CHAPTER –II

COMMUNICATIVE METHODS OF TEACHING: THEORIES AND PRINCIPLES

2.1 Theories of Communication Language Teaching
2.2 Theories of Communication Language Learning
2.3 Principles of Communicative Approach
2.4 Aspects of Communicative Language Teaching
A language teaching method is a scheme describing firstly the roles of the participants in an instructional context, and secondly, the role and form of the instructional materials. The assumption upon which such a description is based are derived from theories of what constitutes language and / or how language learning takes place. Ultimately, the method is put into practice in the classroom by teachers, who through internalizing the principles inherent in a particular method, develop their own procedures and techniques parallel to those prescribed by the method.

In describing methods, the differences between a philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles, and a set of derived procedures for teaching a language, is central. In an attempt to clarify this difference, a scheme was proposed by the American applied linguist Edward Anthony in 1963. He identified three levels of conceptualization and organization, which he termed approach, method and technique.\(^1\)

"The arrangement is hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach."

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An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught. Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural.

Within an approach, there can be many methods.

A technique is implementational that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well.⁹

According to Anthony's model, approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; technique is the level at which classroom procedures are described.⁹
Communicative language teaching aims broadly to apply the theoretical perspective of the communicative Approach by making Communicative Competence the goal of language teaching and by acknowledging the interdependence of language and communication.4

Communicative Language Teaching is based on the assumption that "Communicative" classrooms provide a better environment for second language learning than classroom dominated by formal instruction yet no studies have been undertaken by those promoting this view to demonstrate that classrooms in which learners are encouraged to use the target language for problem solving, communicative tasks, information exchange, and meaningful interaction are indeed more conducive to successful language learning than classrooms in which the teacher dominates much of the teaching time or where the primary focus of activities is on more controlled and less creative uses of language.5

The work of the council of Europe; the writings of Wilkins, Widdowson, Candlin, Christopher Brumfit, Keith Johnson and other British Applied Linguists on the theoretical basis for a communicative or functional approach to language teaching; the rapid application of these ideas by textbook writers; and the equally rapid acceptance of these new principles by British language teaching specialists, curriculum development centers, and even governments gave prominence nationally and internationally to what came to be
referred to as the Communicative Approach, or simply Communicative Language Teaching.

**Its aim is to:** -

1) Make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and

2) Develop procedures for the teaching for the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication.

Littlewood (1981) states:

"One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language."

A notional primary English syllabus based on a communicative Approach (Syllabuses for Primary School 1981) for example; defines the focus of the syllabus as the:

"Communicative functions", which the forms of the language serve... The introduction to the same document comments, that "communicative purpose may be of many different kinds what is essential in all of them is that at least two parties are involved in an interaction of transaction of some kind where one party has an intention and other party expands or reacts to the intention".
2.1 THEORIES OF COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING -

The prime object of the communicative approach is to develop communicative ability. It starts from a theory of language as communication. As such the goal of language teaching is to develop 'communicative competence" as coined by Hymes (1972).

"The competence....is integral with attitudes, values and motivation concerning language, its features and uses, and integral with competence for, and attitudes towards, the inter relation of language with the other code of communication conduct....The internalization of attitudes towards a language and its uses is particularly important...as is internalization of attitudes towards use of language itself...".9

Hymes puts forward this term in contrast to Chomsky's theory for Linguistic Competence. Besides the debate between Linguistic Competence and Communicative Competence, another important contribution towards this and has been made by Halliday' in his Functional account of language use. In the words of Richards & Rogers, he described seven basic functions that language performs for children learning their first language;
1. The instrumental function;
   Using language to get things

2. The regulatory function;
   Using language to control the behaviour of others.

3. The interactional function;
   Using language to create interaction with others;

4. The personal function;
   Using language to express personal feelings and meanings;

5. The heuristic function;
   Using language to learn and discover;

6. The imaginative function;
   Using language to create a world of imagination;

7. The representational function;
   Using language to communicate information.\textsuperscript{10}

Proponents of Communicative Language Teaching as acquiring
the linguistic means to perform different kinds of functions similarly
viewed learning a second language.

\textbf{Halliday} has insisted on the centrality of meaning in
communication, and the crux of good language learning to him
would be to 'learn how to mean' in a Second/Foreign Language. According to him, different uses of language realize different 'intentions mentioned above. Elucidating his point of view, he states:

*Let us summarize the models in terms of the child's intentions, since different uses of language may be seen as realizing different intentions. In its instrumental function, language is used for the satisfaction of mental needs; this is the "I want' function. The regulatory is the "do as I tell you" function, language in the control of behavior. The interactional function is that getting along with others, the "me and him" function, the personal is related to this, it is the expression of identity of the self, which develops largely through linguistic interaction; the "here I come" function, perhaps. The heuristic is the use of language to learn, to explore reality the function of "tell me why" the imaginative is that of "let's pretend", whereby the reality is erected, and what is being explored is the child's mind, including language itself. The representational is the "I've got something to tell you" function, that communication of content.¹¹*
Another theorist frequently cited for his views on the communicative nature of language is Henry Widdowson. In his book "Teaching Language as Communication" (1978), Widdowson presented a view of the relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values in text and discourse. He focused on the communicative acts underlying the ability to use language for different purposes.

"...............it will be generally acknowledged that the ultimate aim in language learning is to acquire communicative competence, to interpret, whether this is made overt in talking or corresponding or whether it remains covert as a psychological activity underlying the ability to say, listen, write, and read. I assume that the issue is not whether this is the aim of language learning, but how this aim is to be achieved."^{12}

At the level of language theory, Communicative Language Teaching has a rich, if somewhat eclectic, theoretical base. Some of the characteristics of this communicative view of language are as follows.

1. Language is a system for the expression of meaning.

2. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.
3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.

4. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.\(^{13}\)

### 2.2 THEORIES OF COMMUNICATION LANGUAGE LEARNING

The most important development in the area of language learning has been made from the field of second language acquisition research. Krashen (1981) and other second language acquisition theorist mainly stresses on the need to enable language learning through using language communicatively as opposed to learning the language through practicing language skills. Krashen describes "a monitor model of second language (L2) performance" in which acquisition is distinguished from 'learning'. Acquisition refers to the subconscious process of natural assimilation of language rules through using language for communication. Learning refers to the formal study of language rules and is a conscious process. Krashen's theory also addresses the conditions necessary for the process of acquisition to take place. He describes these in terms of the types of
“input" the learner receives. Input must be comprehensible, slightly above the learners present levels of competence, interesting or relevant, not grammatically sequenced, in sufficient quantity and experiences in low anxiety contexts. The condition, which is necessary in order to acquire a language, says Krashen, is meaningful interaction in the target language, in which the speakers are concerned not with the form of what they say, but rather with the message that is being conveyed. As a result, the correction of errors and the explicit teaching of rule are not conducive to language acquisition, although the interlocutors such as parents and native speakers may modify what they say in speaking to children or foreign acquirers in order to help them to understand. On the other hand, conscious language learning takes place when the focus is on the linguistic form rather than the content of communication. And learning in this sense is greatly helped by judicious correction of errors and the explicit formulation of rules.

The works of Johnson (1984) and Littlewood (1984) depict alternative learning theory that they consider compatible with Communicative Language Teaching i.e. skill-learning model of learning. The main emphasis made by this theory is on practice as a way of developing communicative skills.
"The cognitive aspects involve the internalization of plans for creating appropriate behavior. For language use, these plans derive mainly from the language system they include grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary and social conventions governing speech. The behavioral aspect involves the automation of these plans so that they can be converted into fluent performance in real time. This occurs mainly through. Practice in converting plans into performance."\textsuperscript{14}

2.3 PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

The main principles of communicative approach, which distinguish it from the other approaches to language teaching, are briefly stated below. They have been selected from the works of different writers on the topic and presented mostly is their own words Canale and Swain gives a description of the first, seven principles-

1. A communicative approach is organized on the basis of communicative functions (i.e.) apologizing, describing, inviting, promising that a given learner or group of learners
need to know, and emphasizes the ways in which particular grammatical forms may be used to express these function appropriately. On the other hand a grammatical approach is organized on the basis of linguistic or grammatical forms (i.e. phonological forms, morphological forms, syntactic patterns, lexical items) and emphasizes the ways in which these forms may be combined to form grammatical sentences.

2. In the most general terms we may say that a communicative language teaching is one, which recognizes the teaching of 'communicative competence' as its aim. It is on this level of aim that such a language teaching distinguishes itself from more traditional approaches where the emphasis is heavily on teaching structural competence. Communicative Competence is composed minimally of Grammatical competence, Socio-linguistic competence and Strategic competence. There is no theoretical or empirical motivation for the view that "grammatical competence is any more or less crucial to successful goal of a communicative approach must be to facilitate the integration of these types of knowledge for the learner an outcome that is not likely to result from over emphasis on the form competences over the others throughout second language programme."
3. A communicative approach must be based on and respond to the learner's communicative needs. These needs must be specified with respect to grammatical competence e.g. the levels of grammatical accuracy that are required in oral and written communication, social linguistic competence (e.g. needs relating to setting, topic, communicative functions), and strategic competence (e.g. compensatory communicative strategies to be used when there is a breakdown in one of the other competencies).

4. It is particularly important to base a communicative approach on the varieties of the second language that the learner is most likely to be in contact with in a genuine communicative situation and on the minimum levels of grammatical and socio-linguistic competence that native speakers expect of second language learners in such a situation and that the majority of second language learners may be expected to attain.

5. The second language learners must have the opportunity to take part in meaningful communicative interaction with highly competent speakers of the language i.e. to respond to genuine communicative needs in realistic second language situations. This principle is a challenging one to teachers and programme designers but is motivated strangely by the theoretical
distinction between communicative competence and communicative performance..... We think that exposure to realistic communication situation is crucial if communicative competence is to lead to 'communicative confidence'.

6. Particularly at the early stages of second language learning optimal use must be made of those aspects of communicative competence that the learner has developed through acquisition and use of native language and that are common to those communication skills required in the second language. It is especially important that more arbitrary and less universal aspects of communication in the second language e.g., certain features of the grammatical code be presented and practiced in the context of less arbitrary and more universal aspects (e.g. the fundamental appropriateness conditions in making a request the basic rules of discourse involved in greeting a peer.)

7. The primary objective of a communication oriented second language programme must be to provide the learners with the information, practice and much of the experience needed to meet their communicative needs in the second language. In addition the learners should be taught about the language primarily (although not exclusively) in the first language programme, i.e. taught for example about grammatical
categories, communicative functions appropriateness. The learner should also be taught about the second language culture primarily (although not exclusively) through the social studies programme in order to provide them with the socio cultural knowledge of the second language group that is necessary in drawing inferences about the social meanings or values of utterances.15

Roberts Makes the Following Contributions

8. The communicative approach must in many ways remain a commitment to eclecticism in practice, though to a set goal in theory, as long as it accepts a great diversity of communicative needs and seeks to meet them diversely.

9. While the traditional approach persists as a way of going about teaching practice (what ever one may be claiming to aim at in theory) there is no longer any theoretical input into it by way of new ideas from linguistics, psychology or education. The communicative approach on the other hand draws inspiration from current ideas about language and has resulted from the conjunction of the need to teach languages as a social tool with the availability of new ideas about the nature of language as social tool.
10. Communicative approach as a whole has developed primarily around the adult learner largely because it is usually only adults who have closely specifiable communication needs in foreign languages.

11. Communicative Language Teaching recognized the necessity for teaching language use (formulating its aim in terms of communication competence)\textsuperscript{16}

2.4 ASPECTS OF COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

The theme of language and the learner's communication needs is a familiar one in language teaching. In recent years, applied linguistics has been revitalized by attempts to describe how language reflects its communicative uses and by demonstrations of how syllabus design and methodology can respond to the need for communicative user of language in classrooms and teaching materials by considering some central aspects of communication, this part of the chapter attempts to contribute to the general understanding of how language use reflects underlying communicative needs. Five assumptions about the nature of verbal communication will be discussed, namely, that communication is
meaning-based, conventional, appropriate, interactional, and structural. These will be discussed in relation to the communicative needs of second-language learners.17

A communicative approach opens up a wider perspective on language. In particular, it makes us consider language not only in terms of its structure (grammar and vocabulary), but also in terms of the communicative functions that it performs. In other words, it begins to look not only at language forms, but also at what people, do with these forms when they want to communicate with each other. For example,

"Why don't you close the door?"

might be used for a number of communicative purposes, such as asking a question, making a suggestion or issuing an order.

The newer Functional view of language can be combined with the Traditional Structural view, in order to achieve a more complete communicative perspective. This enables us to give a fuller account of what students have to learn in order to use language as a means of communication. It also suggests an alternative basis for selecting and organizing the language items that we need to teach.
A communicative approach opens up a wider perspective of language learning. In particular, it makes us more strongly aware that it is not enough to teach learners how to manipulate the structures of the foreign language. They must also develop strategies for relating these structures to their communicative functions in real situations and real time.

One of the most characteristic features of Communicative Language Teaching is that it pays systematic attention to **Functional as well as Structural aspects of language**, combining there into a more fully communicative view.\(^{18}\)

### 2.4.1 Structural and Functional Aspects of Communication.

The structural view of language concentrates on the grammatical system, describing ways in which linguistic items can be combined. For example, it explains the operations for producing the passive ‘The window has been broken’ rather than the active ‘somebody has broken the window’, and describes the word-order rules that make us interpret ‘The girl chased the boy’ differently from ‘The boy chased the girl’. Intuitive knowledge of these, and of a multitude of other linguistic facts and operations, makes up a native
speaker's linguistic competence and enables him to produce new sentences to match the meaning that need to be expressed.

The structural view of language has not been in any way superseded by the functional view. However, it is not sufficient on its own to account for how language is used as a means of communication. Littlewood explains it through an example.

'Why don't you close the door?'

From a structural viewpoint, it is unambiguously, an interrogative. Different grammars may describe it in different terms, but none could argue that its grammatical form is a declarative or imperative. From a functional viewpoint, however, it is ambiguous. In same circumstances, it may function as a question- for example, the speaker may genuinely wish to know why his companion never closes a certain door. In others, it may function as a command- this would probably be the case if, say, a teacher addressed it to a pupil who had left the classroom door open. In yet other situation, it could be intended (or interpreted, perhaps mistakenly) as a plea, a suggestion, or a complaint. In other words, whereas the sentence structure is stable and straightforward, its communicative function is variable and depends on specific situational and social factors.¹⁹
2.4.1.1 Understanding Functional Meanings

Explaining the necessary of Linguistics Competence along with non-linguistics knowledge accompanied by communication competence to understand the intended meaning Wells quotes the following example.

A teacher wanted a child to pick up a towel and hang it on a rail. His first three attempts to communicative his meaning to the child resulted only in confusion:

‘Would you pick up the towel for me, before someone steps on it? (No action from the child)

‘What do we do with the towel’, Jimmie? (Still no action)

‘Well, would you like to hang it up?’ (No action)

The child only understood when the teacher used a direct imperative:

‘Jimmie, pick the towel up!’

It was clear from the child’s reactions that he was not being insolent or deliberately uncooperative. This leaves three possible explanations for his failure to understand the teacher’s first three attempts to get his meaning across:
- The structure of the first three sentences could have been outside the child’s linguistic competence. The explanation is unlikely to be valid in this case, but would of course be a strong candidate if the hearer were a foreign learner.

- The child may have been unfamiliar with the use of interrogative structures for expressing commands, perhaps because his parents used predominantly direct imperatives to control his behavior. In other words, the Teacher’s first three utterances may have been within his linguistic competence but outside his communicative competence.

- He may not have possessed the appropriate nonlinguistic knowledge for understanding the teacher’s communicative intention. For example he needed situational knowledge about where the towel was and where it belonged, as well as social knowledge about the tidiness convention at school (a convention which the teacher’s second utterance explicitly appeals to).

These possible explanations highlight three corresponding aspects of the skill involved in understanding meanings:

- The ability to understand linguistic structures and vocabulary.
- Knowledge of the potential communicative functions of linguistic forms,
• The ability to relate the linguistic forms to appropriate nonlinguistic knowledge, in order to interpret the specific functional meaning intended by the speaker.

An important implication of the third aspect is that the foreign language learner needs more than a 'fixed repertoire' of linguistic forms corresponding to communicative functions. Since the relationship between forms and functions is variable, and cannot be definitely predicted outside specific situations, the learner must also be given opportunities to develop strategies for interpreting language in actual use.

2.4.1.2. Structural Practice.

The term 'practice', as used here, includes not only activities where the learner's response is expected to be immediate (as in most drills and question and answer practice), but also those where the learner has more time to reflect on the operations he is performing (as in most written exercises).

This form of practice is included here to provide a point of departure for other, more communicatively oriented activities.
Many of the audio-lingual drills produced up to the end of the 1960s are of this type, where the focus is exclusively on the performance of structural operation. Here, for example, learners must produce the correct form of the simple past:

P: John has written the letter.

R: He wrote it yesterday.

P: Johan has seen the film.

R: He saw it yesterday (and so on)

It is not suggested that learners are never aware of meaning in this sort of activity. However, this awareness is in no way essential to performing the operations, and it is likely that many learners will focus only on the structural changes that they have to be made. Indeed, they are encouraged to do this by the nature of the relationship between 'prompt' and 'response', which belong together only by virtue of their grammatical structure, not because they might be expected to occur together in the course of a real exchange of meanings. Structural practice may still be a useful tool, especially when the teacher wishes to focus attention sharply and unambiguously on an important feature of the structural system.20
2.4.1.3 Relating Structure to Communicative Function.

The example just discussed can be easily adapted so that it rehearses the same structural facts, but in language which sounds more communicatively authentic:

P: By the way, has John written the letter yet?

R: Yes, he wrote it yesterday.

P: Has he seen the film yet?

R: Yes, he saw it yesterday.

The items now serve to illustrate communicative facts as well as structural facts: the prompt is an instance not only of a 'perfect interrogative' but also of a question, while the response is not only a 'past declarative' but also a 'reply'. That is, it is now possible to recognize the communicative function as well as the structure of the linguistic forms.

Communicative function is closely bound up with situational context. A further step in providing links between structure and function is therefore to conceptualize the language and ask learners to practice responses, which would be (a) realistic ways of
performing useful communicative acts in (b) situations they might expect to encounter at some time. For example:

Your friend makes a lot of suggestions, but you feel too tired to do anything.

P: Shall we go to the cinema?

R: On, no, I don’t feel like going to the cinema.

P: Shall we have a swim?

R: On no, I don’t feel like having swim.

Structurally, the learner is here practicing the use of the gerund. Functionally, he is learning ways of making and rejecting suggestions. This functional aspect can naturally be emphasized by the teacher as he presents the activity.

In these activities, then, the student is learning to relate language to its communicative function. The actual operations are still have a purely structural nature, and may be carried out without conscious attention to meaning or situations. Thus in the activity just discussed, the change from ‘shall we + verb’ to ‘oh no, I don’t feel like + verb + ing’ could be made mechanically even if we substituted a nonsense word for the verb.\textsuperscript{21}
2.4.2 The Meaning-Based Aspect of Communication.

Examining basic ‘survival’ language needs, of a learner who has an active vocabulary of perhaps two hundred words, a minimal knowledge of the syntax of English, but who is in a situation where English is required for simple and basic communicative purposes—points out that the most immediate need is to be able to refer to a core of basic “referents” or things in the real world that is, to be able to name things, states, events, and attributes, using the words he or she knows. In addition, the learner must be able to link words together to make predications, that is, to express propositions. (A proposition is the linking of words to form predications about things, people, and events. For example, the words book and red constitute a proposition when we understand the meaning of the book is red.

Propositions are the building blocks of communication, and the first task in learning to communicate in a language is to learn how to create propositions. Language is comprehensible to the degree that hearers are able to reconstruct proposition from the speaker’s utterance. When the child says “hungry” to the mother, the mother understands, “I am hungry” from; “no hungry” the mother understands the child’s message as being “I don’t want to eat”. From these examples we see that sentences do not have to be complete or grammatical for their propositional meaning to be understood. We
often make good sense of a speaker who uses very broken syntax, just as we can understand a message written in telegraph, for example, ‘no money send draft’.

Sentence may contain more than one proposition. ‘The girl picked the red flower’ contains the propositions ‘the girl picked the flower’ and ‘the flower is red’. Sentences may refer to the same propositions but differ in what they say about it. The following sentences all refer to the proposition John married Mary, but differ in what they say about it:22

When did John marry Mary?

Why did John and Mary get married?

Mary and John have been married for ages.

Speakers use propositions in utterances in a variety of ways. They may wish to ask a question about a proposition, affirm a proposition, deny or negate a proposition, or express an attitude toward a proposition. They may use propositions to communicate meanings indirectly, as when the speaker says, ‘I’m thirsty’ but means ‘I’d like a glass of water’, the latter being the “illocutionary effect”, the speaker intends.17 Now, whereas adult native speakers of English can use the resources of adult syntax to encode propositions
in the appropriate grammatical form and to communicate a wide range of illocutionary meanings, beginning foreign-language learners find that the demands of communication often exceed their knowledge of the grammar of English. The learner’s immediate priority is to work out a way of performing such operations as stating, affirming, denying or questioning propositions, as economically as possible, using only a partial knowledge of the vocabulary and syntax of the target language. Here learners have needs similar to children who are learning their mother tongue child language can be used to express complex meanings within the link’s of a restricted grammatical system. “Mother talk” that variety of speech which mothers use when talking to young children is simplified to make propositions and illocutionary intentions more readily identifiable. Mothers’ questions to children, for example, contain for more yes/no questions than wh-questions, because propositions are more readily identifiable in yes/no questions.23

John ought to have come on time.

I regret I wasn’t able to get to your class on time

I can’t afford to buy that dress.
One strategy learners adopt in communicating complex meanings like this is to "bring propositions to the surface" by expressing meanings and intentions directly rather than indirectly, and by expressing lexically aspects of meaning that in the target language are coded in the auxiliary system, in complex clauses, or by grammatical devices. The first sentence, for example, implies the proposition John come late and communicates the speaker's attitude toward this proposition. The meaning is roughly speaker disapprove that 'John come late'. This could be communicated by saying:

"Why John late?" (Said with non-approving intonation) or

"John late. That bad."

(The distinction between propositions that are expressed, and those that are presupposed, is an important one, but will not be pursued further here.) The second sentence contains the proposition, 'I am late'. Together with the speaker's expression of regret. It might be communicated by saying:

"I late, so sorry."

I can't afford to buy that dress contains the propositions:

The dress is expensive. I don't have enough money to buy the dress.
It could be restated.

"The dress expensive, can not buy." Or

"Can't buy the dress. No money."

This type of "restructuring" is seen in the following examples, in which utterances in simplified learner syntax are compared with standard adult grammar.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simplified Utterances</th>
<th>Equivalent in standard adult syntax</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mary lazy. No work hard</td>
<td>Mary can work hard if she wants to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tomorrow I give money</td>
<td>You will have your money tomorrow, I promise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You no money. I lend you.</td>
<td>I will lend you some money if you need any.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This way. See the map.</td>
<td>According to the map, this ought to be the way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One day I go England</td>
<td>I would like to go to England some day.²⁵</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teachers too often resort to the type of language on the left in communicating with speakers of limited language proficiency. The following examples were produced by the teachers, who are native speakers of English:
1. A teacher is explaining the meaning of wash: "In your house, you ... a tab ......... You (gestures) wash."

2. Here a teacher is explaining how to take Telephone message: "I want to speak other person. He not here. What good thing for say how?"

3. A teacher explaining an interview procedure produced: "Not other student listen. I no want. Necessary you speak. May be I say what is your name. The writing not important.

4. And here is a teacher reminding her students to bring their books to class: "The book ......... we have ....... (hold up book)........ book is necessary for class. Right ....... Necessary for school. You have book'"

The preceding examples illustrate a linguistic system that can be used for communicating basic prepositional meanings, such a system is known as "child language" when it is produced by infants learning their mother Tongue, "inter-language" when it is produced by foreign-language learners, "teacher talk" when it is used by teachers, and "foreigner talk" when it is produced by native speakers communicating with foreigners. The linguistic system behind this type of communication is one that uses a basic "notional/functional" core of vocabulary items, a syntax that depends on simple word-
order rules (such as negating by placing the negative word in front of the proposition), and in which the communication of meaning is not dependent on grammatical systems of tense or aspect, auxiliaries, function words plural morphemes, and so forth.

The ability to use such a communicative system is crucial in first stages of foreign-language learning. We should consequently be tolerant of grammatical "errors" from learners who are at this stage. They should not attempt active communication too soon, however. Before the learner is ready to begin speaking a foreign language, he or she should have a vocabulary of at least two hundred words and a feel for the basic word-order rules of the target language. The learner needs to develop a feel for the system of basic word order (in English: subject-predicate sentence order, adverb and adjectival positions, negation, question formation, etc). When speaking is taught, the initial goal should be the production of comprehensible utterances through expressing basic propositional meanings and illocutionary intentions.\textsuperscript{26}

2.4.3 The Conventional Aspect of Communication

Although much of the learner's effort in speaking a foreign language center on developing the vocabulary and syntax needed to
express prepositional meanings, it is native-speakr syntax and usage that is ultimately the learner's goal. As language acquisition proceeds, the learner revises his or her ideas about how propositions are expressed in English. The learner's syntax becomes more complex as his or her knowledge of negation, the auxiliary system, questions, word order, embedding, conjoining, and so on, expands. In short, the learner begins to develop grammatical competence.

Both linguists and applied linguists in recent years have emphasized the creative properties of grammatical systems. Language users were social to possess, as part of their grammatical competence, the ability to produce an infinite number of sentences, most of which are novel utterances. The learner's task was thought to be to "internalize" the rules needed to generate "any and all" of the possible grammatical sentences of English. The primary aim of language teaching was to create opportunities for these grammatical abilities to develop in language learners.

The fact is, however, that only a fraction of the sentences that could be generated by our grammatical competence are actually ever used in communication. Communication largely consists of the use of language in conventional ways. There are strict constraints imposed
on the creative-constructive capacities of speakers, and these limit how speakers encode propositional meanings.

The fact that language is conventional has important implications for language teaching. First, it suggests that there is reason to skeptical of the suggestion that language cannot be taught but only acquired. Many of the conventional aspects of language wage are amenable to teaching. Second, applied linguistic effort is needed to gather fuller data on such forms (through discourse analysis and frequency counts, for example) with a view to obtaining useful in formation for teachers, textbook writers, and syllabus designers.27

2.4.4. The Appropriateness Aspect of Communication

Mastery of a foreign language requires more than the use of utterances that express prepositional meanings and are conventional. The form of utterances must also take into account the relationship between speaker and hearer, and confronts imposed by the setting and circumstances in which the act of communication is taking place. ‘What’s your name’?
Is a conventional utterance, for examples, but it is not an appropriate way of asking the identity of a telephone caller in this case, ‘May I know, who is calling’?, is considered more appropriate.

Communicative Competence includes knowledge of different communicative strategies or communicative styles according to the situation, the task, and the roles of the participants. For examples, if a person wants to get a matchbox from another person in order to light a cigarette, he or she might take one of the following courses of action, according to the person’s judgment of its appropriateness!2

1. Make a statement of need: “I need a match”.

2. Use an imperative: “Give me a match”.

3. Use an embedded imperative: “could you give me a match?”

4. Use a permission directive: a “May I have a match?”

5. Use a question directive: “Do you have a match?”

6. Give a hint: “The matches are all gone, I see.”

Young children learning their mother tongue soon become skilled at using communicative strategies appropriately. Thus, child who wants something done may bargain, beg, name-call, or threaten
violence in talking to other children, reason, beg, or make promises in talking to parents, or repeat the request several times, or beg, in talking to grandparents.28

The choice of an appropriate strategy for performing a communicative task or speech act depends on such factors as the age, sex, familiarity, and roles of speaker, and hearer, which will determine whether a speaker adopts conversational strategies implying either affiliation or dominance. In the former case, “Got a match!”, may be considered an appropriate way of requesting a match, and in the latter, “I wonder if I could bother you for a match.”29

Language-learning texts have only recently begun to focus on the strategies learners need to perform various types of speech acts appropriately. In these texts the emphasis is not simply on teaching functions and their exponents, but on selecting appropriate exponents in different types of communication situations. Textbooks thus need to give practice in performing particular speech acts with interlocutors of different ages ranks, and social status, and practice in selecting language according to these variables.
2.4.5 The Interactional Aspect of Communication

The use of utterances that take appropriate account of the speaker's and the hearer's roles implies that conversation is often just as much a form of social encounter as it is a way of communicating meanings or ideas. This may be described as the interactional function of conversation.

Goffman has argued that "in any action, each actor provides a field of action for the other actors, and the reciprocity thus established allows the participants to exercise their interpersonal skills in formulating the situation, presenting and enacting a self or identity, and using strategies to accomplish other interactional ends".

Non-native speakers who lack the ability to use small talk and to exploit the intentional aspects of communication may find many encounters awkward and may avoid talk where talk would be appropriate. For example, a foreign couple with a good command of English but lacking the ability to participate in ongoing small talk would be judged as cold, standoffish, and reserved by their American relatives.30
Communication as interaction is thus aimed largely at the need of speaker and is heard to feel valued and approved of. If our conversations – teaching materials primarily emphasize transactional skills, such as how to ask directions, how to order a meal, and so forth, learners may not have the chance to acquire the interactional skills that are also an important component of communicative competence.
REFERENCES


11. Ibid.p.11-17.


