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Introduction

“The future of our Motherland, the tomorrow of our nation, the position and respect of our country on the world stages are connected with how our children will grow up and be harmoniously developed people. We should never forget this fact” I.A.Karimov

Our nation has put very high goals in order to get peaceful life and to build democratic and great state; a lot of things depend on young generation. We should never forget our past, traditions and our great an castors, who devoted their life to build free country. Of course in order to achieve these goals we should take some models of development from other high developed countries. Our nation has been dreaming about such a free and developed country and that’s why a great responsibility lies on us, young generation. Our country has already gained recognition around the world and this fact is very motivating for us. We are future teachers of schools, colleges and institutes. I think, we must not let down our country.

We should intensify our efforts for creating free and democratic country from education and from other fields of human activity. Our teachers, writers and other people differ.

Aster getting the Independence the Republic of Uzbekistan has worked out an own model of development, talking into account the specific social and political traditions in the country. One of the most important conditions for the development of any country is a well-functioning educational system.

By 1997 on the basis of the National Model of development there had been worked out the National Program for Personnel Training which defined concept ional ways and concrete details, mechanisms for radical reforming the educational system and Personnel Training.

The program is the normative scientific basis for reforms. Starting from 1997it is being put into practice stage by stage. The document paves the way for radical reforms in the structure and content of educational system of the National Program. We heed to change some ways of teaching the English language under

school conditions as the old approaches no longer meet the requirement of the last year.

The historical changes took place in Uzbekistan since there hove bun obtained Independence and sovereignty. After September, 1991, in Independent Uzbekistan many political, economical, cultural and social factors have changed. Therefore, the very time of getting Independence the head of the republic I.A.Karimov attended to change educational system and the attempts reflected on changing in educational system in 1997, the educational system and Personnel Training so high developed before Independence no longer meets requirements of democratic and market changes occurred in the Republic today.

It should be noted that the National Program of Personnel Training had some unique features. The reforms are carried out on an extensive scale and are supported scientifically.

As the President I.A.Karimov emphasized in his book[1] "Uzbekistan along the road of Independence and progress" there are four paths of reformation and development which are based on:

- Adherence to universal human values
- Consolidation and development of the nation's spiritual heritage
- Freedom for the individual's realization
- Patriotism

The highest objective of reformation in Uzbekistan is to revive those traditions, fill them with new content and set up all necessary conditions achieving peace and democracy, prosperity, cultural advancement, freedom of conscience and intellectual maturity for every person on earth.

According to the requirement on the National Program of Personnel Training and Reforming of Highest Education on the Republic of Uzbekistan it is important to make effective changes in the system of Higher Education.

[1] I.A.Karimov "Uzbekistan along the road of Independence and progress":Tashkent. 1993. p. 67

As Karimov I.A. highlighted[2] "Our young generation must be quick-cutter, wiser, healthier and, of course, must be happier than us" In order to achieve [3] "Harmoniously developed generation" Educators should use all the suitable aids.

The National Program of Personnel Training corresponds to provisions of the Decree of the Republic of Uzbekistan "On Education", elaborated on the basis of the analysis of national experience proceeding from the world achievements in the system molding of new staff generation with high common and professional culture, creative and social activity, ability to orientate itself independently in socio-political life, capable to put forward and solve perspective tasks.

Obtaining sovereignty by the Republic of Uzbekistan, option of one's own way of economic and social development evoked the necessity for the structure reorganization and maintenance of personnel training. All these have stipulated taking of a number of measures: introduction of the Decree "On Education[3]" (1992); inculcation of now curriculums, programmers, textbooks, elaboration of the contemporary didactic supply; implementation of certification and accreditation of educational establishments; creation of new types of educational establishments.

In this Qualification Paper I have set forth to study the importance of Communicative Language Teaching, what communicative competence is and the other factors which influence on communicative language teaching.

The object of this Qualification Paper can be considered as one that gives the detailed review of the importance of communicative language teaching. It also helps to improve one's understanding of the several models which evolve around communicative language teaching.

If we look at old rules, for teachers which were used in 1915 in America. "You may not loiter Downtown in ice cream stores. You may not rode in a carriage or automobile with any man unless he is your farter or brother. You may not dress in bright colors. You must wear at least two petticoats. You must start the fire at 7

[2] I.A.Karimov "There is no future without history "Tashkent 1997. p. 47

[3] I.A.Karimov" Harmoniously developed generation is a basis of progress of Uzbekistan" Tashkent. 1998.

a.m so the school room will be warm by 8.a.m “We can see that this rule was strange and outdated, it makes us smile.

It we had been a talented new teacher in America in 1915, we most likely would have found these rules to be the mark of a school system with high standards. No doubt the standards set for Students were so high as those set for teachers. Teachers of that time could count on Students to be respectful and diligent in their work. Teachers, for their part, were expected to set a good example.

Since that time a lot of things have keen changed, a lot of methods and approaches have been introduced by scholars from all around world. And nowadays, a lot of attention is paid to Communicative language teaching and it is enjoying wide-spread recognition and research attention.

The practical value of the research is that the materials and the results of the given Qualification Paper can serve as the material for theoretical courses and can be used for practical lessons in practicum, conversational practice and current events.

The aim defines the tasks of Research:

1. Consider the theoretical approaches to the importance of communicative language Teaching.

2. Identify the main problem of the theme in modern teaching programs.

3. Show ways to address the problems identified and to evaluate ways to address them.

The work consists of an introduction, the heads of the main part, the conclusion, the bibliography, and the appendix.

In the introduction, there is a base of urgency of a choice of theme identified the subject, object, the problem is identified and placed hypothesis.

The first chapter deals with general issues on what communicative language teaching is, defining communicative competence and what models evolve around Communicative language teaching.

The second part of the main body deals with practical side of the teaching, gives definitions to the types of learning and teaching activities. The attention is going to be played on the components of communicative curriculum and error analysis in teaching English, because the ways of correcting the learners also have been changed. And I think, teachers shouldn't ignore the point as error analysis in teaching foreign language.

In conclusion I have summed up the results of my investigation on theme of research work: "The importance of Communicative language teaching".

The presented material of this research work will help students on philology young teachers and even for professional teacher to get some new information about teaching English language. The work will help to improve their own style of teaching.

In order to improve the training and provide better knowledge of foreign language we have to accelerate the realization of the National program of Personnel Training in the country. In order to fulfill these goals we must know every field of linguistics.

II. New century–new methods in teaching English language

They say there is no effective and lasting learning if it is not experienced with others, from others and fir others. What is Communicative language teaching? What came before communicative language teaching? How to judge whether activities are communicative? And other questions are looked through in this part of my diploma word.

Communicative language teaching is not one method. It is an approach, and understanding of what language is and how we learn a foreign language. This understanding leads us to teach in ways that make language learning most successful. I will look at some ideas and models that help explain what trey think means to know a language and they think a foreign language is learned today.

As we look back, in the years since World War Two; globalization has required us to communicate with people around the world. Already in the seventies, language scholars began to focus on what helped people learn to communicate bitter in a foreign language. They began to see language as a social process rather than just a linguistic code. In 1980 Canal and Swain helped to describe this wider view of language knowledge by making a model that added MSCOURSE, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence to grammatical competence. Together these competencies, what a capable user knows about and can do with a language.

- Grammatical competence. Knowledge of the vocabulary and sentence structure of a language.
- Discourse competence. The ability to recognize different patterns of discourse (e/g/a newspaper article, a university lecture) to connect sentences to an overall theme or topic: the ability to get meaning from larger texts.
- Strategic competence: The ability to compensate for limited language knowledge, for fatigue, or distraction: the effective use of coping strategies to maintain or improve communication.

- Sociolinguistic competence. The ability to use language appropriate to a context, taking into account the participants, the setting and the purpose of the interaction.

Communicative language teaching and the goal of communicative competence came from this model. When people talk about these "modern methods" they mean communicative language teaching. A Famous linguist Krashen had model about how we learn a language. In 1982 Stephen Krashen explained how he thought we learn foreign languages.

There are five hypothesis in his model.

1. He believes we take in language in two ways: Through acquisition which happens during conversation when we are not paying attention to form, and through learning where we pay conscious attention to form and error.

2. He believes that this learned system acts lire a monitor of now we speak if we have sufficient time, pay attention to form, and know the rules.

3. He believes there is a natural order in which the rules of a language are acquired and if does not relate to what has been taught or how simple the rule is (e.g. third person-s is acquired late, though the rule is lazy to understand)

4. Krashen says that we acquire language only be receiving "Comprehensible input: language that learner's current level of understanding.

5. Finally, he suggests that acquisition can be helped or hurt by what he call san affective filter, an imaginary wall that is "up" and blocks input when the learner is stressed, angry or bored and which is "down" and permits acquisition when the learner is comfortable[4].

Based in part on Krashen.S ideas, communicative language teaching scholars began to describe now language is learned and should be taught. According to Savignon in communicative Competence:

Theory and classroom Practice

1. Language use is creative.

[4] Krashen.S The Input Hypo thesis. London: Longman 1985. p 45

Learners use whatever knowledge they have of a language system to express their meaning in an infinite variety of ways.

2. Language use consists of many abilities in a brood communicative framework. The nature of the particular abilities needed is dependent on the roles of the participants, the situation and the goal of the interaction.

3. Language second learning, lire Language first learning, begins with the needs and interests of the learner.

4. An analysis of leaner needs and interests provides the most effective bases for materials development.

5. The basic unit of practice should always be a text or a chunk of discoure. Production should begin wilt conveyance of meaning. Formal accuracy in the beginning stages should be neither required nor expected.

6. The teacher assumes a variety of roles to permit learner participation in a wide range of communicative situations. Meaning is most in portent in learning language. Dialogs, if used, center around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.

Language is always in context Language learning is learning to communicate[5]. Drilling may occur occasionally, but only as necessary for helping communication. Comprehensible, not native-lire, pronunciation is appropriate. Anything which helps learners is accepted. Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from a very beginning. Judicious use of the mother tongue is accepted where feasible.

Translation may be used only when students need or benefit form it. Reading and writing can start form the beginning if appropriate to learner's goals. The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.

Communicative competence is the desired goal. Materials and methods should show linguistic variation. Sequencing of material is based on maintaining in any way that motivates learners to work with the language.

[5] Brown Teaching by Principles: an Interaetive approach to language pedagogy. Finocchario & Brumfit. p. 79

Trial and error is a normal way to create and learn language Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal. Learners are expected to interact with other people.

The teacher cannot know exactly what the learner wants to say. These above mentioned points build communicative language teaching.

The late 1960 s saw a shift in focus from the audio-lingual method and its prototypes to communicate language teaching.

Table shows some of the differences between Grammar translation, the Audio-lingual Method and communicative Language teaching (see appendix[6]) Form this table we can see that in grammar translation and audio-lingual method the teacher's role was centered, whereas in communicative language teaching the teacher facilitates student-to-student interaction. Balance of language skills in grammar translation was that reading and writing emphasized, in audio-lingual method listening and speaking emphasized, but in communicative language teaching skills taught according to learners' needs. Here we see the benefits of communicative language teaching that all skills are equally used. Grammar rules, use of translation are used and explained when necessary, sequencing of Lesson is followed learner's needs, while in previous method is followed linguistic complexity. As it seen from this table in communicative language teaching there is no strict norms and limitations, the teacher mostly follows learners needs. This shift evolved partly as a result of studies carried at by the council of Europe, which began to identify the language needed in a variety of social situations by someone immigrating to common market countries. The studies sought to evaluate how language itself is used-haw native speakers of a language express themselves in various situations. The studies had a major impact on the teaching of English as a foreign language. Teachers and curriculum designers began to look at content, at to kind of language needed when greeting as shopping. The emphasis on form, on explicitly learning grammar rules as practicing grammatical patterns, was

[6] J.C.Rochards Approaches and Methods in language teaching. Cambridge Unversity Press 1986 p 26-27

downplayed in favor of an approach designed to meet learners' needs when using the language in daily interaction.

There is no single text or authority on communicative language teaching.

It is referred to as an approach that aims to make communication the goal of language teaching. Several models have evolved around this principle. The communicative approach, total physical response, natural approach and Competency-based approach overlap. Communicative activities particularly are impossible to pin down to only one approach.

The origins of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) are to be found in the changes in the British language teaching tradition dating from the late 1960s. Until then, Situational Language represented the major British approach to teaching English as a foreign language. In Situational Language Teaching, language was taught by practicing basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities. British applied linguists emphasized another fundamental dimension of language that was inadequately addressed in current approaches to language teaching at that time - the functional and communicative potential of language. They saw the need to focus in language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of structures.

Another impetus for different approaches to foreign language teaching came from changing educational realities in Europe. With the increasing interdependence of European countries came the need for greater efforts to teach adults the major languages of the European Common Market and the Council of Europe, a regional organization for cultural and educational cooperation. Education was one of the Council of Europe's major areas of activity. It sponsored international conferences on language teaching, published monographs and books about language teaching. The need to articulate and develop alternative methods of language teaching was considered a high priority.

In 1971 a group of experts began to investigate the possibility of developing language courses on a unit-credit system, a system in which learning tasks are

broken-down into "portions or units, each of which corresponds to a component of a learner's needs and is systematically related to all the other portions"

The group used studies of the needs of European language learners, and in particular a preliminary document prepared by a British linguist, D. A. Wilkins which proposed a functional or communicative definition of language that could serve as a basis for developing communicative syllabuses for language teaching. Wilkins's contribution was an analysis of the communicative meanings that a language learner needs to understand and express.

Rather than describe the core of language through traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary, Wilkins attempted to demonstrate the systems of meanings that lay behind the communicative uses of language[7].

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. (The terms notional-functional approach and functional approach are also sometimes used.) Although the movement began as a largely British innovation, focusing on alternative conceptions of a syllabus, since the mid-1970s the scope of Communicative Language Teaching has expanded. Both American and British proponents now see it as an approach (and not a method) that aims to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication.

Howatt distinguishes between a "strong" and a "weak" version of Communicative Language Teaching:

[7] WilKins H. Teaching Language as Communication Oxford University Press 1978

There is, in a sense, a 'strong' version of the communicative approach and a 'weak' version. The weak version which has become more or less standard practice in the last ten years, stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and

Characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching....

The 'strong' version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself.

If the former could be described as 'learning to use' English, the latter entails 'using English to learn it.' (1984: 279)

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) contrast the major distinctive features of the Audio-lingual Method and the Communicative Approach, according to their interpretation.

Approach

Theory of language

The communicative approach in language teaching starts from a theory of language as communication. The goal of language teaching is to develop what Hymes referred to as "communicative competence"[8]. Hymes coined this term in order to contrast a communicative view of language and Chomsky's theory of competence. Chomsky held that linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitation, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance[9].

[8] Hymes D On communicative competence In Pride and tildes 1972.

[9] Chomsky N. Linguistic theory. In Mead 1966

For Chomsky, the focus of linguistic theory was to characterize the abstract abilities speakers possess that enable them to produce grammatically correct sentences in a language. Hymes held that such a view of linguistic theory was sterile, that linguistic theory needed to be seen as part of a more general theory incorporating communication and culture. Hymes's theory of communicative competence was a definition of what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community.

In Hymes's view, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;

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

Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;

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

This theory of what knowing a language entails offers a much more comprehensive view than Chomsky's view of competence, which deals primarily with abstract grammatical knowledge.

Another linguistic theory of communication favored in CLT is Holliday's functional account of language use. "Linguistics ... is concerned... with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus" In a number of influential books and papers, Holliday has elaborated a powerful theory of the functions of language, which complements Hymes's view of communicative competence for many writers on CLT (e.g., Brumfit and Johnson

1979; Savignon 1983). He described seven basic functions that language performs for children learning their first language[10]:

1.The instrumental function: using language to get things;

2.The regulatory function: using language to control the behavior of others;

3.The interact ional 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 to discover;

6.The imaginative function: using language to create a world of the imagination;

7.The representational function: using language to communicate information

Learning a second language was similarly viewed by proponents of Communicative Language Teaching as acquiring the linguistic means to perform different kinds of functions.

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 follow.

Language is a system for the expression of meaning.

The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.

The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.

The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

Theory of learning

In contrast to the amount that has been written in Communicative Language Teaching literature about communicative dimensions of language, little has been written about learning theory. Neither Brumfit and Johnson (1979) nor Littlewood (1981), for example, offers any discussion of learning theory. Elements of an

[10] Savignon S Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom practice Addison-Wesley Publishing Company 1983

underlying learning theory can be discerned in some CLT practices, however. One such element might be described as the communication principle: Activities that involve real communication promote learning. A second element is the task principle: Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning A third element is the meaningfulness principle: Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process. Learning activities are consequently selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use (rather than merely mechanical practice of language patterns). These principles, we suggest, can be inferred from CLT practices (e.g., little-wood 1981; Johnson 1982). They address the conditions needed to promote second language learning, rather than the processes of language acquisition.

More recent accounts of Communicative Language Teaching, however, have attempted to describe theories of language learning processes that are compatible with the communicative approach.

Savignon (1983) surveys second language acquisition research as a source for learning theories and considers the role of linguistic, social, cognitive, and individual variables in language acquisition. Other theorists (e.g., Stephen Krashen, who is not directly associated with Communicative Language Teaching) have developed theories cited as compatible with the principles of CLT. Krashen sees acquisition as the basic process involved in developing language proficiency and distinguishes this process from learning. Acquisition refers to the unconscious development of the target language system as a result of using the language for real communication. Learning is the conscious representation of grammatical knowledge that has resulted from instruction, and it cannot lead to acquisition. It is the acquired system that we call upon to create utterances during spontaneous language use. The learned system can serve only as a monitor of the output of the acquired system. Krashen and other second language acquisition theorists typically stress that language learning comes about through using language communicatively, rather than through practicing language skills.

Johnson and Littlewood consider an alternative learning theory that they also see as compatible with CLT-a skill-learning model of learning. According to this theory, the acquisition of communicative competence in a language is an example of skill development. This involves both a cognitive and a behavioral aspect:

The cognitive aspect involves 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. (Littlewood 1984: 74)

This theory thus encourages an emphasis on practice as a way of developing communicative skills.

Design

Objectives

Piepho discusses the following levels of objectives in a communicative approach:

1. an integrative and content level (language as a means of expression)
2. a linguistic and instrumental level (language as a semiotic system and an object of learning);
3. an affective level of interpersonal relationships and conduct (language as a means of expressing values and judgments about oneself and others);
4. a level of individual learning needs (remedial learning based on error analysis);
5. a general educational level of extra-linguistic goals (language learning within the school curriculum).

These are proposed as general objectives, applicable to any teaching situation. Particular objectives for CLT cannot be defined beyond this level of specification, since such an approach assumes that language teaching will reflect the particular needs of the target learners. These needs may be in the domains of reading, writing, listening, or speaking, each of which can be approached from a

communicative perspective. Curriculum or instructional objectives for a particular course would reflect specific aspects of communicative competence according to the learner's proficiency level and communicative needs.

	Grammar Translation	Audiolinguial Method	Communicative Language Teaching
Grammar rules	Central feature	Not explained	Explained when necessary
Meaningful communication	Not important	Limited	Central feature
Pronunciation	Not considered	Target - native-like pronunciation	Target = comprehensible pronunciation
Use of translation	Central feature	Forbidden	Used when necessary
Sequencing of lessons	Follows linguistic complexity	Follows linguistic complexity	Follows learners' needs
Teacher-student roles	Teacher-centered	Teacher-centered	Teacher facilitates student-to-student interaction
Attitude to errors	Accuracy emphasized	Accuracy emphasized	Errors part of learning process
Balance of language skills	Reading and writing emphasized	Listening and speaking emphasized	Skills taught according to learners' needs

§ 2. Defining Communicative Competence

The term "communicative competence" was coined by Dell Hymes (1967, 1972), a sociolinguist who was convinced that Chomsky's (1965) notion of competence was too limited. Chomsky's "rule-governed creativity" that so aptly describes a child's mushrooming grammar at the age of 3 or 4 did not, according to Hymes, account sufficiently for the social and functional rules of language. Communicative competence, then, is that aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within

specific contexts. Savignon (1983:9) notes that "communicative competence is relative, not absolute, and depends on the cooperation of all the participants involved." It is not so much an intrapersonal construct as we saw in Chomsky's early writings, but Hither, a dynamic, interpersonal construct that can only be examined by means of the overt performance of two or more individuals in the process of negotiating meaning.

In the 1970s, research on communicative competence distinguished between linguistic and communicative competence to highlight the difference between knowledge "about" language rules and forms and knowledge that enables a person to communicate functionally and interactively. In a similar vein, James Cummins proposed a distinction between cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) and basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS)[11] CALP is that dimension of proficiency in which the learner manipulates or reflects upon the surface features of language outside of the immediate interpersonal context. It is what learners often use in classroom exercises and tests which focus on form. BICS, on the other hand, is the communicative capacity that all children acquire in order to be able to function in daily interpersonal exchanges. Cummins later modified his notion of CALP and BICS in the form of context-reduced and context-embedded communication, where the former resembles CALP and the latter BICS, but with the added dimension of considering the context in which language is used.

A good share of classroom, school-oriented language is context-reduced, while face-to-face communication with people is context-embedded.

By referring to the context of our use of language, then, the distinction becomes more feasible to operationalize.

Seminal work on defining communicative competence was carried out by Michael Canale and Merrill Swain now the reference point for virtually all discussions of communicative competence vis-à-vis second language teaching. In Canal and Swain's and later in Canale's definition, four different components, or

11 Cummins L. The cross-lingual dimensions of language proficiency: Implications for bilingual education and the optimal age issue. TESOL Quartley 1980 p 175

subcategories, make up the construct of communicative competence[12]. The first two subcategories reflect the use of the linguistic system itself. Grammatical competence is that aspect of communicative competence that encompasses "knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology". It is the competence that we associate with mastering the linguistic code of a language, the "linguistic" competence of Hymes and Paulston, referred to above. The second subcategory is discourse competence, the complement of grammatical competence in many ways. It is the ability we have to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances.

Discourse means everything from simple spoken conversation to lengthy written texts (articles, books, and the like). While grammatical competence focuses on sentence-level grammar, discourse competence is concerned with intersentential relationships.

The last two subcategories define the more functional aspects of communicate. Sociolinguistic competence is the knowledge of the sociocultural rules language and of discourse. This type of competence "requires an understanding old the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction. Only in a full context of I hi; kind can judgments be made on the appropriateness of a particular utterance" The fourth subcategory is strategic competence, a construe! That is exceedingly complex.

Canale and Swain described strategic competence as "the verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or due to insufficient competence. "Savignon paraphrases this as "the strategies that one uses to compensate for imperfect knowledge of ruleso limiting factors in their application such as fatigue, distraction, and inattention." hi short, it is the competence underlying our ability to make repairs, to cope with imperfect

12 Canale M. Considerations in the testing or reading 1984 and listing proficiency. Foreign Language Annals 349

knowledge, and to sustain communication through "paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, and guessing, as well as shifts in register and style"

Strategic competence occupies a special place in an understanding of communication. Actually, definitions of strategic competence that is limited to the notion of "competence strategies" fall short of encompassing the full spectrum of the construct. All communication strategies-such as those discussed in Chapter Nine-arise out of a person's strategic competence. In fact, strategic competence is the way we manipulate language in order to meet communicative goals. An eloquent speaker possesses and uses a sophisticated strategic competence. A salesman utilizes certain strategies of communication to make a product seem irresistible. A friend persuades you to do something extraordinary because he or she has mustered communicative strategies for the occasion.

Strategic competence is so pervading a concept that Bachman reorganized Canale and Swain's definition of communicative competence to include strategic competence as a completely separate element of "communicative language proficiency". In Bachman's model, organizational competence corresponds to Canale and Swain's grammatical and discourse ("textual") competence, but the latter's sociolinguistic competence now is seen to have wider connotations as a major element of pragmatic competence (shared with illocutionary—or more simply put, functional-competence). Strategic competence, according to Bachman, is a set of general abilities that utilize all of the elements of language competence-and of psychomotor skills as well-in the process of negotiating meaning. It would appear that the importance of strategic competence would lead to researchers' adoption, in the near future, of Bachman's model as more descriptively adequate than Canale and Swain's. Time will tell"[13].

An extended definition, or theory, of communicative competence has important implications for understanding a communicative approach to language

[13] Bachman I. Fundamental Consideration in Language Testing. Reading. MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company. 1987

teaching, as we shall see later in this chapter. Meanwhile we turn now to a closer look than we have taken before of the concept of language functions.

In the last chapter we considered the significance of the acquisition of linguistic forms of language and the analysis of those forms in the interlanguage of second language learners. The culmination of language learning, however, is not simply in the mastery of the forms of language, but the mastery of forms in order to accomplish the communicative functions of language. Mastery of vocabulary and structures results in nothing if the learner cannot use those forms for the purpose of transmitting and receiving thoughts, ideas, and feelings between speaker and hearer, or writer and reader. While forms are the manifestation of language, functions are the realization of those forms. The pragmatic purpose of language-the use of signs and symbols for communication—is thus the final and ultimate objective of the second language learner.

Forms of language generally serve specific functions. "How much does that cost?" is usually a form functioning as a question, and "He bought a car" functions as a statement. But linguistic forms are not always unambiguous in their function.

"I can't find my umbrella," uttered by a frustrated adult who is late for work on a rainy day may be a frantic request for all in the household to join in a search. A child who says "I want some ice cream" is rarely stating a simple fact or observtion but requesting ice cream in her own intimate register. A sign on the street that says "one way" functions to guide traffic in only one direction. A sign in a church parking lot in a busy downtown area was subtle in form but direct in function:

"We forgive those who trespass against us, but we also tow them"; that sign functioned effectively to prevent unauthorized cars from parking in the lot.

Communication may be regarded as a combination of acts, a series of elements with purpose and intent.

Communication is not merely an event, something that happens; it is functional, purposive, and designed to bring about some effect-some change, however subtle or unobservable—on the environment of hearers and speakers.

Communication is a series of communicative acts or speech acts, to use John Austin's term, which are used systematically to accomplish particular purposes. Austin stressed the importance of consequences, the "illocutionary force," of linguistic communication. Researchers have since been led to examine communication in terms of the effect that utterances achieve. That effect has implications for both the production and comprehension of an utterance; both modes of performance serve to bring the communicative act to its ultimate purpose. Second language learners need to understand the purpose of communication, developing an awareness of what the purpose of a communicative act is and how to achieve that purpose through linguistic forms.

The functional approach to describing language is one that has its roots in the traditions of British linguist J.R. Firth who viewed language as interactive and interpersonal, "a way of behaving and making others behave" Since then the term function has been variously interpreted. Michael Halliday who provided one of the best expositions of language functions, used the term to mean the purposive nature of communication, and outlined seven different functions of language[14]:

1. The instrumental function serves to manipulate the environment, to cause certain events to happen. Sentences like "This court finds you guilty," "On your mark, get set, go!" or "Don't touch the stove" have an instrumental function; they are communicative acts which bring about a particular condition.

2. The regulatory function of language is the control of events. While such control is sometimes difficult to distinguish from the instrumental function, regulatory functions of language are not so much the "unleashing" of certain power, as the maintenance of control. "I pronounce you guilty and sentence you to three years in prison" serves an instrumental function, but the sentence

"Upon good behavior, you will be eligible for parole in ten months" serves - more of a regulatory function.

The regulation of encounters among people-approval, disapproval, behavior control, setting laws and rules, are all regulatory features of language.

[14] Halliday M Exploration in the Functions of Language. London: Edward Arnold. 1973

3. The representational function is the use of language to make statements, convey facts and knowledge, explain, or report-that is, to "represent" reality as one sees it. "The sun is hot," "The president gave a speech last night," or even "The world is flat" all serve representational functions though the last representation may be highly disputed.

4. The interact ional function of language serves to ensure social maintenance. "Phatic communion," Malinowski's term referring to the communicative contact between and among human beings that simply allows them to establish social contact and to keep channels of communication open, is part of the interact ional function of language. Successful interact ional communication requires knowledge of slang, jargon, jokes, folklore, cultural mores, politeness and formality expectations, and other keys to social exchange.

5. The personal function allows a speaker to express feelings, emotions, personality, "gut-level" reactions. A person's individuality is usually characterized by his or her use of the personal function of communication. In the personal nature of language, cognition, affect, and culture all interact in ways that have not yet been explored.

6. The heuristic function involves language used to acquire knowledge, to learn about the environment. Heuristic functions are often conveyed in the form of questions that will lead to answers. Children typically make good use of the heuristic function in their incessant "why" questions about the world around them. Inquiry is a heuristic method of eliciting representations of reality from others.

7. The imaginative function serves to create imaginary systems or ideas. Telling fairy tales, joking, or writing a novel is all uses of the imaginative function. Using language for the sheer pleasure of using language-as in poetry, tongue twisters, and puns-are also instances of imaginative functions. Through the imaginative dimensions of language we are free to go beyond the real world to soar the heights of the beauty of language itself, and through that language to create impossible dreams if we so desire.

These seven different functions of language are neither discrete nor mutually exclusive. A single sentence or conversation might incorporate many different functions simultaneously. Yet it is the understanding of how to use linguistic forms to achieve these functions of language that comprises the crux of second language learning. A learner might acquire correct word order, syntax, and lexical items but not understand how to achieve a desired and intended function through careful selection of words, structure, intonation, nonverbal signals, and astute perception of the context of a particular stretch of discourse,

Halliday's seven functions of language tend to mask the almost infinite variety and complexity of functions that we accomplish through language. Van E k and Alexander's taxonomy lists almost 70 different functions to be taught in English curricula. Some of these functions are listed below:

1. Greeting, parting, inviting, accepting
2. Complimenting, congratulating, flattering, seducing, charming, bragging
3. Interrupting
4. Requesting
5. Evading, lying, shifting blame, changing the subject
6. Criticizing, reprimanding, ridiculing, insulting, threatening, warning
7. Complaining
8. Accusing, denying
9. Agreeing, disagreeing, arguing
10. Persuading, insisting, suggesting, reminding, asserting, advising
11. Reporting, evaluating. Commenting
12. Commanding, ordering, demanding
13. Questioning, probing
14. Sympathizing
15. Apologizing, making excuses

All of these fall into one or more of Holliday's seven functions, and all of them are common everyday acts whose performance requires a knowledge of language. Subtle differences between functions must be learned. The appropriate

contexts of various speech acts must be discerned. The forms of language used to accomplish the functions must become part of the total linguistic repertoire of the second language learner.

If learners are attempting to acquire written as well as spoken competence in the language, they must also discern differences in forms and functions between spoken and written discourse. Such differences are both significant and salient. However, we are centering, .in this chapter, particularly in the next section, on spoken discourse for several reasons. First, it is the most common goal of foreign language classes. Second, the teaching of writing-beyond perfunctory levels of written discourse-is a highly technical task that varies greatly depending upon the goal of written discourse and upon the particular language that is in question, The study of written, discourse, or stylistics. is best undertaken with a specific language in focus. Third, many of the general principles of discourse analysis apply, as we have already seen, to both spoken and written modes of performance.

§ 3 Several models evolve around communicative language teaching

In this part I'll look through the common models which evolve around Communicative Language teaching. Communicative Approach is the first one

The emphasis is placed on using the target language to accomplish a function such as complaining, advising, or asking for information. Attention is also paid to the social context in which this function takes place. For instance, different language will be used when complaining to a teacher than when complaining to a close friend.

Distinguishing Features

All four language skills are taught from the beginning. In speaking skills the aim is to be understood, not to speak like a native. In the sequencing of lessons, priority is given to learner interests and needs. This is in contrast to a grammar driven method which may start with verb tenses, and work through from the present simple to the conditionals. In the Communicative Approach, if a learner needs to know how to give advice ("If I were you, I would . . . .") then this conditional is taught. Interaction between speakers and listeners or readers and

writers is at the root of all activities. Chapters Three and Four give many examples of the kind of activities to be found in a classroom following the Communicative Approach. Learners usually work in pairs or groups for role play, information sharing, or problem solving.

Exercises using authentic materials are a hallmark of the Communicative Approach. Authentic materials, such as newspapers or recordings from the radio, are selected so that learners can practice language in real situations where possible.

Here are some announcements taken from the classified section of an American newspaper.

Garage Sales

Sat. 9-2, rain/shine. Collectibles/ sofa/mower/bikes/household items. Great for students. 6838 Floyd Ave.

Firewood, Coal & Fuel

Seasoned hardwood 1 year old. 16-20" length. Delivered and dumped in driveway. 1 cord $125; 2 cords $225; 3 cords $325. 777-9576.

Child Care/Nurseries

Licensed day care provider has immed. opening ages 1 mo to 10 yrs. Snacks, lunch incl. Academically oriented. 221-0094, 7-10am.

These ads can be used as a basis for communicative activities at all levels. For example, at the beginners' level a question and answer exercise could be on numbers. What time is the garage sale? How much does a cord of wood cost? Would a two-year old be accepted by the day care provider? At a higher level, the students could guess the meanings of words from the context ("shine," "dumped,"

"driveway," "cord," "snacks"). Or the advertisements could be used as a springboard for discussion on topics such as child care, natural resources, and student accommodation.

Impact on Your Classroom and Your Teaching

The Communicative Approach will challenge your creativity to set up situations in which your students can demonstrate their competency in the four language skills. Group work is basic to this demonstration. But you may face difficulties in the logistics of organizing your groups. Lack of space, or complaints from other teachers about the noisy moving of desks, might feature in your first few weeks of asking your class to divide into groups. You will have to consider all of your options. Can you work outside? Is it possible to use the library for your lessons? Can you set up a reward system to encourage your students to move quickly and quietly into their groups?

You may also encounter resistance to group work from your students. Some of the better students may resent having to "share" their skills and grades. Some of the less motivated students may take the opportunity to do even less work. Your grading policy for group work will have to be spelled out and you will need to monitor that everyone is contributing to the group effort. You should also leave the time and the opportunity to earn grades
for individual work.

SUGGEST A SOLUTION TO THE PROBLEM

A man needs to cross a winding river. He finds two planks of about the same length, but neither of them is long enough to stretch across the river.

Suggest a solution to the problem. Express the solution in one of these ways:a. in words only
b. in the form of a drawing

c. in the form of a step-by-step chart

Total Physical Response (TPR) and the Natural Approach

TPR is a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action. It attempts to teach language through physical activity. The Natural Approach shares with TPR an emphasis on exposing the learner to hearing and understanding the language before requiring the learner to speak.

Distinguishing Features

Language skills are taught in the natural order of acquisition: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Both the Natural Approach and TPR focus on the importance of listening comprehension as the basis for language acquisition. Both approaches believe that language is acquired, not learned. In other words, learners acquire a language through an unconscious process which involves using the language for meaningful communication. Learning, on the other hand, involves a conscious process which results in knowledge about the rules of a language, but not necessarily in an ability to use the language. The learner's mother tongue is seldom used. Meaning is made clear by mime, drawing, etc. Great attention is paid

to reducing learner anxiety. The Natural Approach stresses that self-confident learners with high motivation are successful learners and those teachers should create a learning environment which promotes self-confidence[15].

For an example of a intermediate level action sequence, look below at giving instructions in how to design boxes.

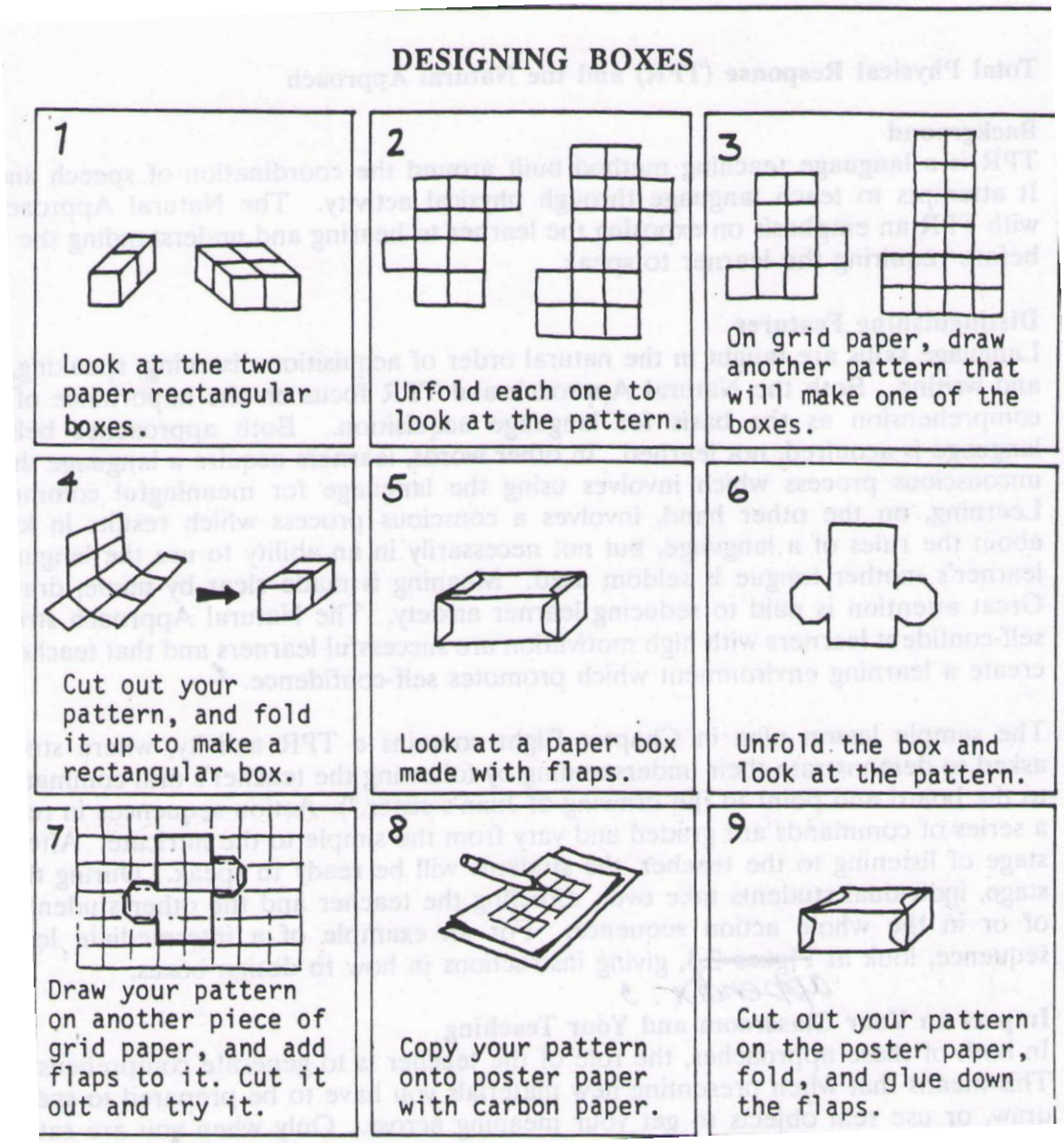
In both of these approaches, the role of the teacher is to generate comprehensible input. This means that when presenting new materials you have to be prepared to speak, mime, draw, or use real objects to get your meaning across. Only when you are satisfied that your students understand and are ready to speak do you ask them to do so. Again, the lesson in Chapter Eight contains a Presentation segment where the teacher talks about his/her family before asking the students to talk about their families.

In many instances your students will be curious about life in the United States, and this comprehensible input stage provides a way of satisfying that curiosity and a way for you to build a good personal relationship with your class.

These approaches can be useful and fun, especially when you are working with beginners, or with students at a technical or vocational center who only take one hour of English a week, or with students whose greatest need is for listening comprehension. It is also useful when you lack adequate textbooks.

Very few institutions offer courses which use only TPR or the Natural Approach, but many teachers have commented that comprehension-based activities reduce learning stress.

15 Larsen-Freeman Diane Techniques and principles in language teaching. Oxford dniversixy press 1986. p 30



Competency-Based Approach

The Competency-Based Approach focuses on acquiring life coping skills while developing the language to perform these skills. This approach is based on theories of adult learning which state that for effective learning to take place, adults need to know that what they are studying will improve their lives. The approach has been developed and applied in the United States to help immigrants and refugees learn English and life skills at the same time. It is also used in vocational training.

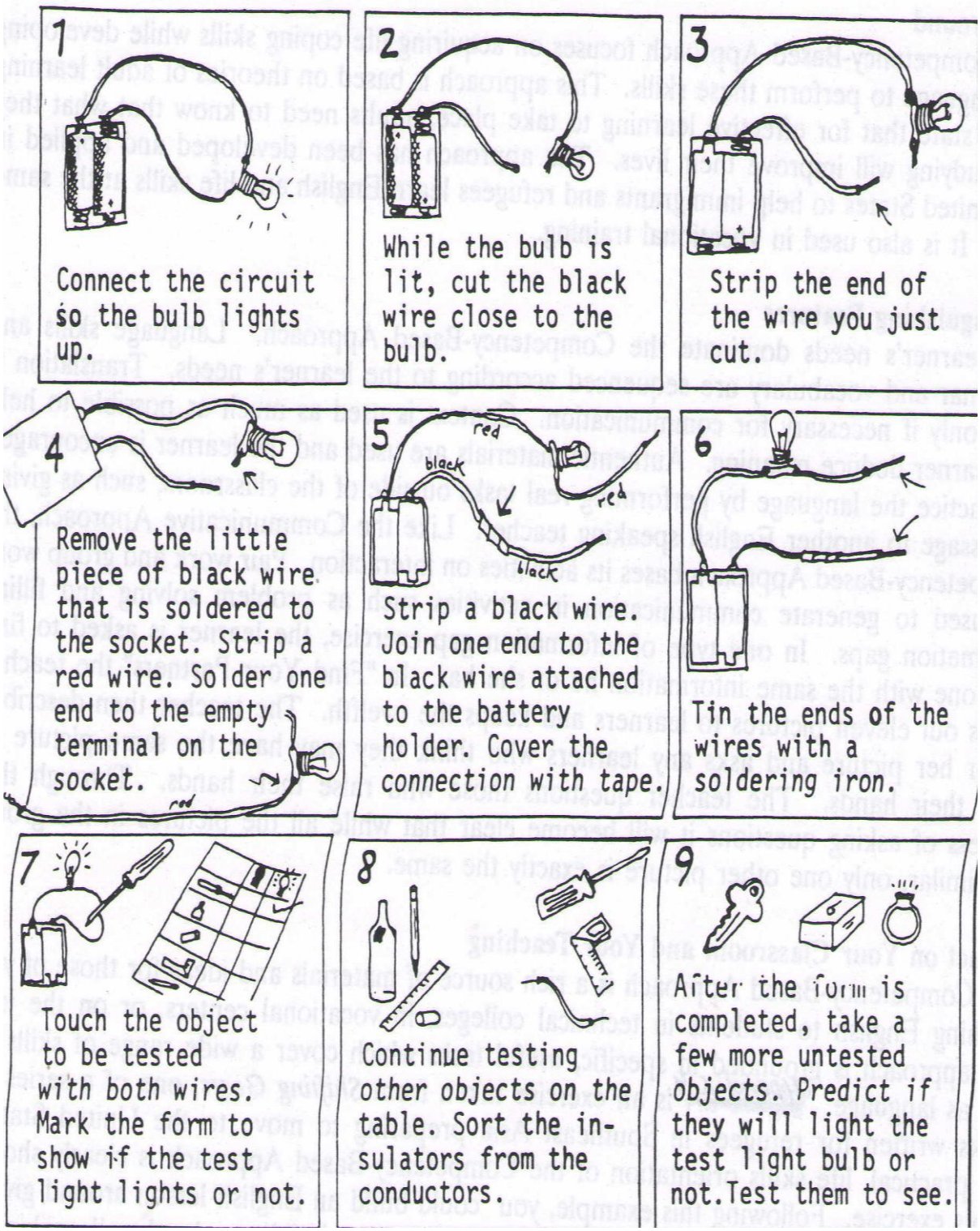
Distinguishing Features

The learner's needs dominate the Competency-Based Approach. Language skills and grammar and vocabulary are sequenced according to the learner's needs. Translation is used only if necessary for communication. Context is used as much as possible to help the learner deduce meaning. Authentic materials are used and the learner is encouraged to practice the language by performing real tasks outside of the classroom, such as giving a message to another English speaking teacher. Like the Communicative Approach, the Competency-Based Approach bases its activities on interaction. Pair work and group work are used to generate communication in activities such as problem solving and filling information gaps. In one type of information gap exercise, the learner is asked to find someone with the same information he or she has. In "Find Your Partners" the teacher hands out eleven pictures to learners and keeps the twelfth. The teacher then describes his or her picture and asks any learners who think they may have the same picture to raise their hands. The teacher questions those who raise their hands. Through this process of asking questions it will become clear that while all the pictures in the group are similar, only one other picture is exactly the same.

The Competency-Based Approach is a rich source of materials and ideas for those of you teaching English to students in technical colleges, in vocational centers, or on the job. The approach is grounded in specific, useful tasks which cover a wide range of skills as well as language. Appendix 4 an exercise taken from *Shifting Gears,* one of a series of books written for refugees in Southeast Asia preparing to move to the United States. The practical, life skills orientation of the Competency-Based Approach is clearly shown in this exercise. Following this example, you could build an English lesson around giving instructions for your students to follow on changing a tire, building a level wall, making a chair, or making a flashlight. To conduct these lessons you might need to coordinate your choice of topic with the teachers giving courses in woodwork, construction, or auto maintenance. You may need to prepare yourself, checking with colleagues that your technical instructions are in line with those taught in other

classes. You will also need to organize the tools and materials your students will need for the class.

A TEST LIGHT



INNOVATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

These innovative approaches have been included because in pre-.service or in-service language training you may have been taught by language trainers using the Silent Way, Community Language Learning, or Suggestopedia, and you may have asked yourself which elements of these approaches could be used in your classes.

Using these approaches leads to the following conclusions:

- No one method is sufficient on its own. Different learning styles have to be taken into account.
- Consideration should be shown for how learners feel about themselves as language learners. Negative feelings about the learning process can block learning. Enhancing a learner's self-confidence leads to successful learning.
- Working together as a group is a vital part of language learning. Group members support each other, and the interaction between them provides a real need for communication and an opportunity to practice the target language.

These are valuable guidelines which you can easily follow in your English language classrooms.

The Silent Way

In the Silent Way learners are actively responsible for their own learning. Learning a language is seen not as a process of habit formation, as is advocated by the Audiolingual Method, but rather a process whereby the learner discovers the rules of the target language and then applies those rules to understand and use the language. In other words, learning is more effective if learners discover the rules for themselves, rather than just remembering and repeating what is to be learned. A basic premise of the Silent Way is that the teacher should talk as little as possible and should encourage the learner to speak as much as possible. Mistakes are considered part of the process of discovering the rules, and the teacher should not interfere in this process by correcting the learner's mistakes.

Distinguishing Features

All four language skills are taught from the beginning, though reading and writing are sequenced to follow what has been produced orally. Special charts are used to teach pronunciation. First, there is a sound-color chart, containing blocks of color, each one representing a sound in the target language. The teacher and students point to blocks of color on the chart to form syllables, words and sentences. Second, there are the word charts, containing words whose letters are color coded in the same way as the sound-color chart. The teacher and students make up sentences, point to words on the chart and read the sentences they have spoken. Third, there are color coded charts which help students associate the sounds of the language with their spelling. For example, "ay," "ea," "ea" and "ei," which are all different spellings of the sound /ey/ in English, are listed and color coded together.

Cuisenaire rods (bits of wood of varying lengths and differing colors) are used to introduce vocabulary and structures. At the beginning level they can be used to teach numbers and colors, (Take two red rods."). At an intermediate level they can be used to teach comparatives ("The blue rod is bigger than the red one."). And at a later stages they can be used to teach conditionals ("If I had a blue one, I would give it to you.").

The Silent Way is designed to be used with small groups. Its charts are specially prepared by an organization in New York. Teachers using the method usually undergo intensive training in its techniques and philosophy. Given these acts, what can you take from this method to use when teaching classes of forty students? There are some sound pedagogical principles to consider in this method, principles which you can apply in your teaching. First is the idea that hat students discover for themselves is retained and owned in a more permanent and meaningful way than are materials which have been packaged and only require students to memorize them. Second is the idea of peer coaching in a noncompetitive environment. Having presented the materials, you stand back d et your students experiment with the rules and generate talk in English. Your only

role during this group work is to make sure that the group atmosphere is pen to the contributions of all its members.

Community Language Learning (CLL)

In Community Language Learning, the aim is to involve the learner's whole personality. Affective and intellectual well-being are given equal weight. CLL draws its insights and rationale from counseling techniques. The teacher is the counselor who gives assistance and support to the learners, who are the clients. The teacher's role is to understand the learners' fears and vulnerabilities as they struggle to master another language. By being sensitive to the learners' fears, the teacher can turn the negative energy of those fears into positive energy and enthusiasm for learning. The relationships between the teacher and learner and between the learners themselves, therefore, take on great importance.

Distinguishing Features

The focus is initially on listening and speaking. Grammar rules are explained and translations are used when necessary to give learners a sense of security and control over the situation. The syllabus and materials are designed mostly by the learners. A typical CLL class goes as follows: The learners form a small circle. A learner whispers, in his or her native language, what he or she wants to say to the teacher. The teacher translates, and the learner repeats the teacher's translation. The learner's repetition is recorded on a tape recorder. This process is repeated with other learners in the group, until an entire group discussion, in the target language, has been recorded. This conversation is then transcribed and the teacher and learners discuss the transcription. Here, for instance, the teacher will point out that in French the adjective comes after the noun, and takes a singular or plural form. The group members then talk about how they have felt about their lesson.

Like the Silent Way, CLL is a method which works best in small groups and which requires special training for its teachers. But, also like the Silent Way, this method contains useful principles which you can easily implement in your lessons. First, CLL advocates that the teacher should acknowledge the stress and fears which can be found in a language learning classroom. You can lower the stress in

your lessons by making your expectations and goals clear, by coaching your students in examination strategies and by providing lively activities which make learning fun. Second, CLL encourages learners to produce their own materials. By helping your students to write short stories which are then published in the school magazine, organizing them to write and act plays or skits, and developing project work, you will accomplish two goals: you will give your students a sense of ownership and pride and you will sidestep the problem of trying to teach with few or inadequate textbooks.

Suggestopedia

The founder of Suggestopedia, Georgi Lozanov, believes that language learning can be made more efficient if the psychological barriers to learning are lowered. He believes that learners raise these barriers and limit themselves because of a fear of failure. In order to make better use of learners' capabilities, Lozanov has developed a process of "desuggestion," which he has applied to language learning. This process is designed to promote a relaxed frame of mind and to convert learners' fears into positive energy and enthusiasm for language learning.

In Suggestopedia, great attention is paid to the environment. The seating is as comfortable as possible, the lighting is not harsh, and music plays in the background. Colorful posters and charts are pinned to the wall. The posters show attractive sights in the target language country. The charts contain grammatical information which, in casual readings, the students will absorb without conscious effort. The Suggestopedia teacher's tone is always calm as students are reassured that language learning is easy and fun. At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher briefly presents the vocabulary and grammar. The text for the day is given to the students; in the left column the text is in the target language; in the right column it is in the students' mother tongue. The teacher reads the text, while music plays in the background. The students relax, close their eyes and listen. For homework, the students are asked to read the text just before going to bed and on getting up in the morning. The teacher leads the class in role play, question and answer, and other activities based on the text. During these activities, students are invited to use their

imaginations and to take on new names and new personalities in the target language. They are encouraged to visualize themselves as successful people in their new identities, with exciting jobs and a good standing in the community[16].

One of the main principles of Suggestopedia is that the learners' environment has a powerful impact on their learning. This principle raises interesting questions for you. When you first visited your school you might have been very conscious that the bareness of classroom walls contrasted strongly with your memories of American schools, where typically the walls are filled with pictures, collages, and examples of students' work.

But maybe by now you are used to the bareness of the walls. The next time you walk into your school, try to look at it with new eyes. Are you passing up the chance to visually stimulate your students? Can you get posters of the United States from the USIS office? Could your family send you pictures of someone like Bruce Springsteen or Michael Jackson? Do you have artists in your classes who could illustrate the writings of their classmates? And could you make charts encapsulating the grammar points you have recently presented?

If you are working in a culture where people normally sit on the floor at home, consider bringing in mats to your next story telling class and asking your class to settle them comfortably on the floor to listen. You may also want to bring your tape recorder to the class and to play music in the background. These features of Suggestopedia are easy to imitate, and by introducing them into your classroom you will add enjoyment and novelty to your lessons.

16 Richards Jach and Rodgers Teodore. "Approaches and methods in Language teaching: Oxford University Press 1986 p 10

III. Language teaching as a practical rather than a theoretical activity.

§1 Types of learning and teaching activities

In this part I would lire to discuss the types of learning and teaching activities. First of all what the syllabus is Discussions of the nature of the syllabus have been central in Communicative Language Teaching. We have seen that one of the first syllabus models to be proposed was described as a notional syllabus (Wilkins 1976), which specified the semantic-grammatical categories (e.g., frequency, motion, location) and the categories of communicative function that learners need to express. The Council of Europe expanded and developed this into a syllabus that included descriptions of the objectives of foreign language courses for European adults, the situations in which they might typically need to use a foreign language (e.g., travel, business), the topics they might need to talk about (e.g., personal identification, education, shopping), the functions they needed language for (e.g., describing something, requesting information, expressing agreement and disagreement), the notions made use of in communication (e.g., time, frequency, duration), as well as the vocabulary and grammar needed. The result was published as Threshold Level English and was an attempt to specify what was needed in order to be able to achieve a reasonable degree of communicative proficiency in a foreign language, including the language items needed to realize this "threshold level."

The range of exercise types and activities compatible with a communicative approach is unlimited, provided that such exercises enable learners to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage learners in communication, and require the use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction. Classroom activities are often designed to focus on completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of in-formation and information sharing.

What is a learner role in communicative Language Teaching?

The emphasis in Communicative Language Teaching on the processes of communication, rather than mastery of language.

What is the teacher in Communicative Language Teaching? Several roles are assumed for teachers in Communicative Language Teaching, the importance of particular roles being determined by the view of CLT adopted. Breen and candling describe teacher roles in the following terms:

The teacher has two main roles: the first role is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. The latter role is closely related to the objectives of the first role and arises from it. These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher; first, as an organizer of resources and as a resource himself, second as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities.... A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner, with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and observed experience of the nature of learning and organizational capacities. Other roles assumed for teachers are needs analyst, counselor, and group process manager.

The CLT teacher assumes a responsibility for determining and responding to learner language needs. This may be done informally and personally through one to-one sessions with students, in which the teacher talks through such issues as the student's perception of his or her learning style, learning assets, and learning goals. It may be done formally through administering a needs assessment instrument, such as those exemplified in Savignon (1983). Typically, such formal assessments contain items that attempt to determine an individual's motivation for studying the language. For example, students might respond on a 5-point scale (strongly agree to strongly disagree) to statements like the following.

I want to study English because...

1. I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.

2. It will help me better understand English-speaking people and their way of life.

3. One needs a good knowledge of English to gain other people's respect.

4. It will allow me to meet and converse with interesting people.

5. I need it for my job.

6. It will enable me to think and behave like English-speaking people.

On the basis of such needs assessments, teachers are expected to plan group and individual instruction that responds to the learners' needs.

Counselor

Another role assumed by several CLT approaches is that of counselor, similar to the way this role is defined in Community Language Learning. In this role, the teacher-counselor is expected to exemplify an effective communicator seeking to maximize the meshing of speaker intention and hearer interpretation, through the use of paraphrase, confirmation, and feedback.

GROUP PROCESS MANAGER

CLT procedures often require teachers to acquire less teacher-centered classroom management skills. It is the teacher's responsibility to organize the classroom as a setting for communication and communicative activities. Guidelines for classroom practice (e.g., Littlewood 1981; Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983) suggest that during an activity the teacher monitors, encourages, and suppresses the inclination to supply gaps in lexis, grammar, and strategy but notes 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 pointed out, however, that non-native teachers may feel less than comfortable about such procedures without special training.

The focus on fluency and comprehensibility in Communicative Language Teaching may cause anxiety among teachers accustomed to seeing error suppression and correction as the major instructional responsibility, and who see their primary function as preparing learners to take standardized or other kinds of tests. A continuing teacher concern has been the possible deleterious effect in pair or group work of imperfect modeling and student error. Although this issue is far from resolved, it is interesting note that recent research findings suggest that "data

contradicts the notion that other learners are not good conversational partners because they can't provide accurate input when it is solicited" (Porter 1983).

The role of instructional materials.

A wide variety of materials have been used to support communicative approaches to language teaching. Unlike some contemporary methodologies, such as Community Language Learning, practitioners of Communicative Language Teaching view materials as a way of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use. Materials thus have the primary role of promoting communicative language use. We will consider three kinds of materials currently used in CLT and label these text-based, task-based, and regalia.

TEXT-BASED MATERIALS

There are numerous textbooks designed to direct and support Communicative Language Teaching. Their tables of contents sometimes suggest a kind of grading and sequencing of language practice not unlike those found in structurally organized texts. Some of these are in fact written around a largely structural syllabus, with slight reformatting to justify their claims to be based on a communicative approach. Others, however, look very different from previous language teaching texts. Morrow and Johnson's Communicate (1979), for example, has none of the usual dialogues, drills, or sentence patterns and uses visual cues, taped cues, pictures, and sentence fragments to initiate conversation. Watcyn-Jones's Pair Work (1981) consists of two different texts for pair work, each containing different information needed to enact role plays and carry out other pair activities.

A variety of games, role plays, simulations, and task-based communication activities have been prepared to support Communicative Language Teaching classes. These typically are in the form of one-of-a-kind items: exercise handbooks, cue cards, activity cards, pair-communication practice materials, and student-interaction practice booklets. In pair-communication materials, there are typically two sets of material for a pair of students, each set containing different kinds of information. Sometimes the information is complementary, and partners

must fit their respective parts of the "jigsaw" into a composite whole. Others assume different role relationships for the partners (e.g., an interviewer and an interviewee). Still others provide drills and practice material in interact ional formats.

REALIA

Many proponents of Communicative Language Teaching have advocated the use of "authentic," "from-life" materials in the classroom. These might include language-based realia, such as signs, magazines, advertisements, and newspapers, or graphic and visual sources around which communicative activities can he built, such as maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, and charts. Different kinds of objects can be used to support communicative exercises, such as a plastic model to assemble from directions.

§ 2 Components of communicative curriculum

Teachers have always been expected to set a good example for learners, to provide a model of behavior. What seems a good example in one time or place, a given context of situation, may seem quite strange or inappropriate in another time or place? And so it is with language teaching. Teachers have round many ways or methods for teaching languages. All have been admired models in some time or place, but perhaps have been ridiculed or dismissed in other contexts. Times change, fashions change. What may once appear new and promising can subsequently seem curious or inappropriate.

Within the last quarter century, communicative language teaching (CLT) has been put forth around the world as the new and innovative way to teach English as a second or foreign language. Teaching materials, course descriptions, and curriculum guidelines proclaim a goal of communicative competence. In Japan, for example, the guidelines published by the Ministry of Education in The Course of Study for Senior High School stare the following objectives of ELT: "To develop students' ability to understand and to express themselves in a foreign language: to foster students' positive attitude towards communicating in a foreign language; and to heighten their interest in language and culture, thus deepening

international understanding" A senior advisor to the Ministry in promoting ELT reform in Japan, Wada (in press) explains the significance of these guidelines:

The Course of Study is one of the most important legal precepts in the Japanese educational system. It establishes national standards for elementary and secondary schools.... For the first time it introduced into English education at both secondary school levels the concept of communicative competence,.., The basic goal of the revision [is] to prepare students to cope with the rapidly occurring changes toward a more global society.

How has CLT been interpreted?

By definition, CLT puts the focus on the learner. Learners' communicative needs provide a framework for elaborating program goals in terms of functional competence. This implies global, qualitative evaluation of learner achievement as opposed to quantitative assessment of discrete linguistic features. Controversy over appropriate language testing measures persists, and many a curricular innovation has been undone by failure to make corresponding changes in evaluation. Current efforts at educational reform favor essay writing, in-class presentations, and other more holistic assessments of learner competence. Some programs have initiated portfolio assessment in an effort to better represent and encourage learner achievement,

Although it now has a new name and is enjoying widespread recognition and research attention, CLT is not a new idea. Throughout the long history of language teaching there always have been advocates of a focus on meaning, as opposed to form, and of developing learner ability to actually use the language for communication. The mote immediate the communicative needs, the mote readily communicative methods seem to be adopted. In Breaking Tradition, Musumeci[17] (1997) provides a fascinating account of language teaching reform efforts dating back to the Middle Ages when Latin was the lingua franca. The book is a favorite

[17] Musumeci, D. 1997. Breaking tradition: An exploration of the historical relationship between theory and practice in second language teaching. New York; McGraw Hill.

of my students, who find it a refreshing and reassuring reminder that discussions of methods and goals for language teaching by far predate the 21st century.

Depending upon their own preparation and experience, teachers themselves differ in their reactions to CLT. Some feel understandable frustration at the seeming ambiguity in discussions of communicative ability. Negotiation of meaning may be a lofty goal, but this view of language behavior lacks precision and does not provide a universal scale for assessment of individual learners. Ability is viewed as variable and highly dependent upon context and purpose as well as on the roles and attitudes of all involved. Some teachers welcome the opportunity to select and develop that own materials, and thereby provide their learners with a range of communicative tasks. Also they are comfortable relying on more global, integrative judgments of learner progress.

Shaping a communicative curriculum.

In attempting to convey the meaning of CLT to both pre-service and in-service teachers of English as a second or foreign language in a wide range of contexts, I have found it helpful to think of a communicative curriculum as potentially composed of five components. These components may be regarded as thematic clusters of activities or experiences related to language use, which provide a useful way of categorizing teaching strategies. Use of the term component to categorize these activities seems particularly appropriate in that it avoids any suggestion of sequence or hierarchy. Experimentation with communicative teaching methods has shown that all five components can be profitably blended at all stages of instruction. Organization of learning activities into these components serves not to sequence an ELT program, but rather to highlight the range of options available in curriculum planning and to suggest ways in which their very interrelatedness benefits the learner. The five components are:

1. Language Arts. 2. Language for a Purpose. 3. My Language is me: Personal English. Language Use. 4. You Be..., I'll Be...: Theater Arts. 5. Beyond the

Classroom

Language Arts

Language arts, or language analysis,, is the first component on the list. Language arts include those things that language teachers often do best. In fact, it may be all they have been taught to do. Language arts include many of the exercises used in mother tongue programs to focus attention on formal accuracy. In communicative ELT, language arts focuses on forms of English, including syntax, morphology, and phonology. Familiar activities such* as translation, dictation, and rote memorization can be helpful in bringing attention to form. Vocabulary expansion can be enhanced by a focus on definitions, synonyms and antonyms, and where applicable, true and false cognates. Spelling tests, for example, are important if writing is a goal. Pronunciation exercises and patterned repetition of verb paradigms, accompanied by an explanation of morph syntactic features, can be useful in focusing on form. There are also many language arts games that learners of all ages enjoy for the variety and group interaction they provide. So long as they are not overused and are not promoted as the solution to all types of language learning problems, language arts games can be found in a wide range of formats and are a welcome addition to a teacher's repertoire.

Language for a Purpose.

Language for a purpose, or language experience, is the second component on the list. In contrast to language analysis, language experience is the use of English for real and immediate communicative goals. Not all learners are learning English for the same reasons. Attention to the specific communicative needs of the learners is important in the selection and sequencing of materials. Regardless of how distant or unspecific the communicative needs of the learners may be, every program with a goal of communicative competence should give attention to opportunities for meaningful English use, to opportunities to focus on meaning rather than on form. In an ESL setting, where English is the language outside the classroom, there is an immediate and natural need for learners to use English. Where this happens, purposeful language use is a built-in feature of the learning

environment. In an EFL setting, where the teacher may have a language other than English in common with learners, special attention needs to be given to providing opportunities for English language experience. Exclusive use of English in the classroom is an option. In content-based instruction, the focus is other than the English language. The content is taught through the use of English. Immersion programs at the elementary, secondary, or even university level, where the entire curriculum is taught in English, offer a maximum amount of purposeful language use (see Snow 2001). In addition, task-based curricula are designed to provide learners with maximum opportunity to use language for a purpose.

Learners who are accustomed to being taught exclusively in their mother tongue may at first be uncomfortable if the teacher speaks to them in English, expecting them not only to understand but perhaps even to respond. When this happens, teachers need to take special care to help learners understand that they are not expected to understand every word, any more than they are expected to express themselves in native-like English. Making an effort to get the gist and using strategies to interpret, express, and negotiate meaning, are important to the development of communicative competence. For learners who are accustomed to grammar translation courses taught in their mother tongue with an emphasis on grammar and accuracy, the transition will not be easy.

With encouragement and help from their teacher in developing the strategic competence they need to interpret, express, and negotiate meaning, learners express satisfaction and even surprise. Kusano Hubbell (in press) goes on to report the positive reactions she receives at the end of the term:

- "Completely different from any class I've ever had!"
- "I have never expressed my own ideas in English before. Work was always to translate this section, to fill in the blanks or read. It was all passive."
- "In my career of English education from junior high to cram school there was no teacher who spoke English other than to read the textbooks."

My Language is me: Personal English Language Use

Personal English language use, the third component in a communicative curriculum, relates to the learner's emerging identity in English. Learner attitude is, without a doubt, the single most important factor in learner success. Whether the motivations of a learner are integrative or instrumental, the development of communicative competence involves the whole learner. The most successful teaching programs are those that take into account the affective as well as the cognitive aspects of language learning. They seek to involve learners psychologically as well as intellectually.

In planning for CLT, teachers should remember that not everyone is comfortable in the same role. Within classroom communities, as within society at large, there are leaders and there are followers. Both are essential to the success of group. activities. In group discussions, there are always some who seem to do the most talking. Often, those who remain silent in larger groups participate more readily in pair work, or they may prefer to work on an individual project. The wider the variety of communicative, or meaning-based, activities, the greater the chance for involving all learners.

Personal language use implies, above all,, respect for learners as they use English for self-expression. Although language arts activities provide an appropriate context for attention to formal accuracy, personal English language use does not. Most teachers know this and intuitively focus on meaning rather than form as learners express their personal feelings or experiences. Many textbooks and tests emphasize structural accuracy, however, so teachers may feel uncomfortable when they do not attend to those non-native-like utterances that do not impede the conveyance -of meaning. An understanding of the importance of opportunities for the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning in CLT and of the distinction between language arts and personal language use can help to reassure teachers that the communicative practice they are providing important for learners.

Respect for learners as they use English for self-expression requires more than simply restraint when they make formal errors that do not interfere with meaning. Respect requires recognition that so-called "native-like" performance may not, in fact, even be a goal for learners. Language teaching has come a long way from audio-lingual days when "native" pronunciation and use was held up as an ideal for learners. Reference to the terms native or native-like the evaluation of communicative competence is inappropriate in today post-colonial, multicultural world where nonnative speakers of English outnumber native speakers by at least two to one, a ratio that is rapidly increasing. We now recognize that native speakers are never "ideal" and, in fact, vary widely in range and style of communicative abilities, especially as the English language is increasingly used as a language of global communication. Moreover, the decision of what is or is not one's native language is arbitrary and irrelevant for ELT and is perhaps best left to the individual concerned.

Since a personality inevitably takes on a new dimension through expression in another language, it needs to discover that dimension on its own terms. Learners should not only be given the opportunity to say what they want to say in English, they should be encouraged to develop an English language personality with which they are comfortable. They may feel more comfortable maintaining a degree of formality not found in the interpersonal transactions of native speakers.

On the other hand, learners may discover a new freedom of self-expression in their new language. When asked what it is like to write in English, a language that is not her native tongue, the Korean novelist Mia Yon (1998) replied that it was "like putting on a new dress." Writing in English made her feel fresh, see herself in a new way, offered her freedom to experiment. When expressing themselves in a new language, writers are not the only ones to experience the feeling of "putting on a new dress." Personal language use calls for recognition and respect for the individual personality of the learner.

You Be..., I'll Be...: Theater Arts

Theater Arts constitutes the fourth component of a communicative curriculum. In the familiar words of Shakespeare (As You like It, II, 7). "All the world is a stage." And on this stage we play many roles for which we improvise scripts from the models we observe around us, Child, parent, sister, brother, employer. Employee, doctor or teachers—all are roles that include certain expected ways of behaving and using language according to sociocultural rules of appropriateness. Familiar roles may be played with little conscious attention to style. On the other hand, new and unfamiliar roles require practice, with an awareness of how the meanings we intend are being interpreted by others. Sometimes there are no models. In the last half of the 20th century, women who suddenly found themselves in what traditionally had been men's roles, whether as firefighters, professors, or CEOs, had to adapt existing models to ones with which they could be comfortable. And the transition is far from complete. By the end of the 21st century women will no doubt have many models.

If the world can be thought of as a stage, with actors and actresses who play their parts, theater may be seen as an opportunity' to experiment with roles, to try things out. Fantasy and play-acting are a natural and important part of childhood. Make-believe improvisations familiar to children the world over are important to self-discovery and growth. They allow young learners to experiment, to try things out, like hats and wigs, moods and postures, gestures and words. As occasions for language use, role-playing and the many related activities that constitute theater arts are likewise a natural component of language learning. They allow learners to experiment with the roles they play or may be called upon to play in real life. Theater arts can provide learners with the tools they need to act, that is, to interpret, express, and negotiate meaning in a new language. Activities can include both scripted and unscripted role play, simulations, and even pantomime. Ensemble-building activities familiar in theater framing have been used very successfully in ELT to create a climate of trust so necessary for the incorporation of theater arts activities. The role of the teacher in these activities is that of a coach

who provides support, strategies, and encouragement for learners as they explore new ways of being.

Beyond the Classroom

Beyond the Classroom is the fifth and final component of a communicative curriculum. Regardless of the .variety of communicative activities in the ESL/EFL classroom, their purpose remains to prepare learners to use English in the world beyond. This is the world upon which learners will depend for the maintenance and development of their communicative competence once classes are over. The classroom is but a rehearsal. Development of opportunities for English language use beyond those offered in the classroom itself often begins with an identification of learner's interests and needs, As a child, I looked forward to receiving letters from my pen pals. They would arrive bearing colorful stamps from France. Wales, Japan, Taiwan, and Australia. I had yet to learn a second language, so all our correspondence was in English. However, this regular exchange of letters put a small-town Midwestern American girl in touch with other places around the globe and with other users of English. Technology has since brought the whole world so much closer. English language radio and television programs, videos, and feature-length films are readily available in many EFL settings, along with newspapers and magazines. English-speaking residents or visitors may be available to visit the classroom. The Internet now provides opportunities to interact with English-speaking peers on a variety of topics and to develop grammatical, discourse, sociocultural, and strategic competence. In addition to prearranged exchanges, learners can check World Wide Web sites for an almost infinite range of information. These opportunities for computer-mediated communication will increase dramatically in the years ahead.

How do we put it all together? Is there an optimum combination of language arts, personal language use, and language for a purpose, theater arts, and language use beyond the classroom? These questions must be answered by individual teachers for their learners in the context where they teach. Cultural expectations, language goals, and learning styles are but some of the ways in which learners may

differ from one another. To the complexity of the learner must be added the complexities of teachers and of the settings in which they teach. Established routines, or institutional belief about what is important, weigh heavily in a teacher's decisions as to what and how to teach and often make innovation difficult. Finally, the need for variety must be taken into account. Learners who are bored with rule recitation or sentence translation may just as easily lose interest in games or role playing if these activities become routine, difficult as it is, the teacher's task is to understand the many factors involved and respond to them creatively.

Teachers cannot do this alone, of course. They need the support of administrators, the community, and learners themselves. Methodologists and teacher educators have a responsibility as well. They should provide classroom teachers with the perspective and experiences they need to respond to the realities of their world, a changing world in which the old ways of language teaching may not be the best ways. The optimum combination of the analytical and the experiential in ESL/EFL for a given context is the focus of ongoing research. A now well-established research tradition in second/foreign language learning/teaching has clearly shown the importance of attention to language use, or experience, in addition to language analysis. Unfortunately the overwhelming emphasis in many school programs is on the latter, often to the complete exclusion of the former.

What about grammar?

Discussions of CLT not infrequently lead to questions of grammatical or formal accuracy. The perceived shift in attention from morph syntactic features to a focus on meaning has led in some cases to the impression that grammar is not important, or that proponents of CLT favor learner self-expression without regard to form. While involvement in communicative events is seen as central to language development, this involvement necessarily requires attention to form. The contribution to language development of both form-focused and meaning-focused classroom activities remains a question in ongoing research. The optimum combination of these activities in any given instructional setting depends no doubt

on learner age, nature and length of instructional sequence, opportunities for language contact outside the classroom, and teacher preparation, among other factors. However, for the development of communicative ability, research findings overwhelmingly support the integration of form-focused exercises with meaning-focused experience. Grammar is important; and learners seem to focus best on grammar when it relates to their communicative needs and experiences.

Communicative language teaching does not necessarily mean the rejection of familiar materials. A teacher with only a grammar-translation textbook can use it to support a focus on communication. Conversely, there is nothing to prevent materials intended to promote communication from being used to teach grammar and translation. What matters is the teacher's understanding of how language learning happens. The basic principle involved is an orientation towards collective participation in a process of use and discovery achieved by cooperation between learners as well as between learners and the teacher.

What CLT is not

Disappointment with both grammar-translation and' audio-lingual methods for their inability to prepare learners for the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning, along with enthusiasm for an array of alternative methods labeled communicative, has resulted in uncertainty as to what are the essential features of CLT. So let me conclude this overview with a brief mention of what CLT is not.

1. CLT is not exclusively concerned with face to face oral communication. The principles of CLT apply equally to treading and writing activities that engage readers and writers in the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning. The goals of CLT depend on learner needs in a given context.

2. CLT does not require small group or pair work. Group tasks have been found helpful in many contexts as a way of providing increased opportunity and social motivation for communication. However, classroom group or pair work should not be considered an essential feature and may well be inappropriate in

some contexts. Finally, CLT does not exclude a focus on met linguistic awareness or knowledge of rules of syntax, discourse, and social appropriateness.

3. The essence of CLT is the engagement of learners in communication to allow them to develop their communicative competence. Terms sometimes used to refer to features of CLT include process-oriented, task-based, and inductive or discovery-oriented. CLT cannot be found in any single textbook or set of curricular materials. In keeping with the notion of context of situation, CLT is properly seen as an approach, or theory of intercultural communicative competence to be used in developing materials and methods appropriate to a given context of learning. Contexts change. The world of carriages and petticoats evolved into one of genomes and cyberspace. Communicative language teaching methods designed to enhance the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning will also continue to be explored and adapted.

§ 3 Error analysis in teaching foreign language

Error analysis in teaching foreign language human learning is fundamentally a process that involves the making of mistakes. Mistakes, misjudgments, miscalculation, and erroneous assumptions form an important aspect of learning vi ritually any skill on acquiring information. You learn to swim by first jumping into the water and flailing arms and legs until you discover that there is a combinations of movements structured pattern-that succeeds in Reaping you afloat and propelling you through the water. The first mistakes of learning to gwim are grant ones, gradually diminish gas as you learn from making these mistakes. Learning to swim, to play tennis, to tope, or to read all involve a process in winch success comes by profiting from mistakes, by using mistakes to obtain fullback from the environment and with that feedback to make new attempts which successively more closely approximate desired goals.

Language learning, in this since, is likely any other human learning. We have already seen in our life that children learning their first language mare

countless “misters” from the point of adult grammatical language. Children slowly but surely learn to produce what is acceptable speech in their native language[18].

Second language learning is a process that is clearly not an lire first language learning in its trial-and error nature. Inevitably learning will make mistakes in the process of acquit sit ions, and indeed will even impede that process if they do not commit errors and then benefit in turn from various forms of feedback on those errors.

Researchers and teachers of second languages soon came to realize that the mistakes a person made in this process of constructing a new system of language needed to be analyzed carefully. As Cordek noted “A learner’s errors---are significant in that they provide to the researcher evidence of haw language is learned on acquired, what strategies on procedures the learner is employing in the discovery of the language.”

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16. Douglas Brown. Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. Prentice Hall Regents, Englewood Cliffs. 1987. pp170-171

In order to analyze learners’ errors in a proper perspective, it is crucial to make a distinction between mistakes and errors, technically too very different phenomena. A mistake refers to a performance error that is either a random guess or a “Slip”, in that it is a failure to utilize a Known system correctly. All people make mistakes, in both native and second language situations. Native speakers are normally capable of recognizing and correcting such “lapses” or mistakes, which are not the result of deficiency in competence but the result of sort of breakdown or imperfection in the process of producing speech.

These hesitations slips of the tongue, random ungrammaticalities, and other performance lapses in native-speaker production also occur in second language speech.

The theory of language acquisition highlights the role that error plays in the acquisition of language. As we struggle to formulate sentences to express our ideas

[18] Nicholas Chapman. The Bestot the English page. The British Council Russian. 1993. p. 37.

and communicate our message we make errors. Making mistakes is all part of the language learning process. Mistakes we can see as "slips of the pen or tongue", small in accuracies which even native speakers make when talking quiche, enthusiastically, emotionally, or when writing in a hurry. Errors however are much more significant for us as language teachers as they show that our students have not grasped a structure, function, concept, vocabulary item, or concept of register accurately.[17] Mistakes can often be ignored. Errors highlight for us that a piece of language work needs to be revised or worked on-button every time, all the time.

Errors are a natural part of second language learning. A is impossible to learn without making errors. Because of this, students' production of spoken and written language is full of errors. The teacher cannot correct every error, and even it A cure possible to do so, excessive errors correction intimidates the students, decreases their Self-confidence and makes them hesitate to use the language. Therefore the teacher must decide how and when errors will be corrected and communicate this policy to the students[19] Errors should be corrected only when it can be done without interfering with communication. Errors correction in conversation will certainly cause the student to "clam up".

Writing is the ideal medium for error correction, and most students expect that errors will be corrected in their written work. The most notice able errors a student makes may not be the most important.

Whatever the reason for "getting it wrong ", it vital for the teacher to realize that all students make mistakes as a natural and useful way of learning. By working out when and why things howl gone wrong, they learn more about the language they are Studying.

Corrections helps students to clarify their understanding of the meaning and construction of language. It is a vital part of the teacher's role and something which the teacher is uniquely able to provide, but precisely because it involves pointing out people's mistakes, we have to be careful when correcting singe, if we

[19] Mary Schleppegrell and Brenda Brown. Teaching English for specific purposes. Peace Corps Information, Collection Exchange Manual. 1989. p.81

do it and insensitive way, we can upset our students and dent their confidence[20]. What is appropriate for one student may be quite wrong for another one.

The teacher's job is to point out when something has gone wrong-and see is the student can correct. Herself or himself. Maybe what they said or wrote was pits a slip and the are able to put is right straightway.

Sometimes, however, students can't put mistakes right on their own, so the teacher should help them.

When organizing practice, then teachers need to listen out for mistakes, identify the problem and put it right in the most efficient and tactful way. It is just as important-perhaps more so-to praise students Sort heir success as is to correct them when they fail. Teachers can show through the use of expression, encouraging words and noises ("good", "well done", "tan tag tic", "mmm, etc) that student are doing really well.

The pact that learners do make errors and that these errors can be observed, analyzed, and basified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner, led to a surge of study of learners' errors, called error analysis.

Error analysis became distinguished from contrastive analysis by its examination of errors attributable to all possible sources, not just those which result from negative transfer of the native language. Errors-overt manifestations of learners' systems-arise from several possible general sources: interlingua errors of interface from the native language, intralingua errors within the target language, the sociolinguistic context of communication, psycholinguistic or cognitive strategies, and no doubt countless affective variables.

There is a danger in too much attention to learners' errors, while errors are indeed revealing of a system at work, the classroom foreign language teacher can become so preoccupied with noticing errors lat. The correct utterance in the second language goes unnoticed. The teachers must beware of placing too much attention

[20] Jeremy Harmer. How to teach English Longman. 1998.pp. 62-63

on errors, and not lose sight of the value of positive reinforcement of clear, free communication.

Although every teacher probably has his own favorite method of dealing with errors, it hast not been shown conclusively that providing feedback on errors has any effect on the quality of subsequent writing[21].

How to respond to student writing is a controversial topic in second language writing instruction and theory.

Several studies have investigated the effects of various types of teacher feedback on Students' writing skills, but little research has explored instructors' and students' preferences for feedback and error correction. But preferences are important: if teachers and students both understand the purpose of certain correction techniques and agree on then use, feedback is more likely to be productive. Conversely, if teachers and students have mutually exclusive colas regarding correction techniques, the result will most likely be feedback that is ineffective and, in the worst case, discouraging for students who are learning to write in their second language.

Even though the research evidence on the effects of errors correction on students' writing skills is for from conclusive, several research studies investigating the effect of different types of feedback on second language students' writing have suggested that explicit error correction of surface – level errors (spelling, punctuation, grammar) seems to be generally ineffective. Truscott (1996) goes even farther to conclude that this type of correction should be abandoned in second language writing classes be cause it can have harmful effect.

On the other hand, the research generally does advocate feedback on the student writer's handling of co tent and organization. There is evidence that such feedback is necessary and does resell in improved student writing.

Huntley (1992) maintains that feedback on content and organization should

[21] Noraznt Abdullah "Focussed Editing": A strategy to reduce Gremmatical Errors "weiting" Language reportet. January 2000. 9 207

be provided to students while feedback on form should be avoided, and she recommends that second language teachers incorporate peer reviews and student-teacher conferences in their teaching as two valuable alternative feedback methods to traditional error correction.

In spite of the research evidence pointing to the futility of surface-level error correction, the relatively few studies that have investigated second language instructors' and students' preferences for feedback to writing suggest that surface-level correction is often what students want and expect from their teachers. For instance, based on a survey at 59 ESL students' attitudes towards feedback on their written work, Radecki and Swales (1988) concluded that if ESL teachers do not correct all surface errors they might lose credibility with their students. In a similar survey of 100 ESL students' preferences for error correction lake found that students equate good writing in English with error-free writing and that they expect and want all errors in their papers to be corrected.

Conclusion

In my diploma work I have looked at the importance of communicative language teaching. In the introduction, there was a base of urgency of a choice of theme identified the subject, object, the problem was identified and placed hypothesis.

The first chapter dealt with general issues on what communicative language teaching is, defining communicative competence and what models evolve around Communicative language teaching. Communicative language teaching is not one method. It is an approach, and understanding of what language is and how we learn a foreign language. This understanding leads us to teach in ways that make language learning most successful.

- Grammatical competence. Knowledge of the vocabulary and sentence structure of a language.
- Discourse competence. The ability to recognize different patterns of discourse (e/g/a newspaper article, a university lecture) to connect sentences to an overall theme or topic: the ability to get meaning from larger texts.
- Strategic competence: The ability to compensate for limited language knowledge, for fatigue, or distraction: the effective use of coping strategies to maintain or improve communication.
- Sociolinguistic competence. The ability to use language appropriate to a context, taking into account the participants, the setting and the purpose of the interaction.

Piepho discusses the following levels of objectives in a communicative approach:

1. an integrative and content level (language as a means of expression)

2. a linguistic and instrumental level (language as a semiotic system and an object of learning);

3. an affective level of interpersonal relationships and conduct (language as a means of expressing values and judgments about oneself and others);

4. a level of individual learning needs (remedial learning based on error analysis);

5. a general educational level of extra-linguistic goals (language learning within the school curriculum).

The term "communicative competence" was coined by Dell Hymes (1967, 1972), a sociolinguist who was convinced that Chomsky's (1965) notion of competence was too limited. Communicative competence, then, is that aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts.

Several models evolve around communicative language teaching. They are Communicative approach, Total Physical Response (TPR) and the Natural Approach, Competency-Based Approach, Innovative language teaching, The Silent Way, Community Language Learning (CLL), Suggestopedia.

Communicative Language Teaching is best considered an approach rather than a method. Thus although a reasonable degree of theoretical consistency can be discerned at the levels of language and learning theory, at the levels of design and procedure there is much greater room for individual interpretation and variation than most methods permit. It could be that one version among the various proposals for syllabus models, exercise types, and classroom activities may gain wider approval in the future, giving Communicative Language Teaching a status similar to other teaching methods. On the other hand, divergent interpretations might lead to homogeneous subgroups.

Communicative Language Teaching appeared at a time when British language teaching was ready for a paradigm shift. Situational Language Teaching was no longer felt to reflect a methodology appropriate for the seventies and beyond. CLT appealed to those who sought a more humanistic approach to teaching, one in which the interactive processes of communication received priority. The rapid adoption and implementation of the communicative approach also resulted from the fact that it quickly assumed the status of orthodoxy in British language teaching circles, receiving the sanction and support of leading British applied linguists, language specialists, publishers, as well as institutions, such as the British Council

Now that the initial wave of enthusiasm has passed, however, some of the claims of CLT are being looked at more critically. The adoption of a communicative approach raises important issues for teacher training, materials development, and testing 'and evaluation. Questions that have been raised include whether a communicative approach can be applied at all levels in a language program, whether it is equally suited to ESL and EFL situations, whether it requires existing grammar-based syllabuses to be abandoned or merely revised, how such an approach can be evaluated, how suitable it is for non-native teachers, and how it can be adopted in situations where students must continue to take grammar-based tests. These kinds of questions will doubtless require attention if the communicative movement in language teaching continues to gain momentum in the future.

The second part of the main body dealt with practical side of the teaching, gave definitions to the types of learning and teaching activities. The attention was e played on the components of communicative curriculum and error analysis in teaching English, because the ways of correcting the learners also have been changed. And I think, teachers shouldn't ignore the point as error analysis in teaching foreign language.

The five components which help to shape communicative curriculum:

1. Language Arts
2. Language for a Purpose
3. My Language is me: Personal English Language Use
4. Theater Arts
5. Beyond the Classroom

Corrections helps students to clarify their understanding of the meaning and construction of language. It is a vital part of the teacher's role and something which the teacher is uniquely able to provide, but precisely because it involves pointing out people's mistakes, we have to be careful when correcting single, if we do it and insensitive way, we can upset our students and dent their confidence. Errors should be corrected only when it can be done without interfering with

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