Methodology is the result of interaction between the teacher and taught, and when students' needs change this will necessitate the development and adoption of new methodologies. Changes made to materials or syllabus will be ineffective if teachers do not opt for a correspondingly changed methodology. Any serious attempt at improving teaching must be based on teachers.

What is a Method?

A 'method' can be defined as a coordinated body of technique and teaching procedures, related to a shared body of assumptions about the nature of language teaching and learning. Sometimes a 'method' is packaged and marketed in advance, but more often than not, as with grammar-translation or direct method, we recognize their consistencies as they develop out of our practice in classrooms. (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983:10)

According to Morrow (Johnson and Morrow, 1981:59):

By method I mean some overall means of achieving the general objectives of a course; a method will be realised as the carrying out of a set of procedures or activities, procedures or activities which will have been chose by the teacher because they relate coherently to the way in which it is hoped to reach the course objectives. A method is thus realised as a set of procedures; the procedures themselves involve the use of specific techniques to ensure their success. In an ideal language course it should therefore be possible to see a set of precise objectives in terms of which the classroom procedures, and the techniques which the teacher uses to implement them, have been structured and applied.
3.1.1. Methodology in the Context of Communicative Skills

It is necessary to accord adequate attention to questions of methodology in order to achieve our communicative aims. The search for a communicative methodology begins with an analysis of what communicative skills involve. Communication is a highly complex skill which involves much more than merely 'being grammatical'. A close study of a conversational utterance will reveal that apart from being grammatical, the utterance must also be appropriate on very many levels simultaneously. It must conform to the speaker's aim, to the role relationships between the interactants, to the setting, topic, linguistic content, etc. The speaker is compelled to produce his utterance within severe constraints since he does not know in advance what will be said to him (and hence what his utterance will be a response to). Yet to keep the conversation going he must respond extremely quickly. The rapid formulation of utterances which are simultaneously 'right' on several levels is central to the (spoken) communicative skills. When communication is viewed in these terms (rather than simply as the production of structurally correct utterances) it demands the formulation of new teaching techniques and methodology which will differ significantly from traditional methodology.

3.1.2. The Nature of Communication

Following Breen and Candlin (1980), Morrow (1977) and Widdowson (1978), Canale (1983) discusses the characteristics of communication. It is understood to have the following characteristics; it
- is a form of social interaction, and is therefore normally acquired and used in social interaction;
- involves a high degree of unpredictability and creativity in form and message;
- takes place in discourse and sociocultural contexts which provide constraints on appropriate language use and also clues as to correct interpretation of utterances;
- is carried out under limiting psychological and memory constraints, fatigue and distractions;
- always has a purpose (for example, to establish social relations, to persuade, or to promise);
- involves authentic, as opposed to textbook contrived languages;
- is judged as successful or not on the basis of actual outcomes (for example, communication could be judged successful in the case of a non-native English speaker who was trying to find the train station in Toronto uttered 'How to go train' to a passer-by, and was given directions to the train station).

(Canale 1983:3-4)

3.1.3. Principles of a Good Methodology:

An affectively-based methodology should be based on a classroom organization which is "sufficiently free to enable students to make their own initiatives on their terms in any matters which relate to their deepest feelings". (Brumfit, 1985: 82) According to Brumfit, true affective teaching is far more likely to emerge in the following educational contexts:
those where staff-student contact takes place over a long period so that participants have the time to build up a genuine relationship;

those where teachers perform their tasks efficiently but with a consistent regard for the feelings and variable needs of students;

those where there is a great deal of unstructured staff-student contact;

those where the staff are confident of the abilities of students to succeed;

those where students are confident that the staff understand exactly why they are doing what they do;

those where the staff visibly respect each other and work together as a team.

3.1.4. Communicative Procedures as Reinterpretation of Traditional Procedures.

An emphasis on communication has several immediate implications for methodology though none of them can claim to be very radical and there is a basically no new communicative methodology. Communicative classroom procedures involve simultaneous pair and group activity with all groups or pairs working or talking at once, for only thus can quasi-realistic communication be conveniently simulated on a large scale, and contact between the learners and the language they create be fostered. Role play and simulation exercises are central to the communicative approach and the classroom is bound to become less teacher-centred and more learner-centred as small group interactions, and materials-centred work become more widespread. Teachers find themselves free to use any procedure which will enable them to make language work meaningful and effective. Thus time may be given for students to thir
silently about appropriate and truthful answers to questions, which may be produced in uncertain language. Use of the mother tongue is permitted, even for translation, when it contributes to more fluent communication, and students may be encouraged to talk without restraint for much of the time without much heed being paid to precise accuracy.

The purpose of all these procedures is to create a genuine language using community, although a simple one, in the classroom. In such a community students are involved in language which is meaningful in so far as it enables them to express their own thoughts and feelings. They are encouraged to experiment and play with the language they hear or read so as to develop it for their own needs, right from the beginning of their learning, and they are encouraged to help each other in doing this. The teacher's positive attitude and approach will be of vital importance and support as students develop confidence and competence. The teacher could offer generalizations and rules in answer to students' requests and will be a resource as well as an organizer of activities.

CLT procedures are not very different from those observed in classes taught according to structural-situational and audiolingual principles. Traditional procedures are not rejected but are reinterpreted and extended. In CLT each unit has a noticibly functional focus, new teaching points are introduced with dialogues, followed by controlled practice of the main grammatical patterns. The teaching points are then contextualised through situational practice. On the basis of
the teacher leads learners on to a freer practice activity, such as role play or improvisation. Another similar technique would be to introduce teaching points in dialogue form, grammatical items are isolated for controlled practice, and then freer activities are provided in the form of pair and group work to encourage students to use and practice functions and forms.

3.1.5. CLT in Actual Practice

Implementing CLT principles at the level of classroom procedures remains a central issue in any discussion of the communicative approach. How can the range of communicative activities and procedures be defined, and how can the teacher determine the appropriate mix and timing of activities that best meets the needs of particular learner or group of learners? These fundamental questions cannot be answered by proposing further taxonomies and classifications, but require systematic investigation of the use of different kinds of activities and procedures in L2 classroom.

CLT theoretical proposals and principles have not pointed the way to a specific and well-defined method. An approach or method is not just a set of instructional practices based on a particular view of language and language learning. Implicit in a method are the claims that:

- the method brings about effective second or foreign language learning:
- it will do so more efficiently than other methods.
The value or effectiveness of methods is necessarily assessed in relation to a language course or program having specific goals or objectives. Most methods exist in the main as proposals, and we have no way of knowing how they are typically implemented by teacher.

There is a great deal of literature about the communicative approach at the level of philosophy and belief, i.e. how the advocates of CLT believe this method or technique should be used. Teaching/learning materials have been designed and brought out on CLT principles but hardly any data is available on what actually happens to this method when teachers use them in the classroom. We have a number of books and articles on the theory of CLT but very little on how such theory is reflected in actual classroom practice and processes.

3.1.6. Two Basic Assumptions of the Communicative Methodology:

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:90) have pointed out the two basic assumptions of the communicative methodology:
1. We are concerned in the classroom with language use, not language knowledge.
2. We learn language most effectively by using it in realistic situations.

Methodologically, the communicative approach demands more emphasis on certain techniques than in the recent past, but it does not claim to repudiate all our traditional expectations and offer a new panacea which will solve any problems overnight. The communicative methodology evolves out of and extends beyond many of the language learning principles which have developed over the past century.
3.1.7. The Elements of Communicative Methodology:

1. **Emphasis on meaning:** Classroom techniques and procedures emphasise 'meaning' over 'form'. The teacher is more concerned with what the students are saying rather than how they are saying it. Language teaching/learning takes place not in terms of language structures but in terms of communicative functions. Pupils' attention is thus focussed, not on language forms, but at what he/she wants to do with these forms when they wish to communicate with one another.

2. **Emphasis on fluency and speaking skills:**

   Students are encouraged to speak more in class, encouraged to participate in discussions. Classroom teaching is fluency-focussed, with emphasis on open-ended communication activities taking place in real time. But accuracy work, where the emphasis is on the inculcation of correct linguistic forms, is also catered to.

3. **Student initiative is encouraged:** Students are encouraged to take the initiative to find out, explore, discover, experiment. They are encouraged to look up reference books, reference materials, to make notes, etc. The teacher directs them towards self-learning or autonomous learning.

   The greater the responsibility given to learners, the more effective their learning will be. There will be much scope for independent work. Learning is to a large extent the learner's responsibility. The teacher can help, advise, teach; but only the learner can learn. In communicative methodology the classroom environment and activities make it possible for the learner to do things by himself. A cardinal tenet of
learning theory is that you learn to do by doing.

4. **The Classroom arrangement**: The traditional classroom arrangement, with students sitting in regimented rows under the eagle eye of a magisterial teacher, is discarded for a more formal arrangement - circular or semi-circular, with students facing each other. The traditional arrangement destroys all hopes of communication. The circular/semi-circular arrangement is conducive to communication.

5. **Language experience taken out of classroom and made relevant**: Students' learning and acquisitional activities is extended beyond the classroom, making the total exposure to the language large and relevant. Structures learnt in the classroom is related to their communicative functions in real situations and real time. Learners are provided ample opportunities to use the language themselves for communication. The teacher is concerned with developing the learner's ability to take part in the process of communicating through the language, rather than with their perfect mastery of individual structures.

6. **Learner differences catered to**: Learning materials and techniques are devised to individualize work, so that all students in a class do not have to work in the same way, at the same pace and at the same time. CLT methodology takes into account the different ways in which people use language and materials and procedures are so organized that students are forced to try to express themselves through the language, often without much help from the teacher.
7. **Individual effort and group interaction:** Both individual effort and group interaction are of value. The communicative methodology makes use of them in varying patterns. Most tasks or activities begin with individuals working alone either to comprehend or to prepare on input to subsequent group work. This information is then shared and worked on in groups varying in size according to the type of activity. Interaction among group members promote language learning as it allows for the combined competence and skills of individuals to be brought to bear on the task and provides a social context for the exchange of information. Classroom procedures will provide ample scope for interaction among students. Informal discussions, debates, role-playing are all part of classroom learning activities.

8. **Task-oriented activities as against exercise-centred activities:** Classroom activities are task oriented rather than exercise centred. Students are expected to listen to or read for information which they then discuss before formulating decisions or solutions in spoken or written form. Task oriented/problem solving activities increase motivation and engage both the cognitive and affective resources of the learners.

9. **Integration of Language skills:** Classroom activities provide for the integration of all four language skills-listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The proportion of each would vary with the nature of the task. Students will not be given a listening or reading text in
isolation and asked to answer questions on it for no apparent reason. Language learning involves 'the whole person' and is not treated as a purely technical exercise.

10. **Conscious and unconscious learning:** Communicative methodology and activities in the classroom cater to both conscious learning as well as unconscious learning.

11. **Teacher-student interaction:** Teacher-student interaction is pivotal to communicative methodology. The relationship is not the traditional one of the dominating teacher and the passive student. Here the relationship is democratised. The teacher guides/directs the students towards self-learning. We will find the teacher and students attempting to discuss various interesting and relevant topics in English.

12. **Relaxed atmosphere in the classroom:** The classroom environment is made as relaxed and informal as possible—without teacher losing control of the class—to generate genuine discussion and real language use. Traditional classroom and discipline and routine are usually too rigid.

13. **Additional teaching/learning material:** Along with the textbook other kinds of materials is used. Newspapers and magazines are also used. Additional teaching/learning materials are an interesting source of relevant and contemporary material.

14. **The active involvement of all learners:** Communicative methodology demands the active involvement of all learners according to their knowledge, ability and skill. Teaching and learning is marked by variety and differentiated modes of
learning so that all learners have opportunities for introducing, developing and maintaining ideas.

15. **Authentic language:** The communicative teaching of English is marked by an atmosphere of using and working with the target language and the target culture. Hence the emphasis on the use of a variety of media to bring examples of authentic communication into the classroom, the value attached to genuine communication. Classroom teaching should take pupils to their anticipated language needs in the outside world.

   A crucial feature of a communicative method will be that it operates with stretches of language above the sentence level, and operates with real language in real situation. Communicative methodology is concerned with developing the ability to deal with strings of sentences and ideas in the oral modes (speaking and listening) which are processed in what is called 'real' time. When we are having a conversation with somebody it is not possible to study what they say at length before coming up with an appropriate reply; the whole process must be instantaneous. In written modes, the time pressure may be less severe but it is still not enough to be able to decipher or produce individual elements of the message. What is needed is the ability to work in the context of the whole.

16. **The role of the mother tongue:** In the early stages of language learning it may be better to have talk going on in the mother tongue, or in a mixture of mother tongue and English, than to have no fluent talk going on at all.
17. **Errors as a normal part of language learning:** Pupils are given plenty of opportunities to make mistakes. If there is to be genuinely fluent practice, many mistakes of phonology, syntax and semantics will be made. Error is a normal part of language learning and much correction is both time consuming and unproductive besides dampening students' motivation. As far as possible the communicative methodology expects the teacher to be non-judgemental. Teachers should become aware of the relative significance of various kinds of errors. Errors will show the teacher the kinds of problems the learner is facing and overcoming. Students will necessarily make mistakes as they learn a new language and they need the opportunity to experiment with language even if that means making mistakes while they do so.

18. **Every lesson has a focal point:** The focus of every lesson (or parts of a lesson) is the performing of some operation—learning how to do something. The starting point (and the end point) of every lesson will be an operation of some kind which the student might actually want perform in the foreign language—e.g. understanding a set of instructions, a letter reserving accommodation in a hotel, listening to a weather forecast, asking for directions, etc.,

The student should get a clear answer to the question. 'Why am I learning this?' 'What am I learning to do?' Learning the question form of the third person singular of the present tense because it is in the text-book is one thing; learning it so that you can ask questions at a railway station(Does this
train go to Mysore? Does it stop at Mandya?) is quite another. Every lesson should end with the learner being able to see clearly that he can do something which he could not do at the beginning- and that the 'something' is communicatively useful.

19. **Giving pupils time to think**: Pupils are given sometime to think about what they are going to say, so that they can contribute meaningfully to the activity. Even at a very early stage, most patterns can be extended by pupils themselves so that they are making true statements about themselves: 'Tomorrow I am going to ......' / 'Every day I .... .....'.

Filling in gaps of this kind will require a little thought, and specific time (a minute or two) should be given for pupils to do their thinking.

20. **Classroom teaching is related to learner needs**: Classroom instruction is based on an analysis of learners' language needs. As far as possible they are taught the kinds of language use which is most necessary for them.

21. **Teaching and learning is observable and transparent**: Teaching and learning is observable and transparent in that all the content of spoken and imagined activities are presented and made real to the learner through pictures, sketches, diagrams and other representatives.

3.1.8. **The Role of Accuracy and Fluency in Communicative Methodology**: A communicative methodology is not wholly new or original but rather involves an increase in importance for certain techniques at the expense of others instead of a total reorganization of classroom activities. But a genuinely communicative methodology requires teachers to review and
redirect their tasks which is likely to differ substantially from those of the past.

A pertinent point which cannot be sidetracked in any discussion of CLT is the role of 'natural' language activity, whether conversation, writing or reading. The speaker, when conveying his message, has to communicate correctly (i.e. use grammatically correct language) and also coherently, without long breaks and pauses. This distinction can be conveniently expressed through the use of two terms - **accuracy** and **fluency**.

This simple binary distinction corresponds to basic planning elements in any teacher's activity. Natural conversation is not intended to show off ability in grammar and pronunciation and it is downright rude to stop listening to what a person says and start commenting on how the person says it. Teachers need not only to help learners to produce correct forms in foreign languages (accuracy), but also to help them to communicate naturally (fluency), and this aspect of their work has received less attention. The problem is that no one can communicate naturally and at the same time concentrate fully on the form rather than the content of their speech. When participating in a conversation a person's concern is with how much he needs to say to make his point clear and not to draw special attention to the way he speaks. Mere understanding of linguistic and grammatical rules and even the rules of social interaction, will not enable a speaker to use a language effectively. A person must develop the ability to adapt and improvise—i.e. to conduct one's own negotiations. Some work
must be aimed at accuracy and some at fluency. Syllabuses should not only specify what language items need to be introduced to the students, by means of accuracy work, but also provide the necessary time for students to spend on fluency work, in the course of which they will internalize items to which they have only previously been exposed. In Krashen's model accuracy work requires operation of the monitor and fluency work presumably assists acquisition. In Halliday's model of learning how to mean will emerge mainly through fluency work, but accuracy work will make available to the non-native speaker the language items that are necessary to negotiate meaning.

Fluency work occurs whenever the student uses whatever inadequate dialect has been so far internalised to realise some communicative goal without fear of correction. But fluency work will still be dependent on the provision of some amount of accuracy work. Many occasions call for correction of learners' errors and presentation by the teacher of new items, and here accuracy is the issue, but this must not be confused with the learning process itself. That can only occur when students themselves operate the language for their own purposes—though often guided by the teacher—and in their own way.

3.1.8.1. The Distinction between Accuracy and Fluency:

Brumfit (1984:52-57) has undertaken an analysis of the two concepts of accuracy and fluency and their relevance to CLT. This distinction between the two terms relates more closely to methodology rather than psychology or linguistics.
This division will have a bearing on the teacher's decision about the content of lessons and the distribution of time between various types of activity. Its value in CLT is more technological than theoretical, because the intention is to produce better teaching-teaching which correlates with our understanding of the nature of language and of language acquisition.

Accuracy:

The term 'accuracy' and what it implies reflects a concern that has always been predominant in the history of language teaching. Attention to accuracy results in usage, rather than use of language, in the classroom. But certain points about the term 'accuracy' require clarification.

1. Accuracy does not imply that fluent language may not also be accurate language; it simply refers to a focus by the user on account of the pedagogical context created or allowed by the teacher, on the formal features of the language which will be evaluated for their observed characteristics.

2. The distinction between fluency and accuracy is not one between what is expedient and undesirable in language teaching; there is a definite and constructive role for accuracy work in language learning, but its function differs from that of fluency work. Above all the over-use of accuracy work is bound to impede successful language development.

3. Accuracy does not only refer to focussing on certain aspects of speaking and writing but also listening and reading. Any language activity which involves learners in the operation of language which is not similar to the manner in which language
is utilized in natural, mother tongue use is an accuracy activity. Thus, extensive reading is aimed at developing fluency but intensive reading work focusses on accuracy. Free and some situational writing exercises are directed at fluency but all controlled and much guided writing is aimed at producing accuracy. Listening exercises are aimed at accuracy but casual listening in the classroom has a major role as a fluency activity.

4. This distinction does not take account of the 'quality' of the language produced or of comprehension. Language work focused primarily on language is always accuracy work, however 'fluently' it may be performed, whereas language work which entails using the target language as if it is a mother tongue is always fluency work—the accuracy or inaccuracy of the language produced is irrelevant as is the halting or tentative nature of the language process; the criterion is always the intended mental set of the user.

5. In a manner similar to native speakers monitoring may take place during fluency work, provided it has the same intention as it has for native speakers. Teachers should be careful to see that this distinction does not lead them to prevent learners, especially those at intermediate and advanced levels, from combining a focus on use with formal accuracy in terms of specific language items; pedagogical self-monitoring can be viewed as accuracy intervening in fluency activity, and such intervention should not be curtailed if learners want it—though this should not be recommended as the prime learning strategy.
Fluency is a term which has been used for a long time with reference to language teaching and its nature has been indicated in the discussion of accuracy above.

C.J. Fillmore (1979) discussing fluency in relation to linguistics and with reference to production, distinguishes four different kinds:

1. The first is 'the ability to fill time with talk', i.e., to talk for a prolonged period without long or extended pauses. To develop this ability the learner must monitor his speech unconsciously and automatically, the quality of the talk being less important than the quantity.

2. The second kind is 'the ability to talk in coherent, reasoned and "semantically dense" sentences. exhibiting mastery of the semantic and syntactic resources of the language.

3. Fillmore's third kind is 'the ability to have appropriate things to say in a wide range of contexts', so that the speaker does not grope for words when talking to strangers or when an unexpected situation arises.

4. The fourth is the ability to be 'creative and imaginative in ... language use', including punning, joking, varying styles, creating metaphors, etc.:" the impression you have with this kind of speaker is that he does very rapid pre-editing of what he says, that he is quickly able to look over a large range of alternative ways of responding to a situation and chooses the one that sounds most sonorous or clever. ...The maximally gifted wielder of language is somebody who has all of these abilities".

(C.J. Fillmore 1979:93)
These characteristics relate to speed and continuity, coherence, context-sensitivity, and creativity, to an interaction between the language system that we operate and other personality characteristics. The value of Fillmore's discussion arises from the fact that it draws attention to the interrelation between language and knowledge of the world in the development of fluency.

3.1.8.2. Fluency in the Classroom:

Fluency is regarded as natural language use and there are certain important aspects of such natural language use within the classroom which distinguishes it from traditional classroom activity. Taking into consideration the constraints imposed by the classroom environment, we can identify fluency thus:

1. Language produced should have been processed by the speaker, or comprehension should have been constructed by the reader or listener, without being received word-to-word from an intermediary.

2. The language content should be decided by the speaker or writer alone to meet the demands of the specified task. The language may also be a response to content determined by other members of the class, or by a teacher or textbook.

3. As in normal conversation, adjustment to the demands of a changing situation will be necessary—thus, in speech, improvising, paraphrasing, repair and reorganization is likely to occur, and in reading, scanning ahead and rereading will be expected strategies. Listening to long stretches of formal speeches, such as lectures, without interrupting will also form part of the program.
4. The objectives of the activity will not be the formation of appropriate or correct language. Here the language will always be a means to an end.

5. During the performance of the activity the teacher assumes the role of co-communicator. The teacher-student relationship and the corresponding power equation undergoes change, but the crucial point is that the teacher's unavoidably greater power to determine what is or is not appropriate behaviour should not impose restrictions on the student's freedom to conceal or reveal their own intimate feelings, or personal information, as they would be free to do in a non-pedagogical environment.

6. Here the teacher's attitude to error is of great significance. Correction is given a place of less importance in fluency work, for it not only distracts from the message, but may even be perceived as rude. Error is an inevitable part of the process of second language development. The behaviourist view that errors inevitably reinforce errors must be modified in the light of the research findings of the last two decades.

Fluency is thus seen as the maximally effective operation of the language system so far acquired by the student. The communicative approach claims that by putting students into positions where the compulsion of the situation forces them to use language as fluently as possible, the process of creative construction is facilitated. The extreme interpretation of this claim and one which is pivotal to CLT is that problem solving activities using English can completely replace formal instruction in English.
3.1.8.3. **The Language Teacher’s Role in the Development of Fluency:**

It is the language teacher’s responsibility to present the linguistic system to the students in a way that makes it as easy as possible for them to learn it. But traditional classroom procedures of presentation, drilling and practice will not enable students to learn the linguistic system or how to use it with ease for personal purpose. These traditional procedures might be of help to students in storing parts of the language in their memories, but until the language has been activated so that it can be used (either for easy recognition or production) it cannot be considered fully learnt. As experienced teachers know, the duration between 'teaching' and genuine 'use' will vary considerably from student to student, and from language item to language item. It is possible to use a few items which are simple and clearly understood very soon after initial teaching, but for other items it may take six weeks or more before students start producing them naturally without prior thought. It is the teacher’s responsibility to device activities which will give students plenty of opportunity to use or negotiate with the language they have learnt or been exposed to. Such activities should emphasise fluency work where students will be expected to concentrate on the communication task and the natural use of language, and not on formal accuracy.

3.1.8.4. **The Communicative Syllabus and Fluency Activities in the Classroom:**

Syllabuses are lists of specifications to guide the teacher as to what should be taught. But a large proportion of
Classroom work is concerned not with teaching but with learning. One of the main obstacles to successful teaching is that a learner's speed of learning is different from the teacher's speed of teaching. The syllabus must not only make provisions for the introduction of new language, but there must also be extensive 'gaps' in which no new material is presented. These gaps should be used to enable students to effectively utilize the language they have learnt for genuine purposes of communication and develop the skills of negotiation via teacher-student or student-student interaction. A prime characteristic of fluency activity is the unpredictability of the nature of language being used. The learners will have the opportunity to use the language which comes to them naturally though it may teem with mistakes and be viewed as incorrect from the point of view of formal accuracy. Fluency activities paves the way for the experience of genuine language behaviour-adjusting, negotiating meaning, trying to say things they have not been taught to say - with whatever language structures and items they have mastered so far. Fluency is developed not through formal teaching but through practice, exercising the innate ability which they have already cultivated in their mother tongue and adjusting this ability to the demands of English. So here the students are given ample scope to make maximally effective use of the language they have learnt, which has a positive bearing on their development of the formal system itself by increased experience of communication.
Right from the commencement of the course it is advisable to allot about a third of the total time on this sort of fluency activity, the proportion being increased as time goes on. All tasks which involve simultaneous group work and are oriented towards the development of fluency along with much simulation and role play activities, and many communication games. But such procedures will incorporate fluency activities only if students interact and cooperate in the task they have to accomplish, using English as much as possible, without fear of correction if they make mistakes. To successfully implement communicative language teaching teachers should carefully devise classroom procedures and tasks that cater to the development of both accuracy and fluency. As the course progresses care should be taken to reduce learning load and increase acquisition chances.

3.1.9. The Role of Instructional Materials in the Communicative Methodology:

The role of instructional/teaching-learning materials should be reflective of the decisions taken with regard to the primary objectives to be achieved through the materials. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986:25) the role of instructional material is determined by the following factors:

- primary function of materials;
- the form materials take (eg. textbooks, audiovisual);
- relation of materials to other input;
- assumptions made about teachers and learners.
In the communicative methodology the role of instructional materials may be specified thus:

1. **Materials will focus on the communicative abilities of interpretation, expression and negotiation.**
2. **Materials will focus on understandable, relevant and interesting exchanges of information rather than on the presentation of grammatical forms.**
3. **Materials will involve different kinds of texts and different media, which the learner can use to develop their competence through a variety of different activities and tasks.**
4. **Materials will allow learners to progress at their own rates of learning.**
5. **Materials will allow for different styles of learning.**
6. **Materials will provide opportunities for independent study and use.**
7. **Materials will provide opportunities for self-evaluation and progress in learning.** *(Ibid: 25-26)*

Maley *(1986:94)* cites the following principles:

1. **The information gap/problem solving principle:** Real communication between two or more persons implies that one of them knows something that the other(s) do not know and by communicating they are attempting to bridge this information gap. In communicative classroom activities an information gap exercise means that one student has certain information that is not available to another student. The second student will have to elicit the required information via the use of appropriate language for successful communication in order to complete a task or solve a problem.
2. The *game principle*: Game like activities innovatively devised and implemented can contribute a great deal in the development of 'communicative competence'. Of course, there is a vast difference between the classroom and the real world and it is impossible to replicate 'real' situations in the classroom except through a temporary suspension of disbelief. The games themselves are mere replicas of possible activities learners will be involved in outside the classroom. But the fictitious framework of the game provides a genial situation for the propagation of genuine language behaviour involving the use of functional categories which will have a much wider application. Games, unlike role playing, gives the learner the freedom to be himself, i.e., engage his real personality with those of his fellow learners without the additional burden of trying to be someone else.

Tasks designed on this principle are internally self-sufficient, and the activity rather than the language is primary. For example, students might have been asked to derive a story from a set of pictures. They might then be asked to mime the story for another group or interpret it. The activity is completely artificial and yet within the confines of its own 'rules' it is real.

3. The *bi-sociative principle*: Activities evolving from this principle attempt to stimulate and activate students' creative faculties by exposing them to unusual combinations, random data or apparently unconnected material. For example, students are divided into groups of three and each group is given five words; for each word they must find three others which rhyme with it.
These are than compared with another group and a composite list of rhyming words is made. The group of six then chooses two words from each of the other five groups of rhyming words and uses them as the end-rhymes in a ten line poem.

3.1.10. Strategies to Maximise Learning Potential in the Communicative Classroom.

Theoretically, communicative classroom procedures attempt to actuate interpretation, expression and negotiation of meaning calling upon learners to be "active, not just reactive" (Kumaravadivelu 1992) in class. Learners are encouraged to seek information, express opinions, clarify doubts, agree/disagree with peers and teacher. They should be taught to cross the threshold of memorized patterns and monitored repetitions into the realm of meaningful interaction. Many factors may prevent a communicative classroom from becoming genuinely communicative, the chief among them being that"... teacher educators appear to have been less than successful in providing classroom teachers with strategies minimally required to cope with the challenges of a communicative classroom. As Savignon (1991:272) rightly argues: 'in our effort to improve language teaching we have overlooked the language teacher' ... very little systematic inquiry has been conducted into identifying strategies that will help teachers prepare themselves to be communicative teachers". (Ibid).

Kumaravadivelu (1992:12-18) has put forth five macrostrategies which will help the CLT teacher to make classroom activities truly communicative.
1. **Create learning opportunities in class:** This is based on the popular belief that we cannot really teach a language. We can only create the right sort of environment to nurture individual capabilities and maximise learning opportunities. This can be done by both the teacher and the learner.

2. **Utilize learning opportunities created by the learner:** This is based on the premise that teachers and learners are co-participants in the language learning process and classroom discourse.

3. **Facilities negotiated interaction between participants:** This refers to meaningful learner-learner and learner-teacher interaction in class and entails active learner participation in classroom negotiation. The learner should have the freedom to initiate interaction - not merely react and respond to what the teacher says.

4. **Activate the intuitive heuristics of the learner:** It is presumed that all human beings possess intuitive heuristics-conscious and unconscious cognitive capabilities which help them to discover and assimilate patterns and rules and linguistic behaviour. The teacher should exploit this ability by providing learners with enough data from which they can infer and internalize underlying rules from their use in varied communicative contexts.

5. **Contextualise linguistic input:** This is based on the "psycholinguistic insight that comprehension and production involve rapid and simultaneous integration of syntactic; semantic, and discourse phenomena". Linguistic input should consist of meaningful units of discourse rather than isolated sentences. The former smoothens the process of meaning-making.
while the latter renders it harder.

3.1.11. **Communicative Classroom Activities:**

The range of exercise types and activities that can be designed to suit the communicative approach is unlimited provided such exercises help learners to achieve the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage learners in communication, and make use of the communication processes of information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:135-154) have discussed in detail the various activities which help in the development of the four language skills-listening, speaking, reading and writing activities.

Littlewood (1981:20-64) distinguishes between functional communication activities which are task based and social interaction activities which include conversation and discussion sessions, dialogues and role plays, simulation, skits, improvisation and debates.

3.1.11.1. **The Purpose of Communicative Activities:**

Littlewood (1981:17-18) has listed the contributions that communicative activities can make to language learning.

1. **They provide 'whole task' practice:** The communicative tasks devised in the classroom enable students to practice total language skills, or whole task practice. The various kinds of communicative activities are structured in order to suit the learner's level of ability.

2. **They provide motivation:** The learner's ultimate objective is to use the language in communication with others. Thus
motivation to learn is sustained if their classroom learning is related to this objective and helps them to achieve it with increasing success.

Since the learner's ultimate objective is to use the language as means of communication rather than as a structural system, their learning makes sense to them as it builds on this conception rather than contradict it.

3. They allow natural learning: Language learning takes place inside the learner and as such many aspects of it are beyond the teacher's pedagogical control. Natural processes, which operate when a person is involved in using language for communication activate the learner's language learning mechanism. Thus, communicative activity (inside and outside the classroom) is essential to the total learning process.

4. They create a context which supports learning:

Communicative activities nurture positive personal relationships among learners and between learners and teachers. These relationships 'humanise' the classroom environment creating a congenial atmosphere which supports the individual in his efforts to learn.

3.1.11.2. Littlewood's Distinction between Pre-communicative and Communicative Learning Activities:

Littlewood (1981:85-89) has categorised CLT methodological procedures into pre-communicative and communicative learning activities.

Pre-communicative activities focus on specific elements of knowledge or skill which compose communicative ability, and providing learners with opportunities to practice them in
isolation which trains them in the part skills of communication rather than practising the whole skill to be acquired. Pre-communicative activities will include different types of drill or question and answer practice. The aim is to provide learners with a fluent command of the linguistic system, without concentrating on the use of this system for communicative purposes. Thus the learner's main objective would be to produce language which is grammatical, acceptable, accurate and appropriate rather than to communicate meanings effectively.

Communicative activities prepare the ground for learners to activate and integrate their pre-communicative knowledge and skills so that they may use them for the communication of meanings. Here the learners have to practice the total skills of communication and different types of communication situations may demand the use of an immense variety of skills.

Communicative activities may be further divided into functional communication activities and social interaction activities. In functional communication activities the learner is placed in a situation where he must perform a task by communicating as best as he can, with whatever resources he has available. The criteria for success is practical; how effectively the task is performed. In social interaction activities the learner has also to take account of the social context in which communication takes place. He is required to go beyond what is necessary for simply 'getting meanings across', in order to develop greater social acceptability in the language he uses. This methodological framework is represented diagrammatically as follows by Littlewood:
Pre-communicative activities aim to give the learners fluent control over linguistic forms, so that the lower level processes will be capable of unfolding automatically in response to higher-level decisions based on meanings. Although the activities may emphasise the links between forms and meanings, the main criterion for success is whether the learner produces acceptable language.

In communicative activities, the production of linguistic forms becomes subordinate to higher-level decisions, related to the communication of meanings. The learner is thus expected to increase his skill in starting from an intended meaning, selecting suitable language forms from his total repertoire, and producing them fluently. The criterion for success is whether the meaning is conveyed effectively.

(Littlewood, 1981:89)

3.1.12. Developing Communicative Abilities through Communicative Activities.

3.1.12.1. Listening Abilities:

Communication is a two-sided process because every message is directed at a receiver. So it is necessary to develop the students' ability as a receiver of spoken messages.
3.1.12.1.1. The Distinction between Hearing and Listening:

Widdowson (1978: Chap. 3) makes a useful distinction between 'hearing' and 'listening'. According to him hearing refers to the listener's ability to recognize language elements in the flow of sound, using his knowledge of the phonological and grammatical systems of the language to relate these elements to each other in clauses and sentences in order to understand the meaning of these sentences. He uses 'listening' to refer to the ability to understand how a particular sentence relates to what else has been said and its function in the communication. At this stage the listener selects what is relevant to his purpose and rejects what is irrelevant. This distinction corresponds to a similar one made by Rivers (1966: 142) between two levels of activity in a foreign language—the recognition level and the selection level.

It is natural that more time will be spent by learners in listening to the foreign language than in producing it themselves. They will not only have to understand what is said to them during face-to-face interaction but will be silent receivers in many situations where a vast range of messages will be directed at them, from radio, television, announcements and many other sources. In the foreign environment the ability to make sense of these messages is often a matter of survival besides providing access to wider and richer experiences. Even in their own country, learners are likely to hear the foreign language more often than to speak it.
While speaking the learner is free to select the language he needs to use and can therefore compensate for deficiencies in his repertoire, through communicative strategies such as using paraphrase or simplifying his message. In the role of listener he generally cannot exercise control over the language directed at him but must be prepared to extract the meaning inherent in the message. It is therefore necessary that his ability to understand be well above his ability to speak: his receptive repertoire must be in rapport with the productive repertoire of the native speakers he will need to understand.

It is not possible for a teacher to teach a student to listen though he can help him to practice and learn. The teacher can direct the learner's attention to various important characteristics of speech which aid understanding. The teacher should provide the student with appropriate texts and devise tasks that will enable him to develop his listening ability and integrate it with other skills. The student should be given plenty of opportunities to practice listening and develop confidence in his abilities without being interrupted by the teacher.

3.1.12.1.2. What to Listen to:

The teacher should develop in the student the ability to listen with comprehension to connected discourse which may range in clarity and intelligibility, depending upon both speaker and situation. The learner must be prepared to handle a wide range of situational and performance factors which are beyond his control. For example:
- he will need to understand speech in situations where communication is hampered by external factors such as background noise, distance or unclear sound reproduction (e.g. over loud speakers at airports or stations);
- he must become accustomed to everyday, unplanned speech which is characterised by false starts, hesitations, etc.:
- he will need to understand speech which varies in tempo, style, clarity of articulation, and accent, including other non-native speakers of the language.

The teacher should expose his learners to speech with varying linguistic and situational characteristics. According to Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:136-7) the learner should be helped to hear and respond to:
- the phonemic sounds of the language and (later) the personal and dialectical variations of the phonemes as spoken by some native speakers;
- sequences of sounds and the ways they group, the lengths of pauses, patterns of stress and intonation, the elisions or contractions;
- the structure words and their required sound changes depending on their position before other words;
- inflections for plurality, tense, possession, etc., many of which students should be helped to recognize as redundant elements;
- the sound changes and functional shifts (involving positional shift) brought about by derivation (e.g. justice, (to) be just, unjust, justly):
- the structural patterns (of verb groups, of prepositional phrases, etc.):
- the word-order clues to grammatical function and meaning, e.g., the bus station/the station-bus;
- the meanings of words depending on the context or the situation being discussed (e.g., the head of the statue, of an institution, of the table);
- the formulas, introductory words, idiomatic expression, and hesitation words which occur in speech;
- numbers, days, names and dates;
- other notions used to 'complete' the function;
- the communicative expressions or formulas which express the speaker's purpose.

3.1.12.1.3. The Active Nature of Listening Comprehension:

It is misleading to term listening as a passive skill because it demands active involvement from the hearer. To re-construct or decode the message received from the speaker the hearer must actively apply his linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge of the language and divide the continuous stream of sound into meaningful units. Then he should compare these units with the shared knowledge between himself and the speaker in order to interpret their meaning.

3.1.12.1.4. Listening with a Purpose

In life we never listen without a purpose. The student should not be asked to listen without pinpointing a purpose that relates to the communicative value of the text. A familiar technique for providing a purpose for listening is by means of
questions, which prompts learners to listen for specific facts or to make inferences from what they hear. Another point to be underscored is that in developing listening skills it is essential that the teacher neither slow down nor distort speech in the mistaken notion that it will help students to understand. Anything heard by the students should contain the typical rhythm, intonation, pauses, contractions and elisions of the target language. If the listening task is kept as realistic as possible the student will be able to relate what he is doing in the classroom to something he might want to do in real life in the foreign language.

While listening it is important that the learner retain the essential details of the first part of the discourse as he continues to listen to the other parts. A considerable period of time is required for the development of this skill. Initially learners could be given listening tasks in brief utterances within one situation which are easily retained. Then, within the same situation and topic longer sentences are introduced, eventually leading to combination of sentences first in the same and later within different situations and topics.

3.1.12.1.5. Listening Activities:

Communicative listening tasks can engage the student in a wide variety of activities, which often call upon the use of other skills also, both verbal and non-verbal, aural and graphic. Whatever the tasks, they will have to approximate authenticity in language, content and communicative purpose, thus helping to train the student for communication outside the classroom.
Littlewood's inventory of Listening Activities:

Littlewood (1981:68-74) groups listening activities according to the kind of response that the learner must produce:

1. Performing physical tasks (eg. selecting pictures)
2. Transferring information (eg. into tabular form)
3. Reformulating and evaluating information.

1. Performing Physical Tasks:

All these activities require the learner to look for specific meanings, related to a task which he must perform. He has to listen selectively in order to extract only that information which is relevant to the task. Here success is measured in practical terms: whether the non-linguistic task is performed correctly or not. These activities include the following:

i) Identification and selection:

Examples:

a) The learner has a set of pictures. He must listen to a description or dialogue, and select the picture(s) which the spoken text refers to.

b) The learner(s) may be asked to identify a wanted person or a stolen car, described in a radio message.

c) The learner may have only one picture and is made to listen to two or three brief description or dialogues. He has to decide which spoken text refers to the picture.

ii) Sequencing:

Here the learners must identify successive pictures that are described.
In this type of activity learners are required to place items not into a sequence, but into their appropriate location etc. on a plan of a house or a town. In another variation they may have to follow a route on a map.

v) Drawing and Construction:

Learners are asked to listen to a description or a discussion, and draw the scene (or plan of a house, etc.) which is described.

v) Performing other actions:

Learners may be required to perform or mime others' actions, as instructed or described.

2. Transferring information:

Here learners must listen, extract relevant information from the text and transfer it to some other form, such as a table, chart or diagram. This structures and motivates the listening activity. For example, learners are told that they will hear descriptions of five people:

- A girl describing her fiancee.
- A boy describing a girl he dislikes.
- A writer describing a historical figure.
- A police description of a criminal.
- A friend describing his cousin whom you are going to meet.

They are provided with the following table:
As learners listen to each description, they must first identify which person is being described, then fill in as much information as possible on the table.

3. Reformulating and evaluating information:

Here tasks are more global and oriented towards the text as a whole. Now learners are not merely required to transfer information but to reformulate the important content in their own words, in the form of notes or summary. Or learners may have to evaluate the information contained in the spoken text and use this information as a stimulus for written argument or group discussion.

3.1.12.1.6 Listening for Social Meaning:

Another aspect of listening skills that the teacher should develop in learners is an awareness of the social implications of language forms. Learners could be made to listen to short extracts from dialogues, without being told who the speakers are or what the situation is. Then the dialogues are discussed and interpreted in terms of who the speakers might be, their social roles, status, relationship to each other, their length of acquaintance, the situation and so on. No clear cut answers are likely to emerge and thus the discussion is open-ended.
Finocchiaro and Brumfit’s List of Listening Activities:

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:138-139) have listed the following listening activities:

1. Listening to the teacher as he/she
   a) presents sounds in sound sequences, intonation patterns and utterances with contrasting stress and pauses;
   b) gives instructions related to classroom routines;
   c) presents model sentences based on some communicative, grammatical, or lexical feature of language;
   d) furnishes cues or asks questions to stimulate appropriate responses in a variety of practice activities:
   e) tells a story:
   f) reads a passage, poem or playlet orally;
   g) gives instructions for tests;
   h) engages in directed practice activities;
   i) describes simple or situational pictures;
   j) dramatizes a dialogue using pictures or real objects;
   k) tells about an incident that happened:
   l) clarifies the situation of a dialogue, a module, a film, a radio broadcast or any other large chunk of listening;
   m) gives dictation;
   n) gives a lecture on some aspect of culture;
   o) gives a listening comprehension exercise;
   p) prepares them orally for writing a composition through extensive discussion of the topic;
   q) greets visitors and engages them in conversation.
2. Listening to other pupils give direction, ask questions, give summaries, recount incidents.
3. Engaging in dialogue dramatization and role playing of dialogues or modules.
4. Listening to outside speakers (resource persons from the community) or to other school personnel.
5. Listening to the same recordings of language lesson segments, songs, plays, poems, speeches, etc., numerous times.
6. Listening to cassette or tape recordings of oral materials often enough so that they anticipate or 'supplement' what they are about to hear.
7. Watching films especially prepared for language learners several times and listening to selected radio and television programs.
8. Taking part in telephone conversations which have been simulated in the class.
9. Interviewing people in the community, where feasible.
10. Attending and contributing to lectures, conferences, language club meetings, discussion groups, and panel discussions.
11. Going to the movies or theater.
13. Working in pairs or groups to perform problem solving tasks and other pertinent activities.

3.1.12.2 Speaking Skills:

Speaking is more complex than listening, for the speaker must not only know the sound, structure, vocabulary, and culture subsystems of the language but also:
a) be aware of the ideas they want to convey when either initiating a conversation or responding to a previous speaker;  
b) change the positions of the tongue, lips and jaw in order to articulate the appropriate sounds;  
c) keep in mind the appropriate functional expressions, as well as the grammatical, lexical, and cultural features needed to express the idea;  
d) be sensitive to changes in 'register' or style necessitated by the person(s) to whom they are speaking and the situation in which the conversation is taking place;  
e) maneuver their thoughts in the proper direction on the basis of the other person's responses.

All of these are interrelated acts-mental and physical-which must take place instantaneously and simultaneously.

Spontaneous, creative use of language is likely to develop only after a lengthy period of learning spanning many years with other factors such as age, motivation, aptitude of the learner and the quality of instruction having a considerable bearing on the process. But the communicative approach emphasises the uses to which the language is put and earmarks a major portion of time for fluency activities thus encouraging the learner to operate creatively right from the early stages of learning.

In order to ensure that interest and enthusiasm does not flag and to encourage communication, simple, authentic conversation is to be engaged in from the very beginning. Absolute accuracy should not be demanded provided the utterance is comprehensible.

Spontaneous, creative use of language is likely to develop
The process of teaching speaking on a communicative basis consists of more or less the same stages as learning any language skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 Setting objectives</th>
<th>2 Presentation</th>
<th>3 Practice</th>
<th>Transfer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

But in the case of teaching for communication, there is a difference in type of language item and the type of activities selected as Roger Scott (Johnson and Morrow, 1981:72) has illustrated below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 Setting Objectives</th>
<th>2 Presentation</th>
<th>3 Practice</th>
<th>Transfer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Setting operation</td>
<td>The target operation of the language appropriate to this operation</td>
<td>Practice of the language, drill into syntax and phonology</td>
<td>Transfer role-play, introducing gap, feedback, etc.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

The second stage being the presentation stage, here we have the teacher presenting a whole language operation in context and the student or teacher is permitted to take out or point out the key items. Drilling and repetitious practice is confined to the practice phase where the main features of syntax and phonology are focussed on. In the transfer phase the language items are put to use in situations that are analogous to that of the presentation phase. The chief strategies employed for this purpose are role-plays and games and it is this strategy which perhaps marks the biggest difference between a structural and a communicative methodology. But the difference is not merely one of strategy, although the strategy is vital to
the fulfillment of the objective. Another major difference is the criteria on which success is judged. Successful communication is the prime objective and how well this takes place is not a function of grammatical accuracy alone. It may even be possible for successful communication to occur with a poor command of syntax. Syntax is only one of several related aspects of performance that contribute to communication.

The communicative approach to the teaching of speaking makes sure that the interactions which take place in the classroom are replications of a realistic communicative operation. The accurate production of isolated utterances is no longer the focus but rather the fluent selection of appropriate utterances in communication. The learner is concerned not with English usages but using the language in genuine communication. In the classroom verbal communication is stimulated by assigning roles to learners and they interact with other learners who also have roles. The roles they have, their communicative intentions and the contribution of the other learners determines what is said.

3.1.12.2.1. Strategies which facilitate the Teaching of Speaking:

Roger Scott (Johnson and Morrow, 1981:73-77) has suggested a few strategies which facilitate the teaching of speaking in a communicative way.

1. **Stating your objectives:** The teacher's job will be made easier if he/she has an informal discussion with students about what operations they are going to learn. This will give students a clear idea about what is to be learnt.
2. **Contextualisation:** By contextualising the teacher is able to make the meaning of a language item clear. From the communicative perspective an item only takes on meaning as a result of the total context in which it is used and an item without context is regarded as being without meaning. Students must become aware right from the beginning that what one says takes on its meaning as a result of the context. The context is made up of a constellation of factors, such as who the speakers are, their relationship to one another, what has just been said, where they are, and so on, as well as the ideational content of what they are saying.

3. **Practice and Transfer:** In the communicative approach practice follows close on the heels of presentation. Choral repetition by the students of the language presented could lead to more individual practice where individual responses are directed by the teacher.

3.1.2.2. **Finocchiaro and Brumfit's Range of Speaking Activities:**

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:141-142) have graded speaking activities from the simple to the more complex.

1. Reply to directions or questions given by the teacher or another pupil.

2. Give directions to other pupils.

3. Prepare 'original' sentences with communicative expressions, structures or notions which have been presented.

4. Frame questions to ask teacher, or other pupils, based on reading or on common experience.
5. Tell what objects appear in a picture or chart.
6. Tell a well-known story or re-tell an experience in their own words. Key words could be suggested by the teacher.
7. Give a report on a prepared topic and be prepared to answer questions on it.
8. Set up an imaginary class shop, library, bank or other appropriate community resources and improvise realistic conversations for them.
9. Play a communicative language game.
10. Conduct a debate, a discussion, a forum, or some other oral group activity in which students are forced to listen attentively to the previous speaker in order to agree, disagree, express uncertainty, or add other relevant information.
11. Read a newspaper article in the native language and give a report of it in the target language. Be prepared to ask and answer questions on it.
12. Engage in role-playing based on typical target language-using situations.
13. Take role in plays and dramas.
3.1.12.3. Reading Ability:

Reading is a vital, integral skill and its teaching should have a place of prime importance in all types of courses using the communicative approach. The development of reading activities will also help learners reinforce listening and speaking abilities.

The teaching of reading in a second language can be approached from many different angles. Students have to be trained to recognise the linguistic devices which act as
Semantic links among sentences in a written text and which help to identify the logical and rhetorical relations in a given piece of writings. They should also be taught to recognize and interpret the patterns of organization in written paragraphs which will enable them to read more efficiently and "avoid getting bogged down in sentence-by-sentence decoding". (Saville-Troike, 1979)

Reading presupposes two different subskills:

i) bringing meaning to a piece of connected subskills;

ii) getting meaning to a piece of connected discourse.

Students should be provided the motivation and the potential to continue reading out of class and later in their lives. The reading skill can remain throughout life whereas the listening-speaking skills may fade from forced disuse.

3.1.12.3.1. The Purpose of Reading:

The purpose of all reading is to obtain information which is presented in written form. The information may be cognitive (or intellectual), referential (or factual) or affective (or emotional). Referential material gives factual information which helps the reader to operate on the environment. For example, a set of instructions on how to make or use a piece of equipment; reading signs, forms, instructions on medicines, menus with prices, etc. Secondly, we read material whose context is intellectual rather than factual so as to augment or develop our own intellectual skills in order to manipulate ideas more effectively. For
example, written material used in other curriculum areas, research papers, professional and vocational journals, etc. Thirdly, we read for emotional gratification or spiritual enlightenment, or self improvement.

In real life reading is carried out for some purpose other than reading the language itself. Messages are read in order to be able to do something else. Similarly the student who is learning a foreign language (and who is reading it) should be less concerned with the language than with the messages it is used to communicate. His focus of attention should be on use rather than usage, with function rather than form. His aim ought to be to do something with language other than simply learn it.

Purposive Reading

Traditional approaches to the teaching of reading have failed to emphasise the fact that we read for different purpose and adopt different strategies and different kinds of skills appropriate to the reading task in hand. The 'explication de texte' approach stresses detailed textual study and slow careful reading with more or less equal attention being given to each item regardless of its status in the overall structure and organization of the text. The speed reading approach on the other hand advocates developing a very fast reading rate not only as an end in itself but also as a way of increasing comprehension. A questionable assumption of the speed reading approach is that only the fast reader is an efficient reader.
Purposive reading does not imply either painstakingly concentrated reading or quick speed reading. Developing purposive reading skills in the student will involve training him to adopt a number of different reading styles related to his reasons for reading. Efficient reading is the result of the ability to switch styles according to purpose and the present trend is to develop reading techniques which Pugh (1978:53-55) has termed:

- **Scanning**: to locate a known item;
- **Search reading**: for information;
- **Skimming**: to gain an idea of the organization of the text;
- **Receptive reading**: to discover precisely what the writer wishes to convey.
- **Responsive or Critical reading**: to reflect upon what the writer has written i.e., how the new information fits into one's existing system of knowledge and beliefs.

Lunzer and Gardner (1979) state that "in searching for ways and means of improvising reading comprehension it would appear that a prime consideration should be the involvement of pupils in their reading. At the heart of the matter is the willingness to reflect".

Receptive, responsive and reflective reading requires the active involvement of the reader, the apprentice reader will have to be instructed in this technique. The conventional approach to overt teaching of reading is the pedagogical approach, i.e. the teaching of reading for its own sake with very little attention being paid to reading as a part of a process of communication. In the pedagogical approach the
students are given a reading text accompanied by a selection of questions which may be open ended, closed or multiple choice. Here the main objectives of the student will be answering the question and the information gained thereby will be unrelated to any task beyond that of completing the answer to the question. Students "rapidly learn to treat comprehension exercises for what they are: irrevlevant chores that one must complete to satisfy some one else. There is little transfer to reading in subject areas". (Ibid.) Besides this approach tends to concentrate on an extremely limited type of 'comprehension' based on sentence-level reference. In emphasising the testing of the students' comprehension other more important skills such as the ability to read efficiently or comprehend effectively may be overlooked.

The communicative approach to reading, in total contrast to traditional approaches, makes sure that students have an authentic reason for reading. What the writer conveys- or is expected to convey-should be something which will be of use to the reader and he will read because what he gets out of the text will fill an information gap, and only by reading a given text is that gap likely to be filled. This means, that the learner should also be able to reject the irrelevant as well as deal effectively with sources of information which are relevant to the reader's purpose.
3.1.2.3.2. The Characteristics of Communicative Reading Exercises

Communicative reading exercises incorporate three important characteristics as compared with the traditional pedagogical exercise:

1. First, the student is provided with a genuine reason for reading either in the form of a problem which has to be solved or any other related task that is to be completed. In solving the problem, the student reader is doing something with the language.

2. Secondly, the reading task may involve translating information in the text from verbal to visual form or vice versa - i.e. transcoding activities.

3. Thirdly, the problem-solving and transcoding activities inherent in the reading task provide for the integration of the four skills. Reading becomes just one step in a sequence of activities involving listening, speaking and writing and the exchange of information. Such integration of the four skills will demonstrate to the student that writer and reader communicate with each other in a way similar to that of speaker and listener.
3.1112.3.3 Authentic Reading Material

Reading passages selected for subject-related language teaching has generated some controversy. The main question is whether the texts should be selected from books originally written for native speakers, or whether the material should be specially designed for the second language classroom. The dilemma the teacher faces here is that the first type of text may be too difficult, while the second type may lack face validity as it will not be representative of the academic styles of discourse which the students will eventually have to handle. Widdowson (1983) suggests that a solution may be found in distinguishing between a preparatory, simplified phase of language for communication, followed by a fully experiential use of language as communication. Students whose command over the target language is still imperfect cannot be expected to utilize a full range of native-like interpretative procedures when they read. These students have to first go through a stage of instruction which involves the use of functionally simplified reading materials. In such passages the logical progression of thought and argument should be presented clearly and systematically which will aid and simplify the process of interpretation and focus the students' attention on the rules of discourse that are being used. According to Widdowson (1983) we need to distinguish between:
i) texts which are simplified but authentic in terms of classroom activities that they promote, and
ii) those which are genuine instances of discourse but not necessarily suitable for teaching purposes.

The materials writer will have to come up with a suitable and practical compromise between the need to utilize genuine sources and the students' pedagogic needs. Which consideration should have priority will be decided in the light of prevailing factors such as the students progress in the target language, their present level and present and future language needs.

3.1.12.3.4. The Teacher's Role in the Development of Reading Skills

According to Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983 : 144) the teacher's principal responsibility in developing reading skills are:

1. To clarify the situations so that students understand the major purpose(s) of the passage.
2. To extend and enrich the experiences of the students so that they will understand the elements in the situation (people, place, time, topics and cultural allusions).
3. To present the sounds and meanings of unfamiliar vocabulary.
4. To teach the sound-symbol relationship.
5. To assist student's to read words in logical groups.
6. To help learners the grammatical function of structures and group words.
7. To help them comprehend and relate the formality and informality of the communicative expressions and nations to the situation.

8. To enable them to comprehend and / or guess the meaning of words and discourse connections such as 'moreover', 'on the other hand', etc., in a single statement as well as connected discourse.

9. To enable them to distinguish between the main theme and supporting details.

10. To help students increase their speed in reading since slow, laboured reading decreases comprehension.

3.1.12.3.5 Basic Reading Procedures and Techniques

The teacher should bear in mind certain basic procedures and techniques such as the following:

1. Motivate the reading by relating to the student's experiences.

2. State the purpose of reading.

3. Clarify any difficulty in relation to situation, communicative/phonological/grammatical/national/ or cultural elements.

4. Read the passage aloud as the students follow in their books.

Intensive Reading

The teacher reads each line aloud in logical, thought groups, and then asks several simple questions on each sentence. At the end of the paragraph the students are asked for a summary. If students are unable to give the summary the teacher asks questions to help elicit the summary. Students could also be asked to find words which describe a person, which tells readers about this attitude or emotion.
**Extensive Reading**

The teacher reads the entire passage aloud and then asks the students to read it silently. The purpose for reading should be clearly stated and the time which will be allowed. After they have read, the teacher could check their comprehension by asking a few questions, stating whether a statement is true or false, completing sentences on the board, asking for the main idea, eliciting sequential summary.

### 3.1.12.3.6. Increasing Reading Speed

The student's speed of reading could be increased in the following ways:

1. The teacher should read the material aloud and clearly to students, pausing at logical points in the passage.
2. Make students read the same passage silently, timing the reading.
3. Decrease the reading time gradually for material of a similar level of difficulty.
4. Discourage lip movement.
5. Above all, the teacher should provide a specific purpose for reading. For example, find the steps in the process; find five words which describe X; be prepared to complete sentences on the board; be prepared to discuss a title for the passage.

### 3.1.12.3.7. Reading Related Activities

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983: 147-8) have enumerated the following reading related activities.

1. The teacher writes four or five questions on numbered slips
of paper and distributes it to four or five students after reading the passage. A student will read a question aloud. Another will volunteer to go to the chalkboard and write the question and answer.

2. When all the questions and answers are on the board, an able student will go to the board, ask others if there any errors, and make changes when necessary. The teacher can then read the answers followed by the class members reading them in chorus.

3. The teacher reads the passage again in thought groups and then asks the students to read in chorus.

4. Students are made to formulate questions on the passage and pick out other students to answer their questions.

5. The communicative expression, structures, and notions that were clarified before the reading are used in original sentences. The teacher could give examples and then call on students to formulate sentences.

6. Engage in a variety of word study exercises (e.g., finding antonyms, synonyms, cognates, paraphrases, giving other parts of speech with the same root).

7. Have students retell what happened in the passage from a list of key words the teacher will place on the board.

8. Make students look for key words (those high in information) in each sentences.

9. Make students summarize the passage. To ensure attentive listening each student could be asked to supply one statement only.

10. Assign supplementary readers at advanced and professional levels on student' areas of need and interest.
11. Poor readers should not be made to stand and read aloud as this reinforces poor reading habits and waste students' time.

12. Once in a while, if learners specifically ask for it the teacher may provide the equivalent of a word or expression in the native language.

13. Adapting or simplified versions of literary masterpieces could be read in the class in order to motivate students to learn enough of the target language to read the original.

3.1.12.4 Developing Writing Skills

Developing an effective methodology for the teaching of writing is one of the greatest challenges faced by ESL curriculum researchers at the present time. According to Bereiter and Scardamalia (1983), writing a long essay is "probably the most complex constructive act that most human beings are ever expected to perform". This comment which was originally made in the context of L1 teaching has much greater relevance in the L2 teaching/learning situation when we take into account the limited resources of students struggling to write in a second language. Writing should reinforce and help extend the listening, speaking and reading skills.

3.1.12.4.1 What to Teach

According to Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983: 149) learners should be taught:

-- the mechanics—punctuation, capitalization, abbreviation, spelling;
-- the sound-spelling correspondences;
- letter writing—formal (business, legal, and related correspondence) and informal (personal, friendly correspondence);

- practical writing such as note taking from books or lectures, outlining an essay or composition they are going to write, and summarizing:

- the organization and appropriate expression of an idea, a process, a plea or anything which will convey the desired meaning to a reader;

- the differences between speaking and writing such as the use of contractions in some languages.

3.1.12.4.2. Principles of Teaching Communicative Writing:

Keith Johnson (Johnson Morrow, 1981:93-100) has mentioned certain principles which are guiding factors in the teaching of Communicative writing.

1. The information gap and jigsaw principle: In this type of exercise students are expected to extract certain pieces of information from written sources and to transfer them onto other materials such as application forms, table, graph, map, chart, etc. Here the emphasis is on conveying of information content. The aim is not structural accuracy but getting the message across and students' written performance is assessed on this criterion. The information gap principle is important in the teaching of writing skills for two reasons. First it permits genuine information flow in the classroom. Secondly, the focus of the students' attention and success in communication is judged on the basis of 'getting the message across'.

.188.
2. **Activity sequences:** These kinds of activities provide integration of skills. In a sequence of thematically related activities each activity provide contextualisation for the one following it. Activity sequences breed task dependency, i.e. to develop task one we depend on task two, and to develop task three we depend on task two and so on.

3. **Paragraph level writing:** The communicative approach operates with stretches of language above the sentence level and the teaching of writing is intended to stimulate paragraph level writing. The teaching of paragraph level writing revolves around the twin concepts of **cohesion** and **coherence**. Cohesion is the joining of sentences together to form 'grammatical units' and coherence is the organization of sentences to form 'sense units', i.e. a meaningful flow of ideas.

3.1.12.4.3. **Writing Activities:**

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:150-4) have outlined the following writing related activities.

1. **Dictation**

   The dictation may first be on a familiar dialogue or reading passage and later on new material.
   a) The teacher motivates the student to write by discussing the topic or situation.
   b) Next the teacher clarifies linguistic or cultural difficulties in new conversation or passage.
   c) The punctuation marks are reviewed by asking students to write the symbol on the board.
(1) First the passage is dictated at normal speed with students listening attentively and not writing during the first reading.

(2) On the second reading a student is made to go to the board and write as the teacher dictates to the entire class. The teacher reads the passage in thought groups, pausing after each group of words to give the students time to write. The punctuation marks should also be dictated.

(3) The passage is read a third time slowly, repeating the punctuation marks to enable students to correct errors.

(4) Students are given two minutes to look over their dictation to make sure that there is agreement between noun and pronouns, subject and verb, tense and adverbs, etc.

(5) Then the dictation is corrected by the students themselves as the board dictation is corrected.

(6) The errors made should be explained and corrected.

(7) Finally students could summarise, formulate questions and answers or discuss the theme of the dictation.

2. Listening Comprehension with a Writing Task:

The comprehension passage may be on a familiar or unfamiliar theme - a dialogue, an anecdote, a brief segment of material relevant to the students' age and interests.

(a) The teacher motivate students by giving a brief summary or asking preliminary questions related to the theme of the passage.

(b) Difficulties are clarified.

(c) The teacher reviews the procedures to be followed.

(d) The material is read twice at normal speed.

(e) The teacher asks a question two times after which the students are given time to write the answer.
191.

f) The same procedure is followed until all the questions have been given.

g) The passage is read again a third time at normal speed.

h) The question are repeated.

i) The students are given about two minute to check their own work and to make necessary changes.

j) It is advisable to correct written work through peer discussion and in small groups.

3. Dicto-comp

This is a combination of dictation and guided composition.

a) A short passage whose topic is of relevance to the students is selected.

b) Students are motivated by relating the topic to their own personal experience.

c) Difficulties in the passage are clarified by the teacher.

d) The passage is read at normal speed by the teacher three to five times.

e) Then students are made to write down what they remember of the passage.

f) The composition in then checked preferably through peer discussion. The written passage may be distributed to the students to check answer.

4. Cloze Test

Initially a familiar reading passage is chosen and later the passage may be unfamiliar.

a) If the passage is unfamiliar difficulties should be clarified by the teacher.
b) In the passage every fifth, sixth and seventh word is systematically omitted. The first and last sentence is complete.
c) Students should read this passage two or more times.
d) Students may fill in the blanks with any appropriate word.
e) It is corrected through group discussion.
f) The teacher clarifies questions of appropriateness or correctness.

5. Controlled Writing Tasks

In controlled writing tasks the exact language that the student is to use is specified (controlled).

a) Copy model sentences, dialogues, or anything that has been spoken or read.
b) Write out in full the model sentences they have practised orally.
c) Change sentences in a familiar passage in any one of the following ways:
   -- change the subject and the verb to plural;
   -- change the gender of the subject;
   -- change from singular to plural or visa versa;
   -- change by adding 'yesterday', 'later' or 'tomorrow'
   -- change the point of view of the paragraph.
d) Add newly learned communicative expression, structures and nations to a familiar dialogue where over appropriate.
e) Answer a series of specific questions on any one activity or reading passage.
f) Complete, by rearranging or rewriting, a series of related sentences in a proper sequence so as to constitute a short composition or story.
6. **Guided Writing Tasks**

In guided writing tasks the content is guided but the language is more or less the students' own.

a) Writing the summary of material which has been read.
b) Completing an outline form of material they have read.
c) Writing an outline of material which they have read.
d) Writing a letter in which they expand the ideas given by the teacher.
e) Writing a report on an article or book read.
f) Writing a short paragraph for each picture in a series related to one theme.
g) Writing an original ending to a story they have read or which they have not yet completed reading.
h) Writing a simple dialogue using familiar functional/communicative expression and structures.
i) Completing a dialogue, a few lines of which have been given.
j) Preparing a narrative paragraph from a dialogue and visa versa.
k) Reconstruction a dialogue from one or two words given in each utterance.
l) Writing a core module based on a specific professional or vocational activity.

1.1.13. **Littlewood's Two Main Categories of Communicative Activities**

Littlewood (1981 : 20-64) has grouped communicative activities into two main categories:

1. Functional Communication activities.
2. Social Interaction activities.
3.1.13.1 **Functional Communication Activities**

An important aspect of communicative skill is the ability to use the right language which will convey an intended meaning effectively in a specific situation. Classroom communicative activities could be devised which emphasise this functional aspect of communication, such as a problem which learners must solve, or information which they must exchange, with whatever language they have at their disposal. Here neither appropriacy of the language to the situation nor grammatical accuracy is the main issue. The main purposes of the activity is that learners should use the language they know in order to get meaning across as effectively as possible. Success is measured in terms of whether the learner is able to cope with the communicative demands of the immediate situation.

Thus the emphasis is on being functionally effective and so activities of this type are here called 'functional communication activities'. The principle underlying functional communication activities is that the teacher structures the situation so that learners have to overcome an information gap or solve a problem. The stimulus for communication and the yardstick for success are contained within the situation itself: learners must work towards a definite solution or decision.

The nature of the classroom situation limits the range of functional communication needs that can be created for learners. These activities are built around the sharing and processing of information. But the content and complexity of the language that is generated can be greatly enriched through the use of a wide range of materials.
3.1.13.1.1. Types of Functional Communicative Activities

Functional communication activities can be grouped according to two main uses of language:

i) using language to share information;

ii) using language to process information, i.e. discuss and evaluate.

Sharing may be either restricted or unrestricted and can be categorized into the following groups:

1. Sharing information with restricted cooperation.
2. Sharing information with unrestricted cooperation.
3. Sharing and processing information.
4. Processing information.

1. Sharing information with restricted cooperation

This type of communicative activity results in the simplest patterns of interaction wherein one learner/group possesses information which another learner/group must discover. The knower is not allowed to cooperate fully. He provides information only in response to appropriate cues, generally questions of a specific kind. The purpose is to elicit information gradually so as to extend the interaction.

Suggested activities

a) Identifying pictures: Learner A has a set of pictures which are all similar in content, but contain a number of distinguishing features. Learner B has a duplicate copy of just one of these pictures, which he has either been given by the teacher or selected himself from a complete duplicate set. Learner A must find out which of the pictures Learner B is holding, by asking him questions about it.
b) Discovering identical pairs: This activity is similar to the one described above, except that the discoverer must now question several other learners. A similar set of pictures is distributed among four learners, who thus have one picture each. A fifth learner in the group holds a duplicate of one of the pictures. He must question the others, in order to discover which learner has the picture identical to his own.

c) Discovering sequences or locations: Learner A has a set of about six pictures or patterns. These are arranged into a sequence from one to six. Learner B has the same set of pictures, but these are not in sequence. Learner B must discover the sequence of A's pictures and arrange his own in the same way.

Discovering locations is another variation wherein Learner A has a map with specific locations marked. Learner B has a similar but blank map. He has to discover via proper communication where A has located his people or buildings and locate his own in identical positions.

d) Discovering missing information: Learner A has information represented in tabular form such as a table showing distances between various towns or a football league table showing a summary of each team's results so far. Some items of information are deleted from the table. Learner B has an identical table where different items of information have been deleted. Each learner can therefore complete his own table by asking his partner for the information he lacks.
e) Discovering missing features: Learner A has a picture/chart/map. Learner B has the same picture/chart/map, except that various items have been deleted from it. Learner A who has the complete picture, must ask questions to find out which details have not been reproduced in B's version of the picture.

f) Discovering 'secrets': One learner has a piece of 'secret' information, which the others in his class or group must discover by asking questions of the appropriate kind.

All the above activities create an information gap, stimulating patterns of communication. Success of performance is gauged on the ability to overcome this information gap and not the production of correct language. The focus is on 'meanings to be communicated' rather than 'linguistic forms to be learnt'. But neither are linguistic forms neglected. The teacher could predict and specify the linguistic forms that will be needed so that learners' attention is directed to the forms they should produce. Learners not only practice specific linguistic forms but go further in using these forms for communicative purposes.

Limitations of these activities:

1) Interaction is rigidly controlled by artificial conventions and consists largely of stereotype questions and answer sequences which may prove boring after some time and thus reduce the learners' motivation to learn.

2) These activities are communicative only in a technical sense and fall well short of the flexible, spontaneous kind of communicative interaction that is the ultimate objective.
Sharing information with unrestricted cooperation

More meaningful patterns of communication can emerge by reducing restrictions on cooperation and allowing greater freedom of interaction between learners. This gives rise to:

- more realistic patterns of interaction such as describing, suggesting, asking for clarification, helping each other, etc.
- a wider range of communication skills to handle tasks which are more demanding such as taking shared knowledge into account, to use feedback, reformulate messages, simplification, paraphrasing, etc.

- mutual cooperation through the new language, in order to overcome a mutual obstacle resulting in more positive relationships between learners and a more positive attitude towards the foreign language as a means of resolving difficulties.

In these activities it is not only the discoverer who takes the initiative, but the knower also may take the initiative, by describing what he has in front of him.

Suggested activities:

a) Communicating patterns and pictures: Learner A has a variety of shapes which he arranges into a pattern. Learner B has the same shapes. They must communicate with each other so that B can reproduce as exactly as possible the same pattern as A. Patterns may be substituted with pictures.

b) Communicating models: Learner A or group A learns how to construct a model. B has the same pieces and must construct an identical model, following A's verbal instructions.
c) Discovering differences: Learner A and Learner B have identical pictures/maps/patterns with a few differences in details. The learners must discuss the pictures in order to discover the difference.

d) Following directions: Learner A and Learner B have identical maps. Only A knows the exact location of some building or other features (eg. a hidden treasures). He must direct B to the correct spot.

All the above activities focus on 'meanings to be communicated' for specific purposes. But the interaction is more interesting, more creative and unpredictable and learners will have to express meanings for which ready made linguistic solutions have not been provided. The learner will thus need to develop a wider range of communicative skills and strategies for getting these meanings across.

3. Sharing and processing information:

Here learners must share, discuss and evaluate the information in order to solve a problem. The range of communicative functions is further widened and the unpredictability of the interaction is increased. There is scope for disagreement and negotiation and learners will have to manage the interaction more skilfully at the interpersonal level.

Suggested activities:

a) Reconstructing story sequences: A picture-story is cut up into separate pictures. One picture is handed to each member of a group. Without seeing each other's pictures, the learners in the group must decide on the original sequences and reconstruct the story. The same activity can be performed with a printed story which may be cut up into paragraphs/sections.
b) Pooling information to solve a problem: Here learners are required to pool information in order to solve a problem.

**Examples**

a) Learner A has a timetable showing the times of trains from X to Y. Learner B has a timetable of trains from Y to Z. Together the learners must work out the quickest possible journey from X to Z without looking into each other's timetable.

b) Two friends telephone and discuss the shortest route from one point in town to another. They must do this by pooling information about one way streets and roads which are closed to traffic.

4. **Processing Information**

In the last type of functional communication activity the need to share information is dispensed with completely. Learners now have access to all the relevant facts. The stimulus for communication arises from the need to discuss and evaluate these facts, in pairs or in groups, in order to solve a problem or reach a decision. These activities resemble problem-solving situations outside the classroom.

a) Learners could be asked to imagine that they are going on a three day camping trip to the mountains. Each person can carry only twenty kilograms in weight. The learner/group must decide what he/she will take from a list given, and be prepared to justify their decisions if they are later challenged by the other learners/groups.
b) Learners could be asked to select gifts for a number of people, taking account of their interests and not exceeding a specified sum of money.

This type of activity may be linked to other, more formal learning activities. For example, when they are working with a reading passage, groups may be given multiple-choice questions to which there are no unambiguously correct answers. They must discuss the possible answers and decide on the most appropriate one. They must also be prepared to justify why they have rejected the others.

3.1.13.1.2. The Pattern of Development of Functional Communication Activities

Functional communication activities follow a general pattern of development. As we progress:

-- The interaction becomes less controlled by artificial conventions. The activities come to bear greater resemblance to communication situations that learners might encounter outside the classroom.

-- The meaning that learners need to express becomes less predictable. The teacher therefore has less chance of equipping them with the specific language items that they will need. Learners must draw on a wider range of skills and strategies in order to get new meanings across.

-- There is a gradual increase in the range of communicative functions that is likely to occur. Learners also need to develop greater skills for managing the interaction, for example,
signalling disagreement or interrupting without offence.

There is increasing opportunity for learners to express their own individuality in discussion.

In other words, learners must gradually become more creative with the language they have acquired.

3.1.13.1.3. Limitations of Functional Communication Activities

When we consider the relationship of functional communication activities to the world outside the classroom, we see some of their limitations.

1. The functional meanings which learners have to express depend upon the sharing and processing of factual information. There is a wide range of communicative functions that are unlikely to occur, for example, 'greetings', 'inviting', 'asking permission' or 'making offers'.

2. The situations in which learners are asked to perform have very little resemblance to those which they will encounter outside the classroom, making the activities artificial and unreal. For example, they are unlikely to have to find matching pictures or sort out jumbled sentences.

3. The non-resemblance to real-life situations results in the learner's social role being unclear and generally irrelevant to the purely functional purposes of the interaction.

3.1.13.2. Social Interaction Activities

Communicative skill in totality implies the ability to take account of the social meaning as well as the functional meaning of different language forms. An able speaker chooses language which is both functionally effective as well as appropriate to the social situation he is in.
The teacher should devise communicative activities which turn the student's attention to social as well as functional aspects of communication. Learners must convey meanings effectively while paying attention to the social contexts in which the interaction takes place. Simulation and role-paying are the important techniques employed at present to overcome the limitations of the classroom and create a wider variety of social situations and relationships. Success is now measured in terms of both functional effectiveness of the language as well as the acceptability and appropriacy of the forms that are used to specific kinds of social situations. Activities of this type are referred to as 'social interaction activities'.

3.1.13.2.1. The Classroom as a Social Context for Language Use:

Though the classroom is often an artificial environment for learning and using a foreign language the teacher could manipulate the situation so as to create a real social context which enables learners and teacher enter into equally real social relationships with each other. Language structures and communicative functions are not limited to specific situations and the structures and communicative skills that a learner acquires during classroom interaction can be transferred to other kinds of social situations.

There are four ways to exploit the classroom environment as a social context for foreign language use.

a) Using foreign language for classroom management.

b) Using the foreign language as a teaching medium.

c) Conversation or discussion sessions where the teacher plays the role of 'co-communicator' rather than director, guiding and
stimulating the activity without taking away the learners' responsibility as equal participating in the interaction. Here the teacher is expected to exercise judicious non-intervention, allowing learners to hesitate and commit mistakes since this is inevitable in the process of learning a new language.

d) Basing dialogues and role-plays on school experience. A non-linguistic subject matter such as a genuine problem prevailing in the learning environment is introduced into the classroom which motivates communication. The discussion not only explores this subject matter but also develops learners' communicative competence.

3.1.13.2.2. Simulation and Role-playing:

Communicative competence also involves knowledge of how to play roles, and this knowledge combines socio-cultural competence, since the learner should be familiar with the behaviours associated with various roles in the target society and have the ability to project the personality which is consistent with a particular role.

Di Pietro (1981) categorises roles as follows:

"a) maturational: determined by relative age of the interlocutors and the protocols governing age-relationships;

b) Social/transactional: eg., student/teacher, salesman/customer, boss/employee:

c) psychological: eg., friend/friend, friend/enemy, enemy/enemy, lover/lover;

d) long-term versus short-term: parent/child, husband/wife, captain/crew versus passenger/stewardess, patient/surgeon."

( Roberts J.T. 1986:65)
In the communicative approach role play and simulation rate highly in the context of classroom activities. All roles come in pairs. Playing a role therefore entails both knowledge of how to play it and also some familiarity with the way in which the 'opposite' will be played. When used creatively and meaningfully they can reduce the artificiality of the classroom and provide a real reason for talking and allow learners to talk purposefully to other learners. The teacher should be judicious in the selection of any role-play situation to ensure that situations and roles are in keeping with the needs of the students. If situations and roles are remote from the experience of the learners the language generated becomes unreal and artificial. The teacher should also guard against any overacting when the learner tries the role of a character in the textbook.

Simulation and role-play involves a few techniques like those enumerated below:

- Learners have to imagine themselves in a situation which may occur outside the classroom.
- The learner has to suit his role playing to the situation.
- Learners will have to make believe that the situation really existed.

Thus learners will be required to:

- pay close attention to the communication of meanings, rather than the practice of language;
- identify with their roles in the interaction with greater concentration and commitment than during controlled language practice so as to identify with the meanings being communicated through these roles;
-initiate and sustain the interaction themselves, on the basis of
their roles and the meanings that arise, instead of performing in
accordance with teacher's instructions.

Role-playing activities can be grouped and graded on the
basis of the amount of control exercised by the teacher. Less
teacher control increases the scope for the learners' creativity.
Role-play activities can be viewed as part of a single continuum
which links pre-communicative and communicative activities. It
can be represented thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Performing memorised dialogue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contextualised drills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cued dialogues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Role playing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>Improvisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Littlewood, 1981:50)

Though all these activities involve simulation, they differ
in terms of teacher-control and learner-creativity. In
dialogue-performance, the teacher's control is at a maximum and
the learners' creativity is at a minimum. In contextualised
drills, the learner creates sentences that may be new to him, but
which have been predetermined by the teacher. Cued dialogues lie
on the borderline between pre-communicative and communicative
simulation; the teacher exercises control over the meanings that
are expressed, but not over the language that is used for
expressing them. In the more creative types of role-playing the
teacher controls the situations and the learners' roles in it,
but the learners are free to create the interaction themselves.
a) **Role-playing controlled through cues and information:** Here two sets of cues must interlock closely to produce utterances which do not conflict with what follows. The rigid specifications limit the amount of creativity that is possible within that format. Flexibility could be incorporated into this format if only one learner is given detailed cues. The other has information that enables him to respond as necessary.

b) **Role-playing controlled through situation and goals:** As learners progress, the teacher may lessen the control exercised, increasing scope for providing a looser structure, which gives learners greater responsibility for creating the interaction themselves. The control is directed not at specific meanings that learners express, but at the higher level of situation and goals that learners have to achieve through communication.

c) **Role-playing in the form of debate or discussion:** Here the situation is a debate or discussion about a real or simulated issue, and in playing roles it is assumed that learners have:
- adequate knowledge and
- different opinions or interests to defend.

This kind of role-playing activity involves and integrates a variety of language activities and skills. To assimilate and analyse the information relevant to the issue, learners are called upon to read, listen to talks or discussions or even gather information through independent enquiry. After getting the relevant information learners' must discuss it with other group members where the rules for speaking are informal. Then learners have to present their views in a more public context where the rules for speaking are stricter and more formal.
finally a further dimension could be added by asking learners to compile a written report or article on the activities that have just concluded.

d) Large-scale simulation activities: These activities are long and complex, lasting for three to four hours. They conclude with the learner fulfilling certain specific goals such as taking the right decision, finding a solution to some problem, solving a crime or finding out the criminal, etc. Such activities provide a realistic and integrated context for foreign language use.

e) Improvisation: This is the least controlled of all activities, being closely associated with drama. Learners are presented only with a stimulus situation, which they will have to interpret and exploit in their own individual ways. Learners may have to adopt particular identities or personality types, though they need not necessarily pursue any specific communicative purpose. For example, they may have to improvise a scene in which a visitor to their town asks advice about what is worth seeing, or a meeting between old friends who have not seen each other for several years.

Improvisation is one end of the 'control-creativity' continuum and in this form of role-playing the learner can be most creative, because they can unrestrainedly act out personal interpretations of the situation and their roles in it. More than preparing learners to cope with specific communicative needs, improvisation encourages general confidence and fluency in foreign language use by permitting the learners to explore and exploit their communicative repertoire with great freedom. The target language also becomes a medium to express their own imagination and individuality, helping them to relate the new language to their own personality.
Activities Suitable to Specific Learning Groups:

When devising activities, situations and roles which are best suited to a specific learning group, the teacher must take into consideration the following factors:

1. The linguistic demands of an activity must match as closely as possible with the linguistic capabilities of his learners. As learners progress in their linguistic competence, the complexity and diversity of the linguistic elements could be enhanced to provide for greater independence.

2. Since structures and functions are not bound to specific situations, the teacher may select situations which are not restricted to those in which learners expect to perform outside the classroom.

3. The teacher's aim is to maximise efficiency and economy in his students' learning. This implies that the student should be engaged in a large proportion of situations which bear as direct a resemblance as possible to the situations where they will later need to use their communicative skills. The language practised in the classroom should be relevant to learner's need.

4. The situations should be interesting and pertinent so as to stimulate learners to a high degree of communicative involvement.

5. The roles that learners are asked to perform should be relevant on two accounts:

i) He might reasonably expect to have to perform that role in foreign language situations outside the classroom.

ii) He should already be familiar with the role in his native language.
The Role of Grammar in Language Teaching:

What is grammar? "Grammar may be roughly defined as the way a language manipulates and combines with words (or bits of words) in order to form longer units of meaning". (Ur.P.1988:4)

The tirade against overt teaching of grammar began in the 1980's. Two powerful thinkers, Krashen (1982) and Prabhu (1987) categorically stated that there should be no control over what grammar items a learner learns at any stage in the learning process. They were of the view that grammar will be learnt naturally and automatically through meaningful communication in the classroom. This "zero position towards grammar" (Ellis 1992) is making a comeback, but regressing back to audio-lingual pattern practice would have negative implications. Ellis (1992: 5-11) advocates "an approach to grammar that is compatible with how one views SLA [Second Language Acquisition];...". He distinguishes between "the teaching of grammar through practice and teaching of grammar through consciousness-raising". This essential difference is based on the role of learner production in grammar activities. Practice envisages learners producing sentences exemplifying a particular grammatical structure. "Or we can envisage activities that will seek to get a learner to understand a particular grammatical feature, how it works, what it consists of, and so on, but not require that learner to actually produce sentences manifesting that particular structure. And that's what I mean by consciousness raising". (Ibid).

Over the years teachers have voiced concern about the problems faced by them in guiding learners from conscious, controlled language production containing a grammatical feature
to spontaneous use of it. The learning programme should seek to focus learners' attention on problematic grammatical features not with expectations of mastery over them and immediate communicative use but to make them conscious of what it is that they have to ultimately master.

3.1.16. Communicative Grammar versus Structural Grammar:

A major difference between the communicative approach and the structural (audio-lingual) method is that the grammar introduced in the unit is not sequenced or graded according to any linguistic theory. A communicative grammar is used which takes cognizance of authentic real world speech as recorded from live, spontaneous speech acts. The structures emanate from the communicative function, the setting and the topics. It is no longer considered necessary to begin with 'be' or 'have' or the 'simple present' unless these are logically demanded by and appropriate with the immediate communicative purposes of the speakers. Thus which items ought to be mastered first depends on the communicative (social, academic, or vocational) needs of learners, their age, their previous/present knowledge of the target language and the creative efforts of the curriculum, or the textbook writer. Another point to note is that selection and gradation within structural categories are extremely important in the presentation of grammar—even communicative grammar.

3.1.17. Approaches to Grammar Teaching:

Grammar should be taught in the context of communicative activities. But its realisation is more difficult when theory manifests itself in actual practice. An activity could be designed hoping learners will produce a certain grammatical feature. But the communicative activity (if it is genuinely
communicative) may produce a different grammatical feature than the one the teacher intended the learner to use. "In other words, you can devise activities that make use of a feature—natural and useful, but its extremely difficult to make use of a feature essential". (Ibid.)

Ellis (1992) discusses three approaches to grammar teaching:

1) Notion of focussed communication activities.

Communicative activities could be given a grammatical focus through performance rather than its design. The teacher could deliberately request for clarification when learners fail to use a particular grammatical structure correctly. This provides the learner with the opportunity to reformulate the utterance. The notion of comprehensible input and comprehensible output compels learners to make their own output more comprehensible and consequently improves the accuracy of performance in the production of a particular grammatical structures.

2) Grammar consciousness-raising activities

Another approach to grammar teaching as construed by Ellis is what he calls "grammar consciousness-raising activity". Here activities are devised which encourages learners, with the teacher's assistance, to discover a particular grammar rule, i.e., learners are helped to construct their own explicit grammar. For example, learners could be supplied with a few sentences which exemplify two different grammatical structures or two different uses of the same structures. They could be asked to sort the sentence into two different groups and then point out and explain differences.

3) Notion of interpretation grammar tasks

The third approach to grammar teaching is interpretation
grammar activity. This is more of a listening activity rather than a production grammar activity. Ineffective grammar teaching is associated with getting learners to produce a structure. In contrast, interpretation grammar activity provides learners with a very structured input manipulated to contain examples of a particular grammatical structures. The learner will be required to listen to this input and identify the meaning of sentences containing that particular structure, to pay attention to that grammatical feature in order to construct and interpret form-meaning conjunction, though they will not be called on to produce the structure themselves.

3.1.18. The Communicative Teaching of Grammar

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:122-3) have discussed the various aspects involved in making the teaching of grammar communicative and have suggested the following steps that the teacher could follow.

1. Motivate the teaching of structures by relating them to real-life communication.

2. The aim of the lesson should be clearly stated.

3. Familiar items such as calendar, time, name of objects, auxiliary verbs that are likely to be used to introduce, explain or practice the new item should be reviewed.

4. The new structure is used in a brief utterance in which all the other words are known to the students.

5. The utterance is repeated clearly several times for the benefit of the students.

6. Engage in full class, half-class, group and individual repetition of the utterance.

7. Addition sentences in which the structure is used should be given using simply language and familiar contexts. Class and
Two or three of the sentences are written on the chalkboard and the new structure is underlined. Curved arrows could be used to indicate the structure's relation to other words in the sentences.

Drawing learners' attention to the underlined structure and helping them discover sounds, the written form and the position, and above all the grammatical function of the new structure.

Using charts/tables/diagrams (refer Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983:123) to enable students verbalize the important features of the structure.

Engage students in varied guided oral practice.

Make students consciously select the new grammatical item from contrasting ones they have learnt in the past.

Help students use the structure with communicative expressions and familiar (or new) notions.

Where feasible or necessary, translation exercises could be done.

Of course, Finocchiaro and Brumfit have merely put forward certain helpful suggestions that practicing teachers may find useful. But this is not to imply that all grammar teaching need follow the above guidelines as illustrated by the sample communicative grammar exercises given below where the author has devised a totally different but equally interesting and novel technique.

3.1.19. **Sample Communicative Grammar Exercises**

The exercises given below is taken from Ur,P.(1988:48-52), which illustrates the communicative teaching of adverbs.
2. **Adverbs**:

2.1. **Miming adverbs**

Formation of adverbs with-ly, oral questions.

Procedure: Select a manner adverb (e.g., slowly, secretly,) and tell all the class but one what it is. The one who does not know gives a command to one of the others, for example:

Get up and turn around.

If the adverb chosen has been 'slowly', then the student will do the action slowly. If the guesser cannot yet identify the adverb, he or she will give another command to someone else—and so on, until the word is guessed or revealed.

2.2 **Miming sentences with adverbs:**

Position of manner adverbs in the sentence. Oral guessing based on cue cards.

Materials: One set of cue cards with manner adverbs on them another with short sentences describing actions that can be mimed—all based on vocabulary known to the class (example in Box 3)

Procedure: A student takes one adverb and one verb, and mimes the combination (e.g. catch a ball lovingly). The others have to guess what was on the two cards, formulated in a grammatical sentence:

You are catching/you caught the ball lovingly!
Box 3

Guessing actions and adverbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. slowly</th>
<th>a) turn on a television</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. happily</td>
<td>b) drink a cup of tea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. nervously</td>
<td>c) climb a tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. heavily</td>
<td>d) clean a window</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. angrily</td>
<td>e) put on a shirt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. lovingly</td>
<td>f) make a bed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. gently</td>
<td>g) catch a ball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. violently</td>
<td>h) type a letter</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3. Frequency Surveys:

Position of frequency adverbs in sentence, inserting adverbs into spoken or written sentences.

Materials: Individual copies of questionnaire sheets, beginning 'How often....?', followed by a series of questions. For example, students may be asked how often a good teacher they have known gave home work, played games, etc; or they may answer questions on television viewing habits. Answers may be filled in by ticking questions on television viewing habits. Answers may be filled in by ticking columns (Box 4a) or by noting down number codes (Box 4b).

Procedure: Go through questionnaires making sure all questions, and instructions, are understood. Then students fill in their own questionnaires individually or work in
pairs, asking each other 'How often did he or she do you....?' Afterwards they report results using full sentences:

I always watch television at weekends.

Henri's teacher sometimes gave homework.

This may be done orally, in response to your question:

What answers did you get to the first question?

What are Jacqueline's viewing habits?

or in writing for homework.

Comment: Make clear what you mean by 'always' (everyday?) 'sometimes' (twice a week? twice a month? every other day?),

Box 4a

Frequency Surveys (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A good teacher I have known. How often did he or she.....</th>
<th>always</th>
<th>very often</th>
<th>often</th>
<th>sometimes</th>
<th>rarely</th>
<th>never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.....give homework?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.....play games?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.....make jokes?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.....give punishments?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.....praise ?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.....criticize?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.....get angry ?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.....smile?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Now fill in the grid again for A bad teacher you have known.
Box 4b

Frequency Survey (2)

Television - watching habits. 
By each question fill in a number: 
1 never 2 seldom 3 occasionally 4 often 5 always

How often do you ...

1. ... watch television on week day? ....
2. ... watch television on weekend? ....
3. ... leave the television on even if you are doing something else? ....
4. ... turn the television on automatically when you come home? ...
5. ... feel guilty about watching too much television?
6. ... limit yourself to a certain number of hours viewing? ....
7. ... look up programmes in advance to find timings you'll enjoy? ....

8. ... watch programmes alone? ....
9. ... turn the television off if visitors come? ........
10. ... feel that watching a certain programme was really worthwhile? .......

2.4. What do you do when ....?

Position of frequency adverbs; free composition of sentences, oral or written

Procedure: Ask students a cue question like 'What do you do when you are depressed?' and ask them to jot down a few ideas, using one of the frequency adverbs 'always', 'usually',
'often', 'sometimes' each time:

I sometimes go out and buy some new clothes.

I usually just sit and listen to music. Then share ideas with each other; or try to find other students who have similar reactions.

Variations: Alternative situations that can produce cues are:
other moods when you are (happy, annoyed, bored, nervous) or events (when you have a free day, quarrel with a friend, have an exam the next day, find yourself short of money.)

3.1.20. A Possible CLT Lesson Outline

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:107-8) offer a lesson outline for teaching the function 'making a suggestion' for learners in the beginning level of a secondary school programme suggesting the evolutionary nature of CLT procedures.

1. The teacher motivates students by having an informal discussion with them about the theme/subject before presenting them with a brief dialogue or several minidialogues. This is followed by a discussion of the function and situation- people, roles, setting, topic, and the informality or formality of the language which the function and situation demand.

2. Oral practice of each utterance of the dialogue segment to be presented that day, full class repetition followed by groups and individuals.

3. Questions and answers related to student's personal experience but revolving around the dialogue theme.

4. Questions and answers on dialogue topic(s) and related situations.
5. Study of one of the basic communicative expressions in the
dialogue or one of the structures which exemplifies the
functions along with additional examples of the communicative
use of the utterance to clarify the meaning of the expression,
foocussing on attitudes, purpose in speaking, frequency of use
of the expression, its feasibility and appropriateness in the
situations.

6. Learner discovery of generalization or rules underlying the
functional expression or structure which should include the
following points:
a) its oral and written form, i.e. the elements of which it is
composed.
For example, 'How about + verb + ing'.
b) its position in the utterance.
c) its formality or informality in the utterance.
d) the grammatical function and meaning of structures.

7. Oral recognition and interpretative activities in keeping
with the learning level, language knowledge of students and
other related factors.

8. Oral production activities—proceeding from guided to freer
communication activities.

9. Copying of the dialogues or mini-dialogues or modules which
are not in the text book.

10. Sampling of written homework assignments that may have been
given.

11. An oral evaluation of learning. For example, 'How would
you ask your friend to ...........'. 'How would you ask me
to ...........'. 
The above lesson outline clearly illustrates the dynamic nature of the language system. Language is never static, and its users can modify and recreate it, enrich and adapt it not only in relation with the changes in the real, external world around, but also in the attitudes and responses of the persons with whom they interact.

3.1.21. Examples of Teaching Materials/Lesson Units Designed on CLT Principles

Two examples of CLT lesson units taken from Brumfit and Johnson (1979) and Candlin (1981) have been given here. A few more extracts have been included under Appendix 2.

3.1.21.1. Extract 1: Brumfit and Johnson 1979:223-4


From Student's Book (pp. 41-3)

7.4 Presentation: asking permission

Sometimes we need to do more than just offer to do something. We may need to ask permission to make sure we are allowed to do it.

The expression to use depends on:

a) The type of task you want to do and the degree of resistance you anticipate.

b) Who you are and who you are talking to - the role you are playing and your status.
Here are some useful ways of asking permission. They are graded in order of politeness:

I'm going to leave early.
I thought I might leave early.
I'd like to leave early.
Alright if I leave early?
Anyone mind if I leave early?
D'you mind if I leave early?
Is it alright if I left early?
Would it be alright if I left early?
Would you mind if I left early?
I wonder if I could possibly leave early?

We tend to give permission in just a short phrase, like:

Yes, go ahead.
Yes, I suppose so.
Oh well, alright.

And we refuse permission like this:

I'd rather you didn't, if you don't mind.
I'm sorry, but it's not possible.

Discuss with your teacher when you might use the expressions.

7.5 Practice

Make a list of five things you would like to do, but which would need your teacher's permission. Ask for permission to do them - but be warned, he may ask you why! Later he will change roles and play the role of the principal, so you may then need to change the way you ask.
7.6 Presentation: giving reason

When you ask someone for permission, or refuse someone permission, he is likely to ask for reasons. Here are some useful ways of giving reasons:

Well, you see ............
The reason is ............
If I could explain ............

............ and that's why I'd like to ............

Discuss with your teacher how you would give reasons using these phrases.

7.7 Practice

Build conversations following the pattern suggested in 7.4 and 7.6 using these prompts:

leave room stay for tea
smoke my pipe borrow umbrella
borrow car use phone
day off watch T.V.
open window write in book

Here is an example:

A: Would it be alright if I left the room for a moment, you see I have to make a phone call.
B. I'd rather you didn't if you don't mind, you see this is a very important part of the lesson.
A. Oh, alright, I see.
7.8 **Practice**

Here are some things you want to do. Get together with another student and play the roles of boss and assistant. Keep changing roles after each scene. Remember to give good reasons for wanting to do these things:

- Have the afternoon off - a day off - a week off.
- Leave 5 minutes early - ½ hour early - two hours early.
- Change your holiday - your desk - your secretary.
- Get an assistant - your own phone - a company car.

7.9 **Practice**

Team up with two other students. Imagine one of you has just moved into a new flat and a lot of things need doing. One of you is very lazy, another very eager to do things, and the third is normal. Decide together what needs doing (you will also need to cook a meal this evening) and also who is going to do what.

Discuss these ideas with your teacher before you start writing.

a) Write a letter on behalf of your class requesting permission from the town council to hold a barbecue in a local park. Then 'deliver' it.

b) Write a letter to a friend who owns a country cottage, asking him if you can spend a weekend with some of your friends there. Then 'deliver' it.

c) Read the letter you have received and reply to it as you think fit.

B. 11 Restoration (Gap Text --- New Text)

These Restoration exercises in the form of gap-texts serve to bring together in writing relevant information from several previously-encountered texts. The result of the exercise is a new text, for example a diary entry or a letter. This type of exercise is more valuable than a 'summary' or 'precis' in that it involves creating a new text which is of personal value to the learner.

Scene 3: CAROLINE MEETS ROLAND

Caroline: Hello, I need a battery for my transistor. Do you know if I can get one in the shop?

Roland: Yes, I think so. Do you know where the shop is?

Caroline: Yes, I saw it on our way in. Where do you come from?

Roland: From Frankfurt in Germany. Where are you from?

Caroline: From England, a town called Canterbury. Do you know it?

Roland: I've heard of it. Where is it?

Caroline: It's in the south of England, quite near Dover-- Your English is very good. How long have you been learning it?

Roland: For four years. Do you speak German?

Caroline: No, I don't. I learn French at school.

By the way, what's your name?

Roland: Roland. What's yours?

Caroline: Caroline. Well, I'd better go and get my battery.

Roland: I'll come with you, if you like.

Caroline: O.K.
Scene 4: AT THE SHOP

Caroline: Now we've got the battery we can go back and listen to some music on my transistor, if you like.

Roland: Yes. What kind of music do you like?

Caroline: Well, my favourite group is 'Magna Carta'. Do you like them?

Roland: NO, never heard of them. What's their music like?

Caroline: Oh, it's fabulous. I've got one of their LPs on a cassette. We could hear it later.

Roland: Oh look, there's an English pop magazine. Let's see if there's a picture of 'Magna Carta' in it.

Caroline: No. But here's a picture of 'Slade'. They're fantastic too.

Roland: Do you think so? I don't like them. I think they're lousy. I prefer Melanie.

Caroline: You would!

Roland: Yes, I do. She's really great.

Caroline: Hey, there's a poster over there. They've got a disco here. Are you going tonight?

Roland: If you are.

Scene 5: AT THE DISCO

(loud music, then pause)

Roland: That was great, wasn't it?

Caroline: You seem to like the romantic ones.

Roland: Romantic? Do you know the words?

Caroline: Not by heart. But they're in a magazine I've got back in the caravan. You can have it tomorrow if you like.
Roland: What's wrong with romantic ones? They're about love. What's wrong with it?

Caroline: Ugh, love! That's a silly thing to say.

Roland: I don't think so. I think it's a wonderful thing.

Caroline: Do you really? Well, I suppose it's all right.

Roland: It's more than all right. I say, you're very nice, you know.

Caroline: What do you mean?

Roland: Well, you've got such a lovely voice, and I like the way you laugh too.

Caroline: Do you really mean that?

CAROLINE'S DIARY

Monday, 25th July

I bought a ............ at the camp shop today and met a smashing boy. He's from ............... His name is ............ His English is .................................. We talked about ..........................................

He likes ........................................ but he doesn't like .............................................. We went to the ............. to-night and talked about ........................................ He said my voice .................... and he liked the way .......... I hope I can see him tomorrow.
26th July

Dear Greg,

I'm sorry I haven't written for so long. I'm on holiday here in Denmark, and at last I'm writing the letter promised so long ago.

I met ....................... at ...................... . Her name is .................... and she's from ................. . It's a pity she doesn't ......................... . She said she liked ........................................ . Have you ever heard of them? We went to ......................... last night and talked about ................................ . I hope to see her again.

Yours,

(From: Caroline, I love you)
According to Wright (1987: viii) many different and complex factors influence the roles that teachers and learners adopt in the classroom. The process of learning a language in the classroom is given impetus by this teacher/learner relationship. It is further enriched by the part played by learning materials and the types of role implicit in the materials that are used.

3.2.1. The Essential Qualities of a Good Language Teacher:

Over the years teachers of English as a foreign language have become more and more highly trained and ELT has been deluged by a wealth of new ideas, techniques and innovative materials. In the light of this changed situation, a lot more is demanded of the teacher in the present situation than was in the past. The teacher is the most vital component in assuring the successful implementation of these new ideas. Good competent teachers:

- should manifest a willingness to work harder than previously.
- should attempt to interact constantly with students in a positive way.
- should be well organized in their work, confident and relaxed in their approach.
- should have a good command over the target language.
- should not hesitate to admit their ignorance if necessary.
- should have a sense of humour and preferably an extrovert, approachable personality.
should have a good theoretical understanding of the different teaching methods and approaches.

should attempt to keep abreast of the latest techniques and innovations in the educational field.

should have a selective, critical attitude to the syllabus and course material.

should show interest in working more cooperatively with other teachers.

should be flexible in their teaching approaches to accommodate different teaching/learning situations.

should try to be familiar with the culture associated with the target language but this is only optional and not a necessity.

should make a sincere attempt to like their students and if it is otherwise this fact should be well concealed especially from the students.

be as clear as possible about why their students are learning English.

should be clear to themselves about their beliefs on the nature of language learning and teaching.

should always be open and free in discussion and help their colleagues, senior and junior.

approach to teaching should be founded on principles without being dogmatic, flexible without being merely fashionable.

should be constantly trying to improve and develop both professionally and as an individual by reflecting upon and evaluating their own experiences, either alone or with the assistance and support of colleagues and friends.
should be willing to recognise the merits of the past we well as the present, and the wisdom of the outside critic as well as the professional.

should become sensitive to the demands of their learners and better equipped to manage the learning process.

should avoid harsh corrective measures.

1.2.2. The Teacher's Role in CLT

The teacher's role in any instructional system is closely related to both assumptions about language and language learning at the level of approach. Some methods call for total dependence on the teacher for direction and as a source of knowledge. Other methods view the teacher's role as catalyst, consultant, guide and model for learning. A few methods go to an extreme of literally "teacher proofing" (Richards and Rodgers 1986:23) the instructional system by severely limiting teacher initiative and incorporating instructional content and direction into texts and lessons plans.

According to Richards and Rodgers (1986:24) the role of the teacher in any language method will be determined by the following factors:

The type of function (eg. director, coordinator, guide, etc.) the teachers are expected to fulfil.

The degree of control exercised by the teacher on how learning takes place.

How far the teacher is responsible for determining the intents to be taught.
4. The interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners.

Teachers have always tried to enhance learning in the classroom either with a great deal of intervention or with less. CLT places a lot of emphasis on the degree of intervention necessary for the teacher.

Prior to the communicative approach, English teachers were subject teachers, like maths or history teachers. Their work was confined to imparting knowledge about the English language and developing knowledge of the English language as effectively as they could. Communicative teachers are faced with a radically different task. According to the communicative approach, the foreign language can be learnt only in real communicative situations where real messages are exchanged and there can be no true communication without someone wanting to say or find out something. It is the teacher's job to create favourable conditions for such needs to arise and get expressed. They have to initiate and simulate activities where the learners can participate not only with their 'learning' selves, but with their whole selves. This applies to the teachers as well for they are required to abandon the safe position of general language monitors in the class and supplement their 'teaching' self with the role of co-communicator.

Real life conversations encompass all aspects of human knowledge and experience. Thus communicative teachers must be extremely erudite and versatile people, with great encyclopaedic learning accompanied by a desire to share their knowledge with
The teacher's role in relation to their students have also undergone considerable change. Communicative teachers judiciously recognize that they are not the sole repositories of truth, wisdom, and authority but merely play an instrumental role to facilitate learning. They are therefore expected to keep a low profile in all their functions; as controllers they relax their grip on the class; as assessors they resort to gentle correction; as organizers they set activities in motion and then stand aside; as promoters they perform with discretion; as participants they play second fiddle; as resources they offer help, but only when requested. (Harmer, 1983:200-5)

In the view of communicative teachers the success of the learning process is dependent to a great extent on their ability to withdraw. Teachers withdrawal forms a central nexus for all communicative classroom procedures. The teacher should willingly relinquish much of his traditional 'teacher talking time'. Their much reduced role is hoped to be recompensed by the rapid language development of their students. This withdrawal does not suggest that the teacher ought to surrender all control over the class because this would undermine the learners' most basic need, which is for security. Learner initiative and teacher control should not work in opposition but should be complementary. A proper balance should be maintained between them so as to ensure successful, effective, meaningful language acquisition.
The idea Stevick suggests is that there must be a way which will allow the teacher to keep nearly hundred per cent of the 'control', while at the same time the learner is exercising nearly hundred per cent of the 'initiative'. (Stevick, 1980:33)

The learners' place, then, is at the centre of a space which the teacher has structured (Ibid). According to Medgyes (1985) "Communicative teachers are like supporting actors in a play, who have hardly any words to say, yet are the most crucial figures, on whom the whole drama hinges. This withdrawn-and-yet all-present attitude requires of communicative teachers an extremely high degree of personal subtlety and professional sophistication."

Brumfit comments that

Teacher should not control his class in the sense of pre-arranging everything that is uttered, but he should control it to the extent of knowing as far as the current state of knowledge allows him to-why he has organized it in the way he has, and by permitting freedom only within the framework of what is known of the language learning process. For example, group discussion can be very valuable-but it is not valuable because it is group activity, it is valuable because of the changes which it contributes to producing in the learner, and if the teacher has no idea what sort of changes he is hoping to produce (i.e. no analytical framework of language functions of language forms related to the learners' needs), he has no way of distinguishing learning activity from non-learning activity (or activity which contributes to learning other irrelevant or even harmful things) and no way of talking to fellow-workers about what he is doing and thus of improving and learning himself.

Ultimately, the classroom can only be a 'free' class within a definition which the teacher understands of what the purpose is of that freedom. But it is the teacher who operates; he cannot avoid being central and however freely the pupil may appear
Richards and Rodgers (1986:77-8) assign the following roles for the CLT teacher-needs analyst, counselor and group process manager.

i) As a needs analyst the teacher is responsible for determining and responding to learners language needs. The teacher may adopt different strategies to ascertain learners' needs. The teacher may have an informal, personal discussion with students to gauge their learning styles, learning assets and learning goals. Or the teacher may adopt a formal method such as administering a needs assessment instrument to determine an individual's motivation for studying the language. On the basis of such needs assessments, teachers are expected to plan group and individual instruction that responds to the learners' needs.

ii) In the role of counselor the teacher is expected to exemplify an effective communicator seeking to bring about a coherent meshing of speaker intention and hearer interpretation, through the use of paraphrase, confirmation and feedback.

iii) In the role of group process manager the teacher is responsible for organising the classroom as a setting for communication and communicative activities. During an activity the teacher monitors, encourages, and curbs the inclination to supply gaps in lexis, grammar, and strategy but takes note of such gaps for later commentary and communicative practice. At the conclusion of group activities, the teacher leads in the debriefing of the activity, pointing out alternatives and extensions and assisting groups in self-correction discussion. Critics have questioned the ability of non-native teachers to
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play this role effectively and comfortably without special training.

According to Littlewood (1981:19), as a facilitator of learning the teacher performs the following role:

a) As a general overseer of his students' learning, he must aim to coordinate the activities so that they form a coherent progression, leading towards greater communicative ability.

b) As classroom manager, he is responsible for grouping activities into 'lessons' and for ensuring that these are satisfactorily organised at the practical level as well as deciding on his own role within each activity.

c) He may perform the familiar role of language instructor: he will present new language, exercise direct control over the learners' performance, evaluate and correct it, and so on.

d) In other activities the teacher will not intervene after initiating the proceedings, but will let learning take place through independent activity.

e) While such independent activity is in progress, he may act as consultant adviser, helping where necessary. The teacher may also move about the classroom in order to monitor the strengths and weaknesses of the learners, as a basis for planning future learning activities. Even though he may not intervene at the time, he can use weaknesses as signs of learning needs which he must cater to later.

f) He will sometimes wish to participate in an activity as 'co-communicator' with the learners. In this role, he can stimulate and present new language without taking the main initiative for learning away from the learners themselves.
g) If learners find themselves unable to cope with the demands of a situation, the teacher can offer advice or provide necessary language items. If pupils cannot agree on any point, he can resolve their disagreement. Thus he is available as a source of guidance and help. His presence in this capacity may be an important psychological support for many learners, especially for those who are slow to develop independence.

h) There may be occasions when the teacher decides to exercise a more immediate influence over the language used such as discouraging learners from resorting to their mother tongue in moments of difficulty. He may also decide that a particular error is so important that he must correct it at once.

In discussing the roles of teachers and learner Wright (1987:51-2) assigns two major roles to the teacher in the classroom:

i) to create conditions under which learning can take place: the social side of teaching;

ii) to impart, by a variety of means, knowledge to their learners: the task-oriented side of teaching.

The first is termed the 'enabling' or management function and the second the instructional function. They complement each other and in practice it is difficult to separate one from the other because often one act in the classroom can perform both functions simultaneously as the diagram which follows clearly illustrates:
i) The **Teacher as Manager**: A primary function of the Teacher's management role is to motivate the learners who are demotivated and to nurture those who are already well motivated to the task of learning a foreign language. The teacher can achieve this in several ways:

- Adopting a positive attitude towards the learners. Certain language points may take the learners more time to absorb. Praise and encouragement for positive efforts by the learners will help keep motivation up.

- Giving pupils meaningful, relevant and interesting tasks to do.

- Maintaining discipline to the extent that a reasonable working atmosphere is established. This does not mean total silence, but an atmosphere of calm and organization.

- Being motivated and interested themselves. It is natural that teacher's enthusiasm may flag at times and it is important to guard against this.

- Involving the learners more actively in the classroom process in activities like simulation and group work which demands a lot
of inter-student communication and co-operative efforts on their part.
- Introducing learners to the concept of self-appraisal and self-evaluation through reports and discussions.
- Giving positive feedback on written assignments.
- Encouraging pride in achievement by allowing learners to display their work on the classroom walls and notice boards.

ii) The Teacher as Instructor: As well as the managerial role, the teacher has an instructional role. The instructional side of a teacher's role is likely to be:
- goal-oriented;
- task-dependent;
- knowledge-based.

The instructional role of the teacher can be viewed from three broad perspectives:
1. Mode of instruction
2. Instructional materials and resources.
3. The management of knowledge.

A teacher can pursue his instructional role in a variety of modes in keeping with
- the personality of the teacher;
- the materials being used;
- the expectations of the learners;
- the prescriptions of school administrators;
- the subject matter being treated;
- the preferences of teachers for certain types of classroom processes;
the teacher's interpretation of the idea of 'instruction'.

Different writers have expressed different opinions about the role of the teacher as instructor.

"... the teacher instructs. This is where he explains exactly what the students should do. He may tell the students they are going to work in pairs and then designate one member of each pair as A and the other as B". (Harmer 1983:203)

"...most important the teacher is in the classroom as a facilitator of the process of communication between the learners, their tasks, and the data to which the various tasks are directed".

(Abbs,Candlin,Edelhoff,Moston and Sexton 1982:ix)

The role of the teacher changes... Instead of being the person who provides prompts that trigger utterances of a certain structure from the students, the teacher now sets up the conditions for communication to take place. Hence, the teacher will actually assume roles to model the language for the learners; or act as someone for learners to communicate with. The teacher also has to be able to set up conditions for students to practice communicative operations themselves".

(Scott,R. in Johnson and Morrow 1981:71)

"Teacher 'over-load' often entails learner 'underinvolvement' since teachers are doing work learners could more profitably do themselves"

(Allwright 1981:10)

Gower and Walters put it this way:
Teachers "need to subtly alter ...[their] role[s] according to the activity without going to the extremes of dominating a class or leaving it without anything to do". (1983:7)

Barnes (1976) draws up the following roles for the teacher:
1. The teacher is an evaluator of learners' efforts and contributions. The teacher judges whether learners' contributions to the teaching/learning process are valid, relevant and correct.
2. The teacher is a guide to the 'subject' under consideration and the way in which it is learnt in the classroom. He is also the curator of the 'rules' for acquiring knowledge.
3. The role of guide is closely linked to the role of resource. The teacher is a resource of knowledge about the subject and also how to acquire it.
4. The teacher is also an organiser. He/she organises classroom activities, sets up learning tasks and assists the learners in doing these activities.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:98-101) have outlined the following role and responsibilities for the teacher adopting the communicative methodology.
1. Finding out the interests, linguistic and cultural needs, learning styles and social and vocational aspirations of the learners.
2. Finding out at what points on the continuum of each of the communicative skills the learners are.
3. Seeking out various resources—people, places, materials—which could be utilized in learning activities.
4. Broadening the experiences of learners through a variety of visual, acoustic and tactile activities thereby widening the range of concepts and notions to think about, discuss and write about.

5. Enriching learners vocabulary by familiarizing them with the appropriate communicative expressions, formulas, hesitation words, exclamations, unarticulated sounds which are common in authentic, normal conversation/communication.

6. Presenting communicative functions, structures, notions and cultural insights appropriate to realistic situations to clarify their meaning and illustrate their use in general human experience.

7. Modifying the order of presentation in class texts so that high-frequency, appropriate, feasible functional expressions and notional items needed in actual communication situations are taught before other less used ones.

8. Integrating previously taught linguistic and cultural material with newly acquired materials in extended contexts to help learners internalize rules of grammar and use.

9. Introducing linguistic material which has been presented under one function within a specific socio-cultural situation in a totally different one, to make students aware of the fact that language makes unlimited use of limited means.

10. Preparing realistic activities which have relevance to the students' everyday life and communication needs, using learners' school/home/community environments as a starting point.
11. Not intervening when students are expressing themselves creatively during fluency activities unless there is a complete breakdown in understanding. Above all, praising learners for all efforts, however minimal.

12. Encouraging students to discuss their culture and their values in the language they are learning, thus inculcating in them pride in their culture.

13. Help learners distinguish formal/informal, familiar/polite/rude, appropriate/inappropriate, acceptable/unacceptable language.

14. Enable students gain insight into all aspects of the culture system of the target language including paralinguistic features of the language.

15. Teaching learners to use appropriate paralinguistic features/paraphrases/alternative expressions to convey their meaning when they cannot recall specific communicative expressions, structures or vocabulary items.

16. Help learners recognise the redundant features of the language.

17. Help learners guess the meaning of a word or phrase from the context in listening and reading.

18. Enable learners monitor their own speech in order to check if they are communicating effectively.

19. Help advanced level learners recognise language varieties and possible reasons for their variation.

20. Help students become aware of cognates that may exist between words or expressions in their native tongues and in the target language.
21. Help students note and learn differences in pronunciation, 
forms and position in utterances of word families such as 'able, 
ably, ability' etc.

Thus we see that in the communicative approach the teacher 
needs to play a multi-faceted and challenging role. It calls 
for a great deal of dynamism and the ability to adapt quickly 
to all sorts of teaching /learning situations.

1.2.3. Seating Arrangements in CLT Classrooms

Since CLT classroom procedures, practices and techniques 
are at variance with traditional language teaching methods it 
entails varying the layout of the classroom.

"It may be impossible to avoid having your students sitting 
in rows facing you. Even here, however, ensure that empty seats 
are only at the back and that everyone is grouped as near the 
front as possible. Ideally, everyone should be able to see 
everyone else, so that they can all participate in what is being 
said. Probably the best arrangement is to have everyone ranged 
around the wall, in a circle. You then get a large area in the 
middle which can be used for acting out, and there is a greater 
sense of community". (Haycroft 1978:15)

1.2.4. The Essential Qualities of a Good Language Learner:

In a survey of good language learners, Naiman, Frohlich, 
Stern and Todesco (1978) revealed five consistent tendencies:
1. The learners must be active in their approach to learning 
and practice.

2. The learners must come to grips with the language as a 
system.

3. The learners must use the language in real communication.
4. The learners must monitor their own inter language.

5. The learners must come to terms with the effective demands of language learning.

According to Mary Waters and Alan Waters (1992) successful students exhibit the following characteristics. They:
- have a high degree of self awareness;
- are good at critical questioning;
- tend to have an 'adult' approach to relations with their teachers;
- think clearly and logically;
- are self-confident;
- impose their own framework on study data;
- have a positive attitude to their studies;
- are willing and able to teach themselves;
- are intelligent, etc.

3.2.5. Conditions Necessary for Effective Language Learning:

Brunfitt (1985:38) recognises only three necessary conditions for effective language learning to occur.

1. Learners must be exposed extensively and systematically to the target language.

2. Learners must be given extensive opportunity to interact meaningfully with the language and use it creatively in reading, writing, conversation and listening activities.

3. Learners must be motivated to make use of these opportunities.

3.2.6. The Learners' Role in CLT:

CLT emphasises the processes of communication rather than mastering language forms. This envisages a different role for
Learners from the one found in more traditional second language classrooms. Breen and Candlin describe the learners' role within CLT in the following terms:

"The role of the learner as negotiator—between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning—emerges from and interacts within the group and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an independent way". (1980: 110)

The learners' role is influential in the design of any instructional system or learning material because "a method reflects explicit or implicit responses to questions concerning the learners' contribution to the learning process". (Richards and Rodgers 1986:23)

Attention has to be paid to:
- the types of activities learners carry out;
- the amount of control learners have over the learning content;
- the way learners are grouped;
- the degree of influence learners exercise on each others learning;
- the view of the learner as a processor, performer, initiator, problem solver. (Ibid).

According to Johnson and Paulston (1976), in an individualised approach to language learning the learner would have to adopt the following roles:
1. Planning their own learning programme and thereby assuming responsibility for what they do in the classroom.
2. Recognising themselves as members of a group and learning by interacting with others.
3. Monitoring and evaluating their own progress.
4. Tutoring other learners.
5. Learning not only from the teacher but from fellow students and other teaching sources.

In this approach learners are not expected to follow the lesson passively, but will need to involve themselves as real people in the activities they are asked to undertake both inside and outside the classroom. This gives them more freedom—and more responsibility. The learner will be expected to:

- work independently or in consultation with peers during group work.
- actively participate in the language learning process.
- consider the teacher, not as a dispenser of knowledge, but as a co-communicator.
- make use of the target language for his own, personal communicative purposes.
- be more responsible for his own language learning.
- give up his dependence on the textbook and look up other potentially communicative learning materials.
- overcome inhibitions and try to speak in the target language despite making mistakes.
- interact positively and amicably with fellow students and the teacher.
- try and relate language learnt in the class to real life situations and other curriculum subjects.
- look on communication as his ultimate goal and not the mastery of language forms.
- take an interest in the culture system of the target language.
- try and understand the paralinguistic features of the target language.
- guess the meaning of a word from the context in listening and writing.
- use the target language creatively.
- monitor his speech to check if he is communicating effectively.