From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Teaching (and vice-versa): a definition of CLT and its implementation in EFL textbooks and curriculum design

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Abstract

The purpose of this review is to explore attempts at defining Communicative Competence (CC) made by ELT theorists. Teaching CC is considered a major goal according to the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) methodology theorists such as Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983). Thus, it is important to understand how the concept was been defined to better understand what is targeted within the framework of CLT. This review also discusses research on the teachability of CC/CLT and the implementation of CLT in textbooks and curriculum design.

Keywords: ELT, CC, CLT, teachability of CC, textbooks

Toward a definition of CC: the debate over the concept of CC

The aim of this section is to overview attempts at defining CC. Actually, theorists like Canale & Swain (1980), Savignon (1983), Van Ek (1986), were commenting and trying to use Hymes’ concept of CC to suggest how syllabuses can be designed to formulate principles for a teaching theory based on the concept.
Communicative competence (CC) is a term coined by Hymes (1966, p.114) to mean a language user's knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology, as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately. The term came as a reaction against what Hymes viewed as the inadequacy of Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance (Chomsky, 1965). Chomsky (1965) proposed his notions of “competence” as “the perfect knowledge of an ideal speaker-listener of the language in a homogeneous speech community” (p.3). He also contended that linguistic knowledge is distinct from the socio-cultural features, arguing 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 limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interests, and errors in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance” (p.3).

Therefore, Chomsky considered as idealized capacity and distinguished it from performance which is the production of actual utterances. Additionally, competence, being an ideal, is located as a psychological or mental property or function. This is in contrast to performance, which refers to an actual event. This definition of “linguistic competence” has come to be associated with the concept of grammatical competence. In contrast, Hymes (1966) argued that “restricted to the purely grammatical [and]…, leaves other aspects of speakers’ tacit knowledge and ability in confusion, thrown together under a largely unexamined concept of performance” (p.55).

Hymes (1972) pointed out that Chomsky's competence/performance dichotomy fails to provide an account for socio-cultural features of competence. Hymes (1972) stressed the limitations of sentence-level grammar. For example, a speaker might have a perfect knowledge of the rules of grammar, but he cannot use them appropriately in different contexts. Thus, he introduced the notion of “appropriateness”. Thus, Hymes drew attention to the social and cultural dimension of language learning suggesting that “linguistic theory has to be linked to a theory of culture and communication” (p. 47) whereby the criterion is acceptability.

The guidelines for the formulation of a view of language on which will be based the teaching of CC are formulated as follows
(1) Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible.
“something possible within a formal system is grammatical, cultural, or, on occasion, communicative” (p.66).

(2) Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available (psycholinguistic factors such as memory limitation, perceptual device and what is biologically and psychologically feasible).

(3) Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate to a context in which it is used and evaluated.

(4) Whether (and to what degree) something is done, actually performed and does its doing entail (knowledge of probabilities: this has to do with whether something is common or not (Hymes, 1972, p. 284).

These four guiding principles will impact ELT theorists to a great extent. For example, Savignon (1971, 1983), Munby (1978), Widdowson (1971, 1978), Canale and Swain (1980) and Bachman (1990).

Savignon (1971) argued that many methodologists focused on the cultural norms of native speakers and the difficulty of duplicating them in a classroom of non-natives. Influenced by Hymes’s view, the appropriateness of CC as a target in teaching was put into question.

Savignon (1971), one of the ELT theorist and teacher educator who tried to figure out how the practice can be formulated starting from the ideas proposed by Hymes, implemented the term CC to the ability of classroom language learners to interact with other speakers to make meaning, as distinct from their ability to recite dialogues or perform on discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge. Learners might be encouraged, for example to ask for information, to seek clarification, to use circumlocution and to negotiate meaning. This way, teachers can lead learners to take risks and to overpass memorized patterns.

To conclude, Hymes argued that language structure and its acquisition were not context-free, contrary to Chomsky who claimed that an innate language mechanism was sufficient to account for first language acquisition. Many applied linguists adopted Hymes’ perspective and his notion of CC which became part of the theoretical basis for a new language teaching
approach called CLT and another approach to teaching materials compatible with communication as the target of foreign language teaching (Murcia, 1995). Canale and Swain (1980) were among the earliest applied linguists to develop and elaborate a model of CC that course designers and language teachers could apply to teaching and assessment.

Murcia (1995) added to Hymes’s CC components “actional competence” which is the ability to comprehend and produce all significant speech acts and speech act sets should also be part of CC. Murcia (1995) also specified that the various components of CC were interrelated and that it was important to properly describe the nature of these interrelationships to understand the construct of CC.

As a response to Hymes’s CC, Halliday (1978) expressed his interest in language in its social perspective. Actually, he is concerned with language use and functions. Sinclair, Forsyth, Gouthard and Ashby (1972) defined these functions as “formal features of language which enable communication to take place” (as cited in Munby, 1981, p.12). Halliday (1978) opposed the distinction between “competence” and “performance” as being “unnecessary” in sociological contexts. He doesn’t only reject the dichotomy, but also advocates a socio-semantic approach to language and its use by the speaker; namely, the notion of “meaning potential” or in other words “the sets of options in meaning that are available to the speaker-hearer” (p.39).

This idea influenced the theories of teaching and led to new syllabi. For example, the Council of Europe developed a syllabus for learners based on notional-functional concepts of language use. This syllabus was derived from functional linguistics, in which, language is viewed as “meaning potential”. Halliday (1971) was interested in functions and just happened to have a perspective on language similar to Hymes’. This, of course, helped CLT find another argument for teaching language in context.

Being in charge of writing this syllabus for Europe, Van Ek (1975) argued that the syllabus described a threshold level of language ability for each of the major languages of Europe in view of what learners should be able to do with the language. Language functions based on an assessment of the communicative needs of learners specified the end result, or goal, of an instructional program. The term “communicative” attached itself to programs that used a notional-functional syllabus based on needs assessment, and the language for specific purposes (LSP) movement was launched (as cited in Savignon, 2002, p. 2).
This meaning potential is in relation with a lexico-grammatical potential: “what the speaker can do---- can mean----- can say” (Halliday, 1971, p. 51). This theory takes behavior options in its elements by posing the question of what the speaker can do. These options are translated linguistically as semantic options by asking the question of what the speaker can mean. These semantic options, in turn, are encoded in linguistic forms to know what a speaker can say.

Moreover, Halliday’s meaning potential is different to Chomsky’s notion of competence: what a speaker can do in the linguistic sense of what he can mean is different to what he knows. Actually, Chomsky’s “knows” is not similar to his “does” requiring a separate notion of performance to account for the “does”.

Halliday (1971) argued that his notion of “meaning potential” is like Hymes` notion of CC, but there is an exception. Actually, Hymes argued that in addition to linguistic competence, one also needed notions of sociolinguistic competence (the rules for using language appropriately in context) to account for language acquisition and language use. However, with a meaning potential, the focus shifts to (what he can do in the special linguistic sense of what he can mean). Halliday and Hymes are the backbone of CLT theorizing.

**Translation of the concept for teaching**

The ideas teachers have about CLT come from people like Van Ek (1975), Widdowson (1972), Savignon (1983), Richards (1985) and Harmer (1991), not necessarily from Hymes directly. Actually, these theorists and teacher educators tried to bridge theory and practice in their books and articles. Munby’s (1978) purpose of discussing CC was neither defining nor criticizing. He talked about its implications for curriculum design.

In his attempt to make a contribution to syllabus design, Munby (1978) proposed his approach to needs analysis which soon drew great attention from syllabus designers, particularly ESP architects. For example, in his development of “Communicative syllabus design”, Munby referred to Hymes` effect both on his work and the foreign and second language teaching field and gave justification to this new linguistic theory without questioning the basic premises underlying the theory of CC. Munby (1978) referred to Hymes` contribution to his work and the ELT field, stating that

the interest in the content of the language syllabus, following the concern with CC generated by Hymes, reflects a feeling that we ought to know much
more about what it is that should be taught and learned if a non-native is to be communicatively competent in English (p.1).

Munby (1978) contended that grammatical competence should be included in the notion of CC under two main theoretical bases. First, that grammatical competence and CC need to be developed separately and secondly, he goes further by saying that grammatical competence is not an essential component of CC. DC is viewed as the psychological dimension of CC in order to link sentences to each other to form larger units of written or spoken discourse for the following objectives: inferring, meaning, performing communicative acts, understanding the communicative functions of sentences (Munby, 1988). The main tenets of his CC model are presented in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. Munby’s view of CC](image)

As far as the translation of CC into practice is considered, Widdowson (1971, 1975) is another teacher educator and applied linguist who wrote about these theories and tried to explain them and provide ideas about implementation. While explaining, he contributed to the theories like the distinction between “Usage” and “Use” which has become central to CLT formulation of practice. Widdowson (1971, 1975) was only explaining what Hymes meant. He was writing for an audience of teacher educators and teachers. According to Widdowson (1978), an interlocutor’s competence comprises his knowledge to recognize and to use sentences to perform what he calls rhetorical acts.

Moreover, in his attempt to clarify the shift from linguistic competence, Widdowson (1978) distinguished between “usage” and “use”. “Usage” meant the manifestation of the knowledge of language system and the term “Use” meant a realization of the language system as meaningful communicative behavior. Both, he explained, are aspects of “performance”. Furthermore, the distinction of "usage" and "use" is based on the notion of
"effectiveness for communication" (p. 14), which means that an utterance with a well-formed grammatical structure may or may not have a sufficient value for communication in a given context.

Widdowson (1972) explained that CC entails knowledge of the rules of “use” in peculiar social situations. This knowledge for him is not similar to the rules of grammar or to the speaker’s grammatical competence, as both components should be involved in a speaker’s competence. Widdowson (1972) also argued that although the only method to characterize different language registers is to discover what rhetorical acts such as defining and warning, for example, are commonly performed in them, how they combine to build composite units of communication and what linguistic tools are implemented to indicate them (p. 15).

Henceforth, this does not only provide the most significant differentiating characteristics of register, but it also provides many characteristics of important place in discourse, its rules and its units such as the speech act and the speech event in CC.

Savignon (1983) suggested that Munby’s multidisciplinary view of CC is followed by several views about CC and CLT. Actually, CLT derives from a multidisciplinary perspective which includes linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology and educational research.

Canale and Swain’s classroom model of CC may include four components: grammatical competence (GC), discourse competence (DC), socio-linguistic competence (Soc C) and strategic competence (SC). Canale and Swain (1980) stated that “grammatical competence is an aspect of CC that includes knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence grammar, semantics and phonology” (p.29). Savignon’s opinion about what Munby said helped explain these views. Actually, the focus has been the elaboration and implementation of programs and methodologies that promote the development of functional language ability through learners’ participation in communicative events.

As explained by Savignon (1983), Soc C means an understanding of social context in which the act of communicating is taking place involving role relationship, the shared knowledge of the interlocutors and the communicative goal of their interaction. By considering CC as a system or set comprising sub-systems or sub-sets, socio-linguistic
competence has the responsibility of relating these sub-components to each other to form the whole proficiency of a language user. Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) showed that CC is a synthesis of an underlying system of knowledge and skill needed for communication. In their concept of CC, knowledge refers to the (conscious or unconscious) knowledge of an individual about language and about other aspects of language use. For them, there are three types of knowledge: knowledge of underlying grammatical principles, knowledge of how to use language in a social context in order to fulfill communicative functions and knowledge of how to combine utterances and communicative functions with respect to discourse principles. Moreover, their concept of skill referred to how an individual can use the knowledge in actual communication.

The fourth component of CC deals with cognitive language, grammar, discourse, cultural, rhetorical strategies as these categories constitute a language user’s SC. Rhetorical strategies include paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, reluctance, avoidance of words, structures or themes, guessing, changes of register and style and modifications of messages.

Canale and Swain (1980) pointed out that a communicative approach in language teaching should integrate the four components of CC. By doing so, they provide guiding principles for the Communicative approach such as authenticity, practice, personalization and legitimacy.

Canale and Swain (1980) meant by “Authenticity” the use of authentic materials and communication in authentic contexts (p. 31). As for “practice” they called upon teachers to provide learners with expressions that would help them participate in the negotiation of meaning. To “personalize” instruction, Canale and Swain (1980) suggested that teaching activities should focus on classroom process and learner autonomy (p. 31). They thought that this can be done through the use of games, role playing and activities in pairs and small groups. This activities gained acceptance to be used in language-teaching programs.

It is worth noting that Canale and Swain’s version of CC is linked more to the communicative approach application in language teaching which links theoretical cognition to practical testing. Their view of CC relates more with the CLT approach. Henceforth, it is a path from theory to curriculum design, course design, teaching method and then to practical testing.

As the notion could be considered in both theoretical and practical dimensions, Savignon (1983) further proposed five components of communicative curriculum including:
Table 1: Savignon’s five components of communicative curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Meaning for curriculum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- Language arts</td>
<td>Exercises used in mother tongue programs to focus attention on formal accuracy (p.266)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- Language for a purpose</td>
<td>The use of language for real communication goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- Personal second language use</td>
<td>Relates to the learners’ emerging identity in English and expression of voice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- Theatre arts</td>
<td>Tools they need to act in a new language such as interpreting, expressing, and negotiating meaning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- Beyond the classroom</td>
<td>The need to prepare learners to use the language they learn outside the classroom.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The previously mentioned elements together help build both theoretical and practical foundations for CLT. Savignon (1983) added that “one must keep in mind the interactive nature of their relationships. The whole of CC is always something other than the simple sum of its parts” (p.50). The same could be said about the five curriculum elements. Savignon (1991) widened the view of CLT giving the possibility to promote this notion. “CLT, thus, can be seen to derive from a multidisciplinary perspective that includes, at least, linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology, and educational research” (p.265). This cannot be viewed as a move away from CC as a notion because Savignon drew on the Canale and Swain’s definition of CC. In addition to this, CC and CLT should be inter-related in order to be promoted.

Taking into consideration the results of previous theoretical and empirical research, Bachman (1990) suggested a new term to refer to CC; namely, the model of communicative language ability. The purpose of Bachman is to formalize CC into theoretical constructs that can offer common frames of reference for establishing L2 (Second Language) instructional objectives and measuring the language proficiency of nonnative students.
For her, many traits of language users such as some general characteristics, their topical knowledge, affective schemata and language ability influence the communicative language ability. Bachman (1990) stated that “communicative language ability can be described as consisting of both knowledge or competence and the capacity for implementing or executing that competence in appropriate, contextualized communicative language use” (p. 84). Bachman (1990) used “ability” instead of “competence” because ability includes both competence (knowledge) and the capacity to implement this competence appropriately in a peculiar context.

Interested in testing CC, Bachman (1990) proposed another attempt at making the concept operational:

![Figure 2. Bachman’s view of CC](image)

Language competence is divided into organizational competence which meant knowledge structures, grammatical and contextual competences and pragmatic competence (PC) which meant the pragmatic conventions to perform language functions. Illocutionary competence is another component. It meant psycho-physiological mechanisms. Sociolinguistic Competence includes context of situation and language competence. Actually, CLT applications are suggested to equip learners with these abilities (competencies) (Bachman, 1990).

Moreover, organizational communication includes grammatical and contextual abilities. Bachman (1990) assumed that “GC comprises, in turn, the abilities of language usage, while textual competence involves the knowledge of linking utterances to form language units through an application of the rules of cohesion and rhetorical organization”(pp.87-88). Thus,
the mastery of the language verbal and non-verbal code is the major goal to promote organizational competence. To achieve this ability, CLT focuses on the learner. CLT should not only be based on a simple practice of a structural model, but should also be based on the principle of the intention to mean (Bachman, 1990). Moreover, Organizational competence could be practiced through several classroom activities such as persuading, studying literacy, discussing, debating and reporting.

Furthermore, Bachman (1990) defined PC as “… both the relationship between signs and referents and the language relationship between language users and the context of communication. It also includes the pragmatic conventions to perform language functions. Moreover, this ability comprises the knowledge of socio-linguistic conventions to perform language functions appropriately in a given context” (pp.89-90).

In the CLT classroom, Bachman (1990) suggested that pragmatic ability could be practiced through activities which are based on the principles of information gap and unpredictability. It could also be achieved through authentic and legitimate tasks which stimulate the learners’ motivation and introduce them to real-life situations such as role plays and interviews.

Bachman (1990) also viewed SC “as an important element of communicative language use” (p.100). Bachman (1990) argued that “SC is regarded as a general ability for the individual to make the most effective use of available abilities to carry out verbal and non verbal activities” (p.106). Bachman (1990) also argued that, to maintain an appropriate use of language, a speaker adopts two main referential strategies; namely, conceptual and linguistic strategies. In CLT classrooms, teachers are required to teach learners how to use all what she/he knows to perform a language function with motivation and flexibility.

**Research on the teachability of CC**

This section tackles the different views about the teachability of CC. Some argued that CC is teachable: Richards and Rodgers (2001), Holliday (1994), Harmer (1991), Savignon (1983), Canale and Swain (1980), Munby (1981), Stern (1990). Widdowson (1990) and Renart (2005) explained how CC can be put into operation with restrictions and stated several problems of practicality:
The group who believed CC is teachable proposed the construction of the syllabus (Munby, 1978). In fact, to translate a concept like CC into a teaching program (Savignon, 1983), there are at least four steps which should be done:

1/ The construction of the syllabus:

With regard to the construction of the syllabus, Breen (1987) argued that the meeting point of a perspective upon language itself, upon using language, and upon teaching and learning which is a contemporary and commonly accepted interpretation of the harmonious links between theory, research, and classroom practice (p. 83). According to Nunan (2004) “syllabus design is concerned with the selection, sequencing and justification of the content of the curriculum” (p.6). The characteristics of a communicative syllabus will be further tackled in the next section.

The steps Nunan (2004) follows in designing language programs are the following:

- Selecting and sequencing real-world/target tasks.
- Creating pedagogical tasks (Rehearsal/Activation).
- Identifying enabling skills: create communicative activities and language exercises.
- Sequencing and integrating pedagogical tasks, communicative activities and language exercises.

2/ Writing of materials:

In relation to the construction of the syllabus, the writing of materials is another major step which should be done to translate the concept (here CC) into a teaching program. For example, Harmer (1998) provided guidelines by introducing a text type, the so called "authentic- simulated" that imitates the authentic one in the following way: “A balance has to be struck between real English on one hand and the student’s capabilities on the other.

3/ Design of teaching activities:

The design of teaching activities is another step to translate CC into a teaching program. One of the goals of CLT is to develop fluency in language use. Activities focusing on fluency might reflect natural use of language, focus on achieving communication, require meaningful
use of language and of communication strategies, produce language that may not be predictable and seek to link language use to context (Richards, 2006, p.14).

Communicative practice refers to activities where practice in using language within a real communicative context is the focus, where real information is exchanged, and where the language used is not totally predictable. Functional communication activities require students to use their language resources to overcome an information gap or solve a problem: Information-Gap Activities and Jigsaw activities (Richards, 2006, pp.15-18).

Richards (2006) argued that other activity types in CLT might include: Task-completion activities such as puzzles, games, map-reading, Information-gathering activities such as student-conducted surveys, interviews, and Searches and opinion-sharing activities in which students compare values, opinions, or beliefs. Moreover, implementing role plays, emphasizing on pair and group work and pushing for Authenticity are suitable for CLT (pp.18-21).

4/ Testing learning outcomes:

As for testing, the tests have to be communicative because in communicative language tests (CL Tests) have to measure the CC realized in the four language skills (Harsono, 2009, p. 239). To develop the CL tests, the procedure is adapted from the model developed by Carroll (1980), Carroll and Hall (1985), and Weir (1990), which includes four major steps, the first two of which are used to develop the CL Tests: designing the tests, developing the tests, operating the tests, and monitoring the test administration.

The instruments used in CL tests were questionnaires for experienced teachers and experts to judge or give comments, opinions, and criticisms. In addition, there are questionnaires for the students doing the CL tests. The analysis of these tests tryout included that of the validity, reliability, and practicality (Harsono, 2009).

From CC to CLT (and vice-versa): a definition of CLT and its implementation in EFL textbooks and curriculum design

This part explores how CLT is implemented in textbooks and curriculum design. This is necessary to study the teachability of CC because to translate CC into a teaching program,
there are at least four levels which should be achieved. Construction of a syllabus and writing of materials are among them.

The 1970s is a period of time in which there is an obvious need in language teaching to give attention to language use as well as language form. Actually, several “notional-functional” or “communicative approaches” to language teaching are advocated. Writers such as (Berns, 1990; Brown, 1994; Howat, 1984; Littlewood, 1981; Mitchell, 1988; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Savignon 1983, 1997; Schulz & Bartz, 1975) and others recognized multiple facets and mutations of CLT. They provided valuable codification of its elements. Some of them are previously tackled. They also expanded its literature and its meaning for practitioners and receivers. Thus, this knowledge could be implemented by teachers to become better teachers of CLT and teach for CC.

**CLT: definition**

CLT is defined as “an approach to foreign or second language teaching which emphasizes that the goal of language learning CC” (Richards et al, 1992, p.65). CLT is also the approach which has been developed by British applied linguists as a reaction away from grammar-based approaches.

**Approach: Theory of learning**

In addition to the theory of language, the elements of an underlying learning theory can be discerned in some CLT practices. One such element might be identified as the communication principle including activities that involve real communication to promote learning. A second element is the task principle including activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks to promote learning (Johnson, 1982). A third element is the meaningfulness principle in which language is meaningful to the learner in order to support the learning process. Consequently, the learning activities are 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 can be inferred from CLT practices (e.g., Littlewood, 1981; Johnson, 1982) (see table 3 in the following section). They address the conditions needed to promote second language learning, rather than the processes of language acquisition.
Savignon (1983) surveyed second language acquisition research as a source for learning theories and considers the role of linguistic, social, cognitive, and individual variables in language acquisition. Johnson (1984) and Littlewood (1984) considered 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 CC in a language is an example of skill development. To acquire CC, learners have to do listening, speaking, reading and writing activities. This involves both a cognitive and a behavioral aspect. Littlewood (1984) explained

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 (p.74)

**Objectives in a communicative approach**

Piepho (1981) stresses the following 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).

(Piepho, 1981, p. 8)

These principles are proposed as general aims. They might be applicable to any teaching situation. Particular objectives for CLT cannot be defined beyond this level of specification. In fact, language teaching will reflect the particular needs of the target learners. These needs
may be in the domains of the four skills. Each skill can be approached from a communicative perspective (see Table 3 in the next section). Curriculum and pedagogical objectives for a particular course would reflect specific aspects of CC according to the learner's proficiency level and communicative needs.

A summary of types of teaching activities and materials translating several pedagogical principles of CLT

The major pedagogical principles of CLT tackled in this section are: CC is considered as a major goal, CLT is a learner-centered approach, meaning is paramount and authenticity of the materials.

The following tables summarize these pedagogical principles and the teaching activities translating them.

Table 3: Communicative Competence is a major goal in CLT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pedagogical principles of CLT (the idea)</th>
<th>Teaching activities and materials (in practice)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Developing students’ CC as a major goal (as cited in Finnochiaro &amp; Brumfit, 1983). CC includes knowledge and awareness of: When to say/ where to say/ to whom to say/ what to say/ how to say.</td>
<td>• Developing learners’ CC by developing their skills: listening speaking, reading and writing. Activities such as: jigsaw tasks, role plays, from life conversations, interviewing stars.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The four skills are integrated and used for interaction.</td>
<td>• Teachers can integrate the language skills. When the tapestry is woven well, learners can use English effectively for communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• There are activities which integrate speaking to listening and reading to writing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In addition to the consideration of CC as a major goal in communicative language teaching, learner-centeredness is another major principle.

Table 4: CLT is a learner-centered approach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pedagogical principles of CLT (the idea)</th>
<th>Teaching activities and materials (in practice)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No teacher intervention and no material control (Ellis, 1990).</td>
<td>Learners are engaged in writing their own poems, reports, stories and projects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT puts focus on the learner (Savignon, 1990).</td>
<td>Global qualitative evaluation of learner achievement as opposed to quantitative assessment of discrete linguistic features. It could be done through portfolio assessment, the collection and evaluation of learners’ poems, reports, stories, videotapes and similar projects in an effort to request and encourage learners’ achievement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher as communication facilitator (Richards &amp; Rodgers, 2001).</td>
<td>Learners are engaged in activities which lead to the integration of skills like telephone conversations, role-plays, debates and group discussions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students ultimately have to use the language productively and receptively (Brown, 1994).</td>
<td>The speaker receives immediate feedback from the listener on whether or not he or she has successfully communicated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Having students work in small groups maximizes the amount of communicative practice they receive. Pair and group work activities (writing, reading).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Learner-centeredness in CLT could be shown through the following pedagogical principles: Assessment is based on the completion of the task or on communicative purpose rather than on the language. Moreover, teachers should not intervene during students’ conversations and should not correct grammar mistakes. The role of the teacher is to facilitate
the communicative activities. He does not interrupt his learners’ to correct them; grammar or spelling mistakes are corrected after students’ conversations.

In CLT methodology, meaning is paramount. Actually, the following table includes teaching activities and materials translating this principle.

Table 5: Meaning is paramount in CLT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pedagogical principles of CLT (the idea)</th>
<th>Teaching activities and materials (in practice)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• CLT focuses on negotiation of meaning.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Meaning is paramount.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The teacher gives the meaning of a word to help them decipher the meaning of the whole text.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• It could be done through role-plays and interviews.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Comparing sets of pictures.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Noting similarities and differences.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Deciphering missing features in a map or picture.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• the teacher provides his students with new vocabulary about the theme of the lesson (nature, pollution, global warming, family life, etc)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• classroom conversations in which students use the newly taught vocabulary.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to focus on meaning, in CLT, teachers have to use “from-life” materials in order to make a secure atmosphere for the learning-teaching process. Many proponents of CLT have advocated the use of "authentic" materials in the classroom. These might include language-based “realia”. The following table includes examples of teaching activities and materials translating this principle.
Table 6: Authenticity of the materials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pedagogical principles of CLT (the idea)</th>
<th>Teaching activities and materials (in practice)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• The use of “from-life” materials in order to make a secure atmosphere for the learning-teaching process (Richards &amp; Rodgers, 2001).</td>
<td>• Games are important because they have certain features in common with real communicative events—there is a purpose to the exchange.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Realia: Many proponents of CLT have advocated the use of &quot;authentic,&quot; &quot;from-life&quot; 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 be built, such as maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, and charts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Activities are chosen according to their efficiency in engaging the students in meaning and authentic language use and learning to communicate through dialogues (Littlewood, 1981).</td>
<td>• Different kinds of objects can be used to support communicative exercises, such as a plastic model to assemble from directions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Participation is decided by: flexibility of the learning environment and the need for variety (each class has its teaching reality) (Breen, 1984).</td>
<td>• Functional communicative activities such as identifying pictures and social interactional activities such as role playing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Authenticity of the materials could also be achieved through the following pedagogical principles. Teachers select and develop their own materials providing with a range of communicative tasks. They are comfortable relying on more global, integrative judgment of learning progress. Any device which helps the learners is accepted and should vary according to their age, interest, need, etc. Moreover, the teacher sets up the exercise, but because the students’ performance is the goal, the teacher must step back and observe, sometimes acting as referee or monitor (Larsen Freeman, 1986).
Authenticity of the materials will help learners to fulfill fluency through several communicative tasks. Activities might vary from one classroom to another according to the class teaching reality. Students’ level varies from one class to another.

These tables tackle the major pedagogical principles of CLT. Nunan (1991) summarized these ideas. Nunan (1991) emphasized on communication in the target language, learner’s personal learning experience, authenticity of materials (texts) and linking activities with language activities outside the classroom.

**Table 7: Nunan’s five principles and teaching activities in CLT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pedagogical principles of CLT (the idea)</th>
<th>Teaching activities and materials (in practice)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nunan’s (1991) five features of CLT:</td>
<td>- eliciting information or opinion via a telephone call (a mock call if necessary) or an e-mail message in the target language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.</td>
<td>- getting information by interviewing someone or surveying a group of people in the target language (using one’s classmates and teacher, if necessary).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Authenticity is to be encouraged. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.</td>
<td>• Using audio and visual materials and texts which are real. Moreover, students might do activities which are “real”; i.e. that they can be asked to do in real life situations (making a telephone conversation with an English native speaker, interviewing a pop star).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language but also on the learning process itself.</td>
<td>- summarizing the gist of a discourse segment with a partner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. An enhancement of the learner’s own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning. CLT is learner-centered.</td>
<td>- role-playing a speech act set (e.g. apologizing for losing a book your friend lent you), perhaps developing a script for acting out the situation in class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activities outside the classroom.</td>
<td>• Focusing on process in learning. For example, when teaching reading, there is an opportunity for students to focus on the skimming or the scanning strategies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Students have the chance to write to express their own feelings or describe their own experiences, thus making the practice of writing meaningful and authentic.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In addition to these principles and activities, CLT is also viewed as different from the traditional methods. This way of teaching seeks to create an eclectic approach which can meet the language learners' needs. It is tested and used permanently and successfully in classrooms around the world and has a major goal; namely, the achievement of CC (Zhao, 2005).

One of the major components of CC is grammatical competence. Before the emergence of CLT, earlier methods of teaching were based on “conscious presentation of grammatical forms and structures or lexical items and did not adequately prepare learners for the effective and appropriate use of language in natural communication” (Murcia, 1997, p.141).

In CLT classrooms, appropriate techniques should be used. In a student-centered communicative classroom, focus should be on students’ needs, styles, goals and control over their learning. This will motivate them to practice communicative tasks.

However, many teachers have never abandoned a grammar-driven approach and it seems to be that alternatives such as task-based pedagogy have not made any continuing impression on the actual practice of ELT. Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell (1997) argued that “CLT is at a crossroads and that the profession is experiencing a paradigm shift toward a more direct approach” and that “explicit, direct elements are gaining significance in teaching communicative abilities and skills” (p.147).

Conclusion:

This literature review, comes out with a debate over CC. It also tackles how CC is translated for teaching. Furthermore, the review sheds light on the interconnectedness between CC and CLT (between theory and practice ) and vice-versa. When defining CC, the researcher cannot really locate himself whether to be in the scope of theory or in the scope of practice.

Moreover, the literature review includes a definition of CLT and its implementation in EFL textbooks and curriculum design. This review ends with a summary of types of teaching activities and materials translating several pedagogical principles of CLT.
References


