in the context of CLT refers to what a person must know about or do with the language when he is a native speaker or when he wishes to become part of a foreign speech community. The communicative approach enables the learner to acquire a reasonable, basic knowledge of the phonological, grammatical, and lexical subsystems of the language and the ability to use them in actual, real-life communication. Classroom learning activities should develop in students skills of encoding and decoding an oral or written message. Students must learn the language items within the purview of the combination of the sound, grammar, lexical and cultural systems reflected in it.
1.2.12.1. **The Subsystems of Language**

1. **The sound system**: Intonation, stress, rhythm, pause, elision, vowels, consonants.

2. **The grammar system**: Morphology (Inflection for plurality tense, possession, etc.), morphophonemics (sound or spelling change, i.e. due to letter combination)

3. **Vocabulary (lexical) system**: Communicative expressions, fixed formulas, content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs), structure words (pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, etc.)

4. **Cultural system**: (i) Appropriateness of language to social situation.
   (ii) Gestures, distances maintained, articulated sounds (e.g. grunts, sighs).
   (iii) Values, mores, taboos, rituals, habits, art forms.
   (iv) Social institutions.

   (Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983:30)

1.2.12.2. **Language Skills and the Subsystems of language**

A conscious and unconscious knowledge of the subsystems of language is vital to the following skills:

a) **listening** with understanding.

b) **speaking** appropriately, fluently, and correctly.

c) **reading** with comprehension and enjoyment.

d) **writing** for practical purposes and to express original thoughts and ideas.
It is not possible to encode (express thoughts orally or in writing) and decode (understand spoken and written matter) without adequate knowledge and insight into the subsystems of the language.

1.2.12.3. Encoding and Decoding:

Encoding makes use of other subsidiary skills such as control of perceptual and motor skills needed to put thoughts into informational sequence. The language user will be expected to manipulate language forms correctly so as to achieve the proper word and sound-spelling patterns that are required for comprehensibility and coherence.

Decoding involves the ability to distinguish between different patterns, word and sentence stress, sounds or the sound-symbol relationship; discerning word order and structural differences; detecting redundant features of the language; retaining the initial part of the message in memory while continuing to listen or to read; recollecting the meaning of the notions in the context of the particular message; and construing the meanings of new and unfamiliar words on the basis of its context of use. The social conventions of the speech community determine the social and psychological appropriateness and acceptability of a speech act. A knowledge of these conventions is fundamental in both the encoding and decoding process.
1.2.13. The Psychological Basis of CLT:

The psychological perspectives of language teaching are based on certain assumptions:

1. Foreign language learning is basically a mechanical process of habit formation:
   - habits are strengthened by reinforcement;
   - foreign language 'habits are formed most effectively by giving the right response, not by making mistakes:
   - language is 'behaviour' and behaviour can be learned only by inducting the student to 'behave'.

2. Language skills are learned more effectively if items of the foreign language are presented in spoken form before the written form.

3. Analogy provides a better foundation for foreign language learning than analysis.

4. The meaning which the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in a matrix of allusions to the culture of the people who speak that language. (Rivers 1964: vii-viii)

A communicative approach utilizes many of the insights provided by the psychological sciences, especially recent findings which have revealed that attitudes, motivation and needs play an important role in language learning. CLT content and methodology are based on the following psychological factors:

1. Learning is proportionate to learner's needs and experiences:

   Optimum learning occurs when learning material and activities are compatible with the needs and experiences of
the learners. An analysis of student's immediate and foreseeable needs is considered the first, indispensable step in curriculum planning. Under ordinary circumstances language is learnt in response to certain communicative needs. In the classroom learners should clearly perceive the communicative value of what they are learning and be helped to relate the language learnt to its use in real life contexts. The teacher should create appropriate communicative contexts in the classroom and learners ought to be encouraged as far as possible to use the language for expressing their own personal needs and their own personality.

2. **Motivation is necessary for language acquisition:** Student motivation is essential for successful acquisition of knowledge and skills. Motivation may be 'integrative' or 'instrumental'. Integrative motivation is the learners' aspiration to find acceptance in the community of the target culture. Instrumental motivation arises from the learner wanting to acquire a second language so as to get a better education, enhance his job opportunities or score better grades.

Both types of motivation should be fostered in the language classroom. If a learner succeeds in obtaining good grades in the class this might lead to integrative motivation.
Nurturing positive attitudes towards the target community: In most situations learning is facilitated through the development of positive attitudes towards the second language community. The teacher should help students overcome their prejudices about the target community and enable them to perceive the common interests that links its members with themselves.

3. Knowing about the target culture: Many foreign language learners experience what may be termed 'culture shock' on their first visit to the foreign (target) country, leaving them with feelings of inadequacy and anxiety. Students need to be thoroughly prepared for this first encounter with proper knowledge and coping strategies for everyday situations.

5. Avoiding constant criticism: In the classroom anxiety can come in the way of learning and make learners reluctant to express themselves through the second language. Constant criticism and error correction aggravates the situation. The teacher should therefore avoid becoming over critical of students' performance, try to create space for each learner's individuality to express itself, and work to produce a relaxed classroom atmosphere with co-operative relationships.
6. **Adopting successful learning strategies:** Successful learners often adopted certain identifiable strategies such as seeking out practice opportunities, mouthing the answers to questions put to other learners, participating actively and positively in classroom activities. All learners should be encouraged to adopt such strategies.