4-2-1993

A Pedagogical Framework for Communicative Competence: Content Specifications and Guidelines for Communicative Language Teaching

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Introduction

The early 1990's have witnessed a growing dissatisfaction with the traditional principles and practices of communicative language teaching (CLT), and several applied linguists have voiced the need to introduce reforms. Criticisms levelled at traditional CLT practice and syllabuses center around three interrelated issues:

(a) vague definitions of linguistic content areas and the lack of a research base underlying syllabus design,

(b) ambiguous pedagogical treatment of linguistic forms stemming in large part from the assumption that language structure can be acquired indirectly,

(c) problems with testing learning outcomes in CLT.

In the following, we analyse these three issues in greater detail, then go on to present a framework for communicative competence with pedagogically relevant content specifications. Finally, we reconsider the notion of "language teaching" in view of the implications of current theory.

At the outset, we acknowledge the seminal work of the late Michael Canale, done in collaboration with Merrill Swain (Canale and Swain 1980; Canale 1983). Canale and Swain did much to focus our attention on developing a pedagogically-relevant (and assessment-relevant) framework for communicative competence. We view this paper as a continuation of their earlier work.

Vague definitions of linguistic content areas and the lack of a research base underlying syllabus design

The principles of traditional CLT were based on a functional approach to linguistics (Halliday 1973; Hymes 1972), which was translated into classroom practice by means of the functional syllabuses of Wilkins (1976) and van Ek (1977). We believe that while language functions are an im-

portant part of communicative competence, they are not the whole story. A purely functional approach to language and language use did not provide clear enough specifications of the content areas of CLT. This, in turn, led to a diversity of "communicative approaches" which shared only a very general common objective, namely to prepare learners for real-life communication. Depending on their conception of what constitutes "real-life communication," coursebooks and teachers placed differing emphases on various social and cultural factors. This inherent contextual sensitivity was as important an aspect in CLT as the functional system, but since there was no coherent pragmatic and sociolinguistic model available to draw on, the approaches to raising the learners' social and cultural awareness were again diverse (cf. Berns 1990).

As a consequence of having no coherent underlying theoretical model of linguistic performance, most of the developments in CLT occurred in the practical applications. Indeed, CLT is somewhat lopsided: it contains an elaborate array of classroom activity types (e.g., role-play, simulations, discussions, problem-solving tasks) intended to promote natural language use in the classroom environment; however, we do not really know exactly how these activities work, that is, how they contribute to fostering communicative competence. This problem surfaces explicitly when we want to design, for example, a conversational syllabus: methodologists have only their intuitions to fall back on when it comes to deciding what kind of activities to include and how to weight the different types of tasks. There are no clear-cut guidelines to tell us whether the syllabus is sufficiently comprehensive or whether some important subskills remain uncovered.

In sum, while CLT methodology has offered detailed guidelines on how to create genuine communication situations in the language classroom,

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it has failed to specify which conversational skills and what kind of language input to focus on. In other words, in traditional CLT the "how-to-teach" element was far more developed than the "what-to-teach" element. This is, of course, no accident. In the early and mid-1970's, when the principles of CLT were developed, theoretical and applied linguistics had not produced a clear enough description of communicative competence that methodologists could apply. Since the 1970's things have changed: research in several fields, including oral discourse analysis, conversation analysis, communicative competence research, interlanguage analysis, language input analysis, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, as well as cognitive psychology and social anthropology, have produced results that allow us to outline the content elements of CLT in a far more systematic way than was possible two decades ago. By doing this we ensure that the teaching techniques we employ in the classroom are on a more secure footing.

Ambiguous pedagogical treatment of linguistic forms stemming in large part from the assumption that language structure can be acquired indirectly

In a recent paper, the first author (Celce-Murcia 1991a) points out that during the past 50 years language teaching has followed a fluctuating pattern in terms of the emphasis placed on "bottom-up linguistic skills" versus "top-down communication skills." CLT grew out of a dissatisfaction with earlier methods which were based on conscious presentation of grammatical structures and forms and did not adequately prepare learners for effective and appropriate use of language for natural communication. In strong adaptations of CLT, "grammar" at one point almost became a four-letter word that methodologists with good taste did not mention. In the privacy of the classroom it was considered a pardonable sin to provide some grammar explanation and exercises, but the emphasis had shifted from the development of linguistic *competence* to that of communicative *performance*.

As Schmidt (1991:1.2.2) points out in his critique of CLT, "a general principle of CLT is that language learners gain linguistic form by seeking situational meaning, that is, the linguistic form is learned incidentally rather than as a result of focusing directly on linguistic form." This, however, is not in accordance with cognitive psychological considerations, which suggest that for learning to take place, the learner must pay attention to the learning objective and must then practice the objective so that it changes from being part of a controlled process to becoming part of an automatic process (cf. Schmidt 1990; McLaughlin 1990).

Widdowson (1990) also argues that incidental, "natural" language acquisition is a "long and rather inefficient business" and "the whole point of language pedagogy is that it is a way of short-circuiting the slow process of natural discovery and can make arrangements for learning to happen more easily and more efficiently than it does in 'natural surroundings'" (p. 162). The belief that making learners aware of structural regularities of the target language will greatly increase the rate of language attainment has also been expressed by Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985), who used the term "consciousness raising" to refer to a range of approaches that draw the learner's attention to the formal properties of the target language.

Our question then is whether a direct, explicit approach to the teaching of communicative skills is feasible. We propose that it is and, what is more, we propose that a direct approach could potentially make communicative language teaching far more effective than it is now. We must stop assuming that many of the most significant and meaningful aspects of communicative competence can be acquired incidentally as a by-product of the learner attending to and practicing something else.

Richards (1990) distinguishes two approaches to the teaching of conversation in second language programs:

> One is an indirect approach, in which conversational competence is seen as the product of engaging learners in conversational interaction. The second, a more direct approach, involves planning a conversational program around the specific microskills, strategies, and processes that are involved in fluent conversation (pp. 76-77).

We envisage that future developments in CLT will follow the lines of Richards' "direct approach."[1] We further believe that in order to create an equilibrium between language and communication, it will be necessary to introduce an integrated approach to CLT based on an empirical model of the factors involved in communicative competence. This would also bridge the gap between theory and practice in language teaching/learning research.

Problems with the testing of learning outcomes in CLT

Any language teaching method must be accompanied by language tests which adequately measure the learning outcomes promoted by the particular method, otherwise the wash-back effect of the tests will undermine the effectiveness of the program. As Savignon (1990:211) observes, "many a curricular innovation has been undone by failure to make corresponding changes in evaluation." Current communicative testing methods, she argues, fail to provide sufficient precision, which is a source of frustration for teachers:

> Some teachers understandably are frustrated... by the seeming ambiguity in discussions of communicative competence. Negotiation of meaning is well and good, but this view of language behavior lacks precision, does not provide a universal scale for assessment of individual learners (Savignon 1990:211).

In communicative test design two directions have been significant. One is towards developing *authentic* language tests (such as 'direct' tests or 'performance' tests), where the communicative language abilities of the test-takers are assessed by having them perform tasks intended to reflect the language behavior typical of real-life communication situations. This approach is intuitively convincing and very much in line with the functional approach underlying CLT. Testing research has, however, identified several limitations to this approach. The crux of the problem, as Bachman (1990) points out, lies in the fact that direct testing "treats the behavioral manifestation of an ability as the trait itself" (p. 309). The starting point of designing "authentic" tests is the actual task, rather than a theoretical construct, and test specifications are based on this task. Language tasks, however, are ill-defined domains and the 'authentic' test situation cannot easily be considered representative of the complexity of real-life language use. The ambiguous content representativeness of direct tests, and the tendency in them to identify trait with performance, do not allow for any generalizations to be made beyond the testing context and this limits both the interpretation and usefulness of test results (see Bachman 1990, for further discussion).

A second, related approach to communicative test design is to develop *functional tests* (Spolsky 1989) in which language knowledge is specified and measured in terms of the subject's ability to carry out defined linguistic functions. This approach, again, is in line with the principles of traditional CLT. Functional goals are usually formulated in performance terms; for example, the "discourse trait" in the Canadian "Development of Bilingual Proficiency" project (Harley, Allen, Cummins and Swain 1990) was defined as "the ability to produce and understand coherent and cohesive text" (Harley, Cummins, Swain and Allen 1990:13). Schachter (1990), however, points out that a major problem in the operationalization of this component was that the specification was not sufficiently well defined and thus the list of actual test items showed too much diversity and was rather "odd" (p. 45). This problem is not unique to this particular test; educational testing research has found that 'objectives-based tests' in general fall short of the mark in that the domain specifications, based on behavioral objectives, tend to result in ill-defined domains (Popham 1990). A second limitation of functional tests, pointed out by Spolsky (1989), is the problem of determining which language functions to select for a test. He concludes that "we must find some criterion other than chance to validate the statistical probability of our selection" (p. 142). Only an elaborate theoretical construct can provide such a criterion.

The problems with the two types of communicative test described above point to the fact that the quality of future communicative tests will depend on the quality of their construct definition. Thus, in order to achieve content relevance, we need to have a well-defined target domain based on an explicit theoretical construct. As long as CLT is based on insufficiently detailed domain specifications, the frustration of language teachers is likely to prevail. It seems, therefore, that future developments in both communicative language testing and CLT depend on constructing models of communicative competence in which the main components are clearly defined and the content areas adequately described.

Existing models of communicative competence

The first comprehensive model of communicative competence that was intended to serve educational purposes is that of Canale and Swain (1980), further elaborated in Canale (1983), which posited four components for communicative competence:

1. *Grammatical competence*—the knowledge of the language code (grammatical rules, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, etc.).

2. *Sociolinguistic competence*—the mastery of the sociocultural code of language use (appropriate application of vocabulary, register, politeness and style in a given situation).

3. *Discourse competence*—the ability to combine language structures into different types of cohesive texts (e.g., political speech, poetry).

4. *Strategic competence*—the knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies which enable the learner to overcome difficulties when communication breakdowns occur and which enhance the efficiency of communication.

In spite of criticisms of this model (e.g., Schachter 1990), it has been extremely influential in defining major facets of communicative language use, and has been used as a starting point for most subsequent studies on the issue.

Another model of communicative competence has been proposed by Bachman (1990) and Bachman and Palmer (in press). It sets out to specify communicative language abilities and further develops the Canale and Swain model. Interestingly, this model comes from language testing research, suggesting that a psychometric approach to applied linguistics also has potential to influence future developments in the field.[2] The latest version of the Bachman and Palmer construct (in press) divides language knowledge into the following two main categories:

1. *Organizational knowledge*, which is the knowledge of "those components involved in controlling the formal structure of language for producing or recognizing grammatically correct sentences and for ordering these to form texts" (MS. p. 3/13).

2. *Pragmatic knowledge*, which is the knowledge of "those components that enable us to relate words and utterances to their meanings, to the intentions of language users and to relevant charac-

teristics of the language use contexts" (MS. p. 3/14).

These two components are further divided into subcategories as follows. Organizational knowledge consists of

(a) *grammatical knowledge* (similar to Canale and Swain's grammatical competence), and

(b) *textual knowledge* (similar to but more elaborate than Canale and Swain's discourse competence).

Pragmatic knowledge consists of

(a) *lexical knowledge* (referring to the knowledge of the meanings of words and the ability to use figurative language),

(b) *functional knowledge* ("knowledge of the relationships between utterances and the intentions, or communicative purposes of language users," MS. p. 3/14), and

(c) *sociolinguistic knowledge* (similar to Canale and Swain's sociolinguistic competence).

In situational language use *language knowledge* (as described above) interacts with *metacognitive strategies*, which are of three kinds, (a) *assessment*, (b) *goal-setting* and (c) *planning*. Traditionally conceived 'communication strategies' (such as paraphrase or approximation) belong to the third category, which is consistent with the cognitive approach of Færch and Kasper (1984a), who defined these strategies as a subclass of verbal plans.

Bachman and Palmer's construct thus contains components that are similar to those of the Canale and Swain model, but offers additional elements and is hierarchically ordered. It is a major step towards understanding the nature of communicative language abilities and language use.

The need for a pedagogically oriented grammar of interaction

We have argued above that in order to make CLT more effective, detailed linguistic content specifications need to be included. What we need is a pedagogical grammar of interaction that summarizes the main rules, maxims, conventions, microskills, strategies and routines that speakers use in conducting smooth-running everyday communication. In the following, we outline the main components and content areas of such an interactional grammar. Our model is intended for educational purposes and focuses specifically on the issues that we consider important for classroom teaching.

We are aware that our model has certain inconsistencies and limitations, and that it is therefore likely to raise several questions. However, language teaching methodologists and materials writers badly need a practical description of the areas of interactional language abilities so that they have something to work with at the "fine-tuning" stage. We agree with Corder (1984), who argued that applied linguists should indeed "apply" whatever knowledge is at their disposal:

> There are those who believe that second language acquisition research is still at such a preliminary stage that it is premature to base any proposals for language teaching upon it yet. There are others, among whom I count myself, who believe that it is the task of the applied linguist to make practical use of whatever knowledge is available at the time. We cannot constantly be waiting to see what is round the corner. We must be prepared to stick our necks out (p. 58).

Proposed Construct of Communicative Competence

We represent our model of communicative competence as a pyramid enclosing a circle and surrounded by another circle (see Figure 1). The circle within the pyramid is discourse competence, and the three points of the triangle are sociolinguistic competence, linguistic (or grammatical) competence, and actional competence. Thus our construct deliberately makes the discourse component central, i.e., places it where the lexico-grammatical building blocks, the actional organizing skills of communicative intent, and the sociolinguistic context all come together and shape the discourse, which, in turn, also shapes each of them. The circle surrounding the pyramid represents strategic competence, an ever-present, potentially usable inventory of skills that allows a strategically competent non-native speaker to compensate for deficiencies in any of the other underlying competencies.

Our model is more detailed than Canale and Swain's in that actional competence has been specified in its own right. We differ from Bachman and Palmer in that our model places "lexical knowledge" within linguistic knowledge, following Halliday (1985), who, among others, believes that the line between lexicon and grammar cannot be neatly drawn, and this results in a "lexico-gram-
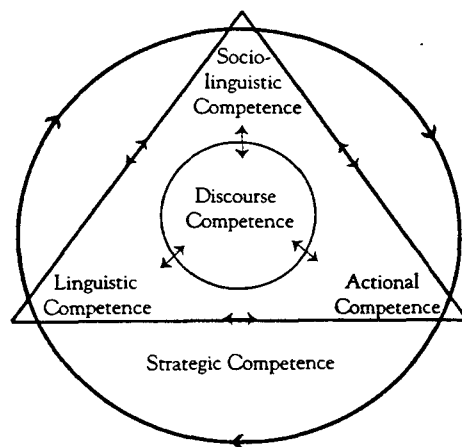

Fig. 1. Schematic Representation of Communicative Competence

mar" that is part of linguistic competence.[3] The "actional competence" component of our framework is similar to Bachman and Palmer's "functional knowledge" in that it specifically concerns language functions. The difference in labelling reflects our somewhat different perspective. Bachman and Palmer (see also Bachman 1990) follow Halliday's (1973) theoretical conception of functional language use, whereas our pedagogical approach involves a more detailed description of speech acts and language functions as defined by Wilkins (1976) and van Ek (1977).

In the following discussion of the model, we begin with linguistic competence as the most familiar component; we then move on to discourse competence, the core, before treating sociolinguistic, actional and strategic competence.

A. LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

Linguistic competence (also referred to as "grammatical competence") is historically the most thoroughly discussed component of our CLT model and, for this reason, our present description of it will be brief. It comprises the nuts and bolts of communication: the sentence patterns and types, the constituent structure, the morphological inflections, and the vocabulary as well as the phonological and orthographic systems needed to realize communication as speech and writing (see Appendix 1).

In the past linguistic competence has often been the primary goal of foreign language teaching (Rutherford 1987). This position is obviously untenable. However, in their zeal to give social and notional-functional aspects of language proper consideration in CLT, many CLT proponents neglected linguistic competence and accepted the premise that linguistic form emerges on its own as a result of learners' engaging in communicative activities (Krashen 1985).

General agreement is now emerging on the fact that applied linguistics needs a new approach to CLT which recognizes that linguistic competence does not emerge on its own, and which fully integrates linguistic competence with the other competencies. This amounts to acknowledging that linguistic resources are a necessary instructional objective in any interactional method. To accomplish this, language teachers and materials developers must have explicit training in the linguistic system of the target language. For background in syntax and morphology in English, see Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983); for background in phonology and orthography, see Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (in press). Teachers also need guidance on how to integrate the linguistic system of the language they are teaching with the other components of our expanded CLT model and how to translate this knowledge into pedagogical activities that will benefit their students.[4]

The final point we would like to make about linguistic competence concerns the interrelated nature of grammar and lexis mentioned above. In language teaching practice this interplay has been recognized by introducing the term 'usage', and indeed we find many examples of "lexicalized sentence stems" (Pawley and Syder 1983) or "formulaic constructions" (Pawley 1992) in most languages, where grammatical formulae are paired with some fixed lexical content. The importance of such (partly) pre-assembled units in our linguistic knowledge should be reflected in the presentation and practice of grammar, a point we will discuss again in the last section of this paper.

B. DISCOURSE COMPETENCE

Discourse competence concerns the selection, sequence, and arrangement of words, structures, and utterances to achieve a unified genre-sensitive spoken or written text. There are many sub-areas that contribute to this competence: *cohesion, deixis, coherence, generic structure,* and the *conversational structure* inherent to the turn-taking system in conversation. (See Appendix 2.)

Cohesion is the area of discourse competence most closely associated with linguistic/grammatical competence (see Halliday and Hasan 1976, 1989). It deals with the bottom-up elements that help generate text. This area accounts for how pronouns, demonstratives, articles and other markers signal textual *co-reference* in written and oral discourse. Cohesion also accounts for how conventions of *substitution* and *ellipsis* allow speakers/writers to avoid unnecessary repetition. The use of *conjunction* (e.g., and, but, however) to make explicit links between propositions in discourse is another important cohesive device. *Lexical chains* and *lexical repetitions*, which relate to derivational morphology, semantics, and content schemata, are a part of cohesion and also coherence, which we discuss below. Finally, the conventions related to the use of *parallel structure*, which are also an aspect of both cohesion and coherence, make it easier for listeners/readers to process a sentence such as "I like swimming and hiking" than to process an unparallel counterpart such as "I like swimming and to hike."

The *deixis system* is an important aspect of discourse competence in that it links the situational context with the discourse, thus making it possible to interpret deictic personal pronouns (I, you); spatial references (here, there); temporal references (now, then); and certain textual references (e.g., the following example). Deixis also is related to sociolinguistic competence; for example, in the choice of *vous/tu* in French or *Sie/du* in German, or the choice of modal verbs in requests for permission in English (May I...? vs. Can I...?).

The most difficult area of discourse competence to describe is *coherence*, and it is typically easier to describe coherence in written than in oral discourse. There is some overlap with cohesion, as we have mentioned above, but coherence is more concerned with macrostructure in that its major focus is the expression of content and top-down organization

of propositions. Coherence is concerned with what is *thematic* (i.e., what is the point of departure of a speaker/writer's message). It is concerned with the *management of information* in a system where old information generally precedes new information in propositions.

Also part of coherence is the *sequencing* or *ordering of propositional structures*, which generally follows certain preferred organizational patterns: temporal/chronological ordering, spatial organization, cause-effect, condition-result, etc. Temporal sequencing has its own conventions in that violations of chronological order must be marked using special adverbial signals and/or marked tenses.

Topic continuity and *topic shifts* are aspects of discourse coherence that have been studied most carefully within the narrative genre (Givón 1983). Here again cohesive devices such as reference markers, substitution/ellipsis, and lexical repetition are used to establish coherence. Closely related to topic continuity and shift is the phenomenon of *temporal continuity* and *shift* (or sequence of tenses) already alluded to above in our mentioning of the temporal sequencing of propositions. Languages often have special framing devices that exploit the tense-aspect-modality system to allow speakers/writers to indicate that stretches of text cohere (Suh 1992). For example, in English an episode with "used to" in its opening proposition followed by a sequence of "would/'d" tokens in subsequent propositions is typical of narrative dealing with the habitual past. Similarly, an episode with "be going to" in the opening proposition followed by "will/'ll" in subsequent propositions is typical of future scenarios.

The *generic structure* of various types of spoken and written texts has long been an object of concern in discourse analysis (Halliday and Hasan 1989; Swales 1990). Every language has its formal schemata (Carrell 1984), which relate to the development of a variety of genres. Certain written genres have a more highly definable structure than others, e.g., research reports (introduction, methods, results, discussion). Likewise, certain spoken genres such as the sermon tend to be more highly structured than oral or written narrative, which is a more open-ended genre but with a set of expected features nonetheless (opening/setting, complication, resolution—all within a unified framework regarding time and participants).

The final aspect of discourse competence that we have outlined above is *conversational structure*, which is inherent to the turn-taking system in oral conversation (Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson 1974). This area is highly relevant for CLT (see Richards 1990), since conversation is the most fundamental means of conducting human affairs. While usually associated with conversation, it is important to realize that these turn-taking conventions may also extend to other oral genres such as narratives, interviews, or lectures. The turn-taking system deals with how people *open* and *reopen* conversation, how

they *establish* and *change topics*, how they *hold* and *relinquish the floor*, how they *backchannel*, how they *interrupt*, how they *collaborate*, and how they *perform preclosings* and *closings*. These "interactive procedures" are often performed by means of "discourse regulating gambits" (Kasper 1989:190) or conventionalized formulaic devices, which take the form of phrases or conversational routines. Polished conversationalists are in command of hundreds, if not thousands, of such phrases, and these phrases lend themselves to explicit classroom teaching[5].

The turn-taking system is closely associated with the notion of *adjacency pairs* and also with *repair*, i.e., how speakers correct themselves or others in conversation, which we discuss under strategic competence. *Adjacency pairs* form discourse "chunks" where one speaker initiates (e.g., Hi, how are you?) and the other responds (e.g., Fine, thanks. And you?) in ways that are describable and often quite predictable. Some adjacency pairs involve giving a "preferred" response to a first-pair part (e.g., in accepting an invitation that has just been extended); such responses are usually direct and structurally simple. However, other responses are viewed as "dispreferred" and will require more effort and follow-up work on the part of participants than will a preferred response (e.g., when declining an invitation). Dispreferred responses occur less frequently than the preferred ones, and tend to pose more language difficulties for learners.

To conclude this section, we would like to emphasize once again that discourse forms the crucial central component in our model of communicative competence. This is where the nuts and bolts of the lexico-grammatical microlevel intersect with the top-down signals of the macrolevel of communicative intent and sociocultural context to express attitudes and messages, and to create texts.

C. ACTIONAL COMPETENCE[6]

Actional competence can be described as the ability (a) to perform speech acts and language functions, (b) to recognize and interpret utterances as (direct or indirect) speech acts and language functions, and (c) to react to such utterances appropriately.

While we are critical of the 'functions only' approach to CLT and, indeed, there are some indications that speech act theory is gradually losing favor in pragmatics and applied linguistics (Levinson 1983, Tarone and Yule 1989), we believe that actional competence is an important part of L2 interactional knowledge. The frequency with which language functions are used has resulted in highly conventionalized forms, fixed phrases, routines and strategies in every language. Learners need to build up a repertoire of such phrases to be able to perform speech acts effectively, and therefore we must assign them an important place in interactional syllabuses.

The system of language functions has traditionally been the most highly developed linguistic con-

tent area in CLT. In the 1960's and 1970's Austin (1962) and Searle's (1969) speech act theory and Halliday's (1973) work on functional systems prepared the ground for a new approach to defining language teaching syllabuses based on performance objectives, that is, stressing the importance of what people *do* with language over linguistic form. In the mid-70's Wilkins (1976) introduced the concept of a functional syllabus, and van Ek (1977) in his Threshold Level, produced a detailed and practical set of language functions to serve as a workable guide for classroom teachers and materials writers.[7]

The main problem with the notion of language functions is that while it appears to be generally understood, one cannot easily provide a scientific definition of it (Berns 1990). As a consequence, functions are often described either very broadly or in a manner which is too situation-specific. Any attempt to categorize them with the aim of producing an all-purpose system for language teaching is likely to come under criticism for being somewhat ad-hoc and introspective.

The table in Appendix 3 outlines our conception of the domain of actional competence, divided into two main components, *performing language functions* and *interpreting illocutionary meaning and indirect speech acts*. Based partly on Finocchiaro and Brumfit's (1983) and van Ek and Trim's (1991) work, the table categorizes language functions according to seven key areas: *interpersonal exchange, information, opinions, feelings, suasion, problems*, and *future*. We do not claim, however, that this is a comprehensive list nor that the categorization has unshakable underlying sociolinguistic validity. Rather, we intend it to serve as a helpful organizational construct and a practical guide for teachers, materials writers and language testers. Clearly further research needs to be done on the ordering and the weighting of the various components.

The second main component of actional competence concerns the interpretation of illocutionary meaning and especially indirect speech acts. Indirect speech acts are rarely covered in foreign language teaching syllabuses, which might suggest to learners that "the most common realization forms for all speech acts are the most direct, and [yet] ... the majority of speech acts are most frequently realized indirectly" (Levinson 1983:264). Some indirect speech acts have become so conventionalized as a result of their frequency that they no longer strike native speakers as indirect. This, however, does not hold true for non-native speakers, who often have problems understanding such conventions and therefore tend to underutilize them even at advanced levels (Preston 1989). To give an example, when a group of Hungarian teenagers on an exchange program in Britain were instructed by the English group leader, "You want to be back here by five o'clock," someone answered, "No, we don't. Can we come back at six?" (Dörnyei and Thurrell 1992).

How do native speakers cope with indirect speech acts? According to Olshtain and Cohen (1991:155), they "recognize the illocutionary force of an utterance by pairing up the situational information within which the utterance has been produced with the context of that utterance." Cook (1985) points out that the functions and realizations of speech acts interact with participant characteristics and individual perception of the situation, which is further complicated by the fact that "speech act functions may overlap or a speaker may have several intentions in mind; thus a simple utterance can have more than one function" (Hatch 1992:135). The key, then, to developing student awareness of language functions and speech acts is to present them in larger pragmatic contexts for interpretation and to emphasize their situational constraints (cf. Flowerdew 1990). The context-bound character of actional competence relates it closely to sociolinguistic competence, which is why speech acts are often discussed within the area of sociolinguistic competence.

The situation-specific nature of speech acts and language functions suggests that they could be taught more effectively within the larger context of interaction. Most often the patterns of interaction surrounding a particular speech act are themselves highly conventionalized and these larger units have been referred to as "speech act sets" (Olshtain and Cohen 1991:155), "verbal exchange patterns" (van Ek and Trim 1991:93) or "speech events" (Hatch 1992:136). Let us take as an example Olshtain and Cohen's (1991:156) "apology speech act set," which consists of five realization patterns: *expressing an apology* and *expressing responsibility, offering an explanation, offering repair* and *promising nonrecurrence*. We agree with Olshtain and Cohen that future CLT syllabuses should take into account the way functions and speech acts break down into such sets and recommend that speech acts be presented and taught accordingly. Further research is needed to establish a generic structure for all speech act sets, to pinpoint obligatory and optional elements, and to set up a stepwise sequence for teaching purposes.

D. SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

Sociolinguistic competence refers to the speaker's knowledge of how to express the message appropriately within the overall context of communication; in other words, this dimension of communicative competence is concerned with pragmatic factors related to variation in interlanguage use. These factors are complex and interrelated, which stems from the fact that language is not simply a communication coding system but also an integral part of the individuals' identity and the most important channel of social organization, embedded in the culture of the communities where it is used. As Nunan (1992:23) states, "Only by studying language in its social and cultural contexts, will we come to appreciate the

apparent paradox of language acquisition: that it is at once a deeply personal and yet highly social process."

Language learners face this complexity as soon as they first try to apply the L2 knowledge they have learned to real-life communication, and these first attempts can be disastrous: the "culture-free," "out-of-context" and very often even "meaning-free" L2 instruction (Damen 1987:xvii) which is so typical of foreign language classes around the world, simply does not prepare learners to cope with the complexity of real-life language use efficiently. L2 learners should be made aware of the fact that making a social or cultural blunder is likely to lead to far more serious communication breakdowns than a linguistic error or the lack of a particular word. Raising sociolinguistic awareness, however, is not an easy task, because, as Wolfson (1989) points out, sociolinguistic rules and normative patterns of expected or acceptable behavior have not yet been adequately analysed and described. She does, however, argue that "language learners and others who are involved in intercultural communication can at least be made sensitive to the fact that these patterns exist, and can be guided in ways to minimize misunderstandings" (pp. 2-3).

We have divided the relevant sociolinguistic variables into four main categories (see Appendix 4). The first set of variables, *social contextual factors*, concerns the main variables related to the participants in the interaction and the communicative situation. The participants' *age, office* (profession, rank and public position), *status* (social standing), *social distance* from each other, and their *relations* to the others (both in terms of power and affect) are known to determine how they talk and are talked to (cf. Preston 1989; Brown and Levinson 1987). It may be less widely known among language teachers that *gender* can also be the source of linguistic variation.[8] Situational variables involve the *temporal* and *physical* aspects of the interaction (time and duration, location) as well as the social dimension of the *situation* (e.g., a formal reception). Teachers can raise student awareness of the importance of these contextual factors by asking them to prepare variations of a dialogue by changing some basic parameters.[9]

The second category in Appendix 4, *stylistic appropriateness factors*, includes variables that lend themselves to explicit and didactic instruction. The most important *politeness strategies* can readily be presented as explicit language teaching input.[10] The main characteristics of various *styles* and *registers* can also be summarized and presented for the students, who can then practice these through role-play transformation exercises, for example.

Sociocultural factors involve three main components: *sociocultural background knowledge of the target language community, awareness of major dialect differences*, and *cross-cultural awareness*. Widdowson (1990) refers to these areas of knowledge as "schematic knowledge," which complements the

"systemic knowledge" of the language code; he argues that in real-life communication, the systemic knowledge is subservient to the schematic. The *sociocultural background knowledge of the target language community* is given its due importance by van Ek and Trim (1991), who assign a separate category to such issues in their Threshold Level objectives. We share the belief that some knowledge of the life and traditions of the target speaker community is prerequisite to successful communication with its members. The *awareness of major dialect differences* is particularly important with languages like English, where several considerably different standard regional varieties exist. As for *cross-cultural awareness*, there are so many culture-specific *do's* and *don't's* that without any knowledge of these, a language learner is constantly walking through a cultural minefield. Second language acquisition and "second culture acquisition" (Robinson 1991) are inextricably bound; however, as Damen (1987) points out, there are very few textbooks available to aid the teaching of culture and, in fact, the unsystematic "insertion into the lesson plans of inventories of cultural tidbits ... is often counterproductive" (p. 5). Robinson (1991) draws our attention to the fact that very often teachers focus only on cross-cultural differences without actively trying to look for (a) "similarities as an initial point of departure," and (b) "similarities beneath the differences" (p. 119) which can invoke empathy to the learners and encourage learning via analogy.

The fourth main component of sociolinguistic competence involves *non-verbal communicative factors*. As Pennycook (1985) reiterates, "actions speak louder than words," with non-verbal communication carrying a significant proportion of social meaning. Because it operates largely on an unconscious level, L2 speakers may not even realize that some miscommunication can be fostered by inappropriate non-verbal signals. As a first awareness exercise, it might be worth analyzing video recordings with students to demonstrate how our bodies convey information constantly during any interaction.

Non-verbal communication in our model is divided into five components. The first is *kinesic behaviour* or *body language*, involving nonverbal signals to regulate turn-taking (e.g., intake of breath, tensing the body and leaning forward) or to indicate to the interlocutor that what he/she says is being understood, as well as affective markers (such as facial expressions), gestures (especially the ones with conventionalized meanings) and eye contact (Kellerman 1992). The second component, *proxemic factors*, concerns the speakers' use of space (e.g., physical distance between people), and the third, *haptic factors*, concerns the role of touching in the target language community; both factors can be the source of a lot of cross-cultural tension. The fourth component involves *paralinguistic factors* such as acoustical sounds (e.g., grunts) and nonvocal noises

(e.g., hisses), but it does not include intonation, which we consider to be part of the basic linguistic code and thus part of linguistic competence. Paralinguistic factors add to the message and play an important role in giving it affective depth, as well as functioning as backchannel signals. The final component, *silence*, carries a lot of socially and culturally determined meaning, as is expressed by phrases like "pregnant pause or "eloquent silence."

E. STRATEGIC COMPETENCE

Strategic competence can be conceptualized as the knowledge of and competence in using communication strategies.[11] Definitions of communication strategies typically highlight three functions of strategy use:

(a) Overcoming problems in realizing verbal plans, e.g., avoiding trouble spots or compensating for not knowing a vocabulary item (cf. Færch and Kasper 1984a).

(b) Sorting out confusion and partial or complete misunderstanding in communication, e.g., by employing repair or negotiating meaning (cf. Tarone 1980; Gass and Varonis 1991).

(c) Remaining in the conversation and keeping it going in the face of communication difficulties, and playing for time to think, e.g., by using gambits, fillers or hesitation devices (cf. Dörnyei, Csomay and Fischer 1993).

Based on the above aspects, our model of strategic competence (see Appendix 5) consists of five main components:

Avoidance strategies involve tailoring one's message to one's resources and are often seen as undesirable for L2 learners because by using them learners "take the easy way out" and reduce their intended message. In our experience, however, the ability to avoid topics, or replace messages, can contribute to the L2 speaker's fluency by providing them with room to maneuver when in difficulty, and allowing them to continue rather than abandoning the conversation.

Achievement strategies involve achieving one's communicative goal by manipulating available language and thus compensating somehow for linguistic deficiencies. Speech performance studies have identified more than a dozen strategies falling into this category[12]; however, while learners should be aware of the role and importance of all such strategies, we would recommend using the condensed list in Appendix 5 for explicit teaching.

Stalling and time-gaining strategies enable learners to fill pauses and thus both maintain the flow of conversation, and buy time for making (alternative) speech plans. While the instruction of these strategies has been reported to be successful (see Dörnyei, Csomay and Fischer 1993), there is always a danger that learners will use superficially taught fillers/gambits inappropriately (cf. Færch and Kasper 1984b; Edmondson and House 1981).

The second-to-last category in Appendix 5, *repair* (correcting something in one's own or in the interlocutor's speech) and the sub-heading *meaning negotiation strategies* highlight the interactional aspect of strategy use. The strategies in these categories help learners handle problems which surface during the course of conversation and are therefore invaluable "first aid" devices. Using Varonis and Gass's (1985) system, we have divided negotiation of meaning into ways of *indicating a problem, responding* to such an indication, and making *comprehension checks*.

We believe that communication strategy training should have an important place in language teaching syllabuses. After all, a significant portion of real-life communication in a second language is problematic (cf. Gass & Varonis, 1991) and yet language classes do not generally prepare students to cope with performance problems. Our practical experience and the little empirical research data that are available suggest that some strategy instruction is possible.[13] This might involve raising learner consciousness about communication strategies, encouraging learners to use strategies, and providing them with opportunities for practice, as well as teaching them the most common linguistic devices which are used to verbalize these strategies.

"Teaching" Communicative Skills

In our discussion of the five components we posit for communicative competence, we made frequent references to the possible ways in which they could be taught. In this section we summarize our views on what "teaching" communicative skills in a systematic way might involve.

In the past language teaching has been understood mainly in two ways: (a) as a direct activity, focused on fostering grammatical competence by passing on new information, primarily grammar rules and vocabulary; and (b) as an indirect activity, focused on fostering all the other components of communicative competence by setting up and managing communicative situations in the classroom (e.g., role-plays or problem-solving tasks) which facilitate incidental learning. We would argue that there is a strong case for integrating the two approaches in a new, systematic CLT methodology, i.e., adopting some features of the direct approach to complement the indirect approach in teaching communicative skills, which by definition must go beyond the sentence level. However, this will necessitate a reappraisal of what "language teaching" involves.

There are three main points guiding our reconsideration of teaching:

1. Communicative competence has two facets: knowing and doing. That is, it combines knowledge (linguistic, discourse, actional, sociolinguistic, and strategic) with the ability to put this knowledge into practice. This combination has been referred to as "knowledge and ability for use" (Hymes 1972), "competence and performance" (Schachter 1990, following Chomsky's view), "knowledge and skill" (Canale and Swain 1980; Canale 1983), and

"declarative and procedural knowledge" (e.g., Kasper 1989, following the terminology of cognitive psychology). Whereas in the past, language teaching alternated between direct, knowledge-oriented, and indirect, skill-oriented approaches, what we now need are methods which "realize the necessary interdependence between knowledge and behavior" (Widdowson 1990:164); methods which synthesize the two approaches, and lead to the automatization of sub-skills through extended opportunity for practice.

2. As Candlin (1986) points out, although communicative language use is governed by organizational principles or rules, these are very different from the fairly clear-cut, categorical rules of sentence-bound grammar. They are, in fact, more like "guidelines, maxims, and standards" (p. 44). As we have pointed out earlier, such organizational principles, normative patterns and conventions have not been described explicitly (cf. also Savignon 1983) and therefore they cannot be taught in the same way as grammar rules.

3. We have mentioned that the "building blocks" of the components of communicative competence are quite often (partly) pre-assembled, conventionalized routines and chunks of language. Widdowson (1989:135) takes this notion further in his claim that

> communicative competence is not a matter of knowing rules for the composition of sentences and being able to employ such rules to assemble expressions from scratch as and when occasion requires. It is much more a matter of knowing a stock of partially pre-assembled patterns, formulaic frameworks, and a kit of rules, so to speak, and being able to apply the rules to make whatever adjustments are necessary according to contextual standards.

The implications of this are that in order to be communicatively competent, learners need to build up an extensive repertoire of such pre-fabricated structures and that therefore such structures should be taught specifically. However, this will involve a somewhat different approach than that of teaching single vocabulary items, and a suitable methodology still awaits development.

A new, more systematic approach to CLT needs to take the above three points into consideration in developing classroom teaching techniques. The challenge is great but there are indications that such a "reformation" of language teaching methodology is possible. Based on Rutherford and Sharwood Smith's work (e.g. 1985), "consciousness raising" has come to be seen as a new way of dealing with and nurturing bottom-up linguistic skills. Ellis (1993) describes three types of consciousness raising activity, compatible with findings in second language acquisition research: (1) "focused communication activities" (producing a grammatical focus in the context of communicative activities),

(2) "consciousness-raising tasks" (helping the learners construct their own explicit grammar deductively), and (3) "interpretation grammar tasks" (providing learners input that has been selected or manipulated to contain examples of the particular grammatical structure). With respect to teaching lexicon, Gatbonton and Segalowitz (1988) describe a technique they call "creative automatization," which aims at promoting the acquisition of formulaic utterances, and Nattinger and De Carrico (1992) discuss how "lexical phrases" can serve as an effective basis for learning. Carolyn Graham's "Jazz Chants" (1978), "Small Talk" (1986), and "Grammarchants" (1993) use a chant-like, recitative technique to help learners memorize formulaic, lexicogrammatical patterns and constructions, and the same rationale also lies behind using songs in language teaching (e.g., Griffee 1992). Finally, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1992) have developed techniques to revitalize "dialogue teaching," adapting it to suit the presentation and practice of a wide range of conversation-related issues. These are just a few examples we know of which illustrate the new directions language teaching methodology is taking.

In the following, we outline some further issues concerning the teaching of the five component competencies. Much has been said about the development of *linguistic competence*; Larsen-Freeman (1991) provides an overview, and the reader should also refer to the references listed in Note 4. As we have seen, some parts of *discourse competence*, especially cohesion and deixis, are closely related to grammar, and can be taught in a similar fashion. In addition, we would propose teaching learners the rudiments of discourse analysis, which will empower them ultimately to plan, monitor and evaluate their language use more effectively (Celce-Murcia 1992). Færch, Haastrup and Phillipson (1984) also argue that metalinguistic and metacommunicative knowledge (or awareness) has a direct utility value in the development of language proficiency.

With regard to the "interactive procedures" related to turn-taking and conversational structure, their application presupposes "both knowing and using the properties of discourse structure, and selecting and combining declarative linguistic and other knowledge in a goal-related and context-adequate way" (Kasper 1989:190). Learners can, to some extent, rely on their L1 interactive skills, but Kasper found that with only classroom experience that does not focus on interactive skills, learners do not always make efficient use of these previously acquired procedures and tend to apply them in a qualitatively and quantitatively reduced way.

Developing the learner's *actional competence* is in many ways similar to developing interactive procedures. We have argued above that speech acts and language functions are typically associated with conventionalized formulaic routines which should be presented in larger pragmatic contexts

for interpretation, emphasizing their situational constraints. Unless we do this, learners will repeatedly fail to convey or comprehend the intended illucotionary force or politeness value of these communicative acts (Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper 1989a).

Sociolinguistic competence entails culturally and socially bound maxims, conventions, tendencies, etc., described with a varying degree of specification. The aspect of this domain that will be particularly problematic for learners is the function of the relative interrelation between the communicative styles of the particular learner group and those of the particular target language community. Marsch (1990) proposes that teachers should conduct a "cultural needs analysis" among their students using a questionnaire format to select the relevant 'cultural rules' to be taught. Some of the elements of sociolinguistic competence are particularly difficult to teach because they operate on an unconscious level, and are embedded in the learner's behavioral and emotional repertoire. Here again consciousness raising appears to be necessary. Valdes (1986) provides a series of practical classroom activities, such as exploiting the use of literature, processing lists of culture-sensitive themes and topics, facilitating cultural awareness, discussing potential "culture bumps," and designing "culture tests." The reader should also refer to Damen (1987) and Pennycook (1985) for further ideas and discussion.

The explicit training of *strategic competence* is a fairly new idea. We have argued that communication strategies are teachable and that strategy training might involve raising learner consciousness about communication strategies, encouraging learners to use strategies, providing them with opportunities for practice, as well as teaching them the most common linguistic devices which are used to verbalize these strategies. Publications which contain practical classroom activities include Savignon (1983), Tarone (1984), Pattison (1987), and Dörnyei & Thurrell (1991, 1992). Finally, as we have pointed out in Note 10, communication strategies comprise only one aspect of a broadly conceived strategic competence. We believe that an important part of future CLT will be the promotion of learner autonomy and teaching learners to learn, that is, promoting learning strategies. For an extensive discussion of these, see Oxford (1990), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Wenden (1991), and for practical ideas, see Ellis and Sinclair (1989).

Conclusion

This paper attempts to form a bridge between linguistic theory and language teaching practice, which, as Larsen-Freeman (1990:261) points out, have not been sufficiently integrated to date:

> In the second language teaching field there is no interdependence among theory, practice and research. There is no dependence either. Each

of these sectors operates independently for the most part, seemingly unaffected by the others. Teachers teach in a manner consistent with their own oft implicit, and somewhat idiosyncratic, 'small-t' theories... I regret that there is not a more coordinated approach to understanding the challenge of second language teaching.

Our main argument echoes an observation made by Canale more than ten years ago:

> the current disarray in conceptualization, research and application in the area of communicative language pedagogy results in large part from failure to consider and develop an adequate theoretical framework (Canale 1983:2).

In the past decade much research related to communicative competence and communicative language use has emerged in various fields, which now allows us to develop a framework with more detailed content specifications than was possible in the early 1980's. Our construct is motivated by practical considerations reflecting our interests in language teaching, language analysis, and teacher training. Its purpose is to organize the knowledge available about language use beyond the level of the isolated sentence in a way that is consumable for classroom practice. This knowledge may be fragmentary, but we believe that a great deal more of it is relevant and potentially applicable than is currently exploited in CLT.

Canale (1983) distinguished between a 'framework' and a 'model' of communicative competence, the latter being of a higher order than the former since it also specifies how the various component competencies are acquired and how they interact. In this sense, our construct is more 'framework' than 'model.'[14] However, as Canale (1983) pointed out, the process of developing a 'model' includes stages of elaborating on the description of the 'framework,' since "the specification of how various sets of knowledge and skills interact and develop (a model) can only be as strong as the specification of these various competencies (a framework)" (p. 12). We see our paper as part of an ongoing discussion and call for further research and contributions toward the creation of a more elaborate set of guidelines for curriculum design, language analysis, materials development, teacher training, classroom research, and language assessment.

We envisage several paths of investigation that could contribute to the articulation of an empirically-based model of communicative competence. One is an education-oriented path, which draws on what we know about language teaching and learning. Another is that of language analysis, which involves the exploitation of various forms of data-based analysis, such as conversation analysis, speech act theory, genre-based research, research on cohesion and coherence, collocations and prefabricated routines, etc. A third path is a psycho-

metric approach whereby sophisticated testing methods and measurement theories as well as powerful statistical tools are utilized to uncover the complexities of and interrelationships among communicative language abilities. A fourth path is based on second language acquisition research, and would attempt to set up a developmental framework for the internalization of a second language. Finally, a fifth, neurobiological, path could specify anatomical correlates in the human brain for cognitive and affective factors known to influence language use and learning.[15] In this paper we have begun to synthesize the first two approaches (pedagogy and language analysis). The ultimate goal, we believe, is to achieve a model where all five approaches can interact compatibly in a mutually productive manner.

End Notes

[1]See Dörnyei and Thurrell (1992), for a practical adaptation of the direct approach.

[2]Two recent valuable contributions to the study of language abilities from a psychometric perspective are by Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1992), who try to operationalize in quantitative terms what we know about sociolinguistic and pragmatic skills; and by Bachman, Purpura and Cushing (1993), who set out to define test-taker characteristics and provide a detailed typology of sociopsychological and strategic factors involved in language learning and use.

[3]See Larsen-Freeman (1992) and Celce-Murcia (1992) for further discussion.

[4]Helpful pedagogical suggestions are available in Celce-Murcia and Hilles (1988), McKay (1985), Rinvolucri (1985), Frank and Rinvolucri (1991), Harmer (1987), Ur (1988), and Jones (1992).

[5]Lists of such gambits and phrases can be found, for example, in Keller and Taba-Warner (1976, 1979), and Dörnyei and Thurrell (1992).

[6]A close parallel to actional competence in oral communication would be "rhetorical competence" in written communication, which includes analysis of the "moves" and "lexical routines" typical of any given written genre (see Swales 1992, Hoey 1991, and Bachman 1990). Because we have focused on oral communication in this paper, we cannot also discuss rhetorical competence; however, this would have to be fully developed in a complete model.

[7]The Threshold Level is a pragmatic and flexible taxonomy, which has been subject to constant modification and refinement based on feedback from teachers (cf. Flowerdew 1990). The reader should refer to van Ek and Trim (1991) for the latest version.

[8]For an overview, see Holmes (1991), and a recent thematic issue of *Journal of Pragmatics* 18/5, 1992.

[9]See Dörnyei and Thurrell (1992), especially pp. 118-124.

[10]For a theoretical overview, see Brown and Levinson (1987), and Blum-Kulka and Kasper (1990); for practical lists of strategies with examples, see van Ek and Trim (1991), and Dörnyei and Thurrell (1992).

[11]Our conception of strategic competence follows that of Canale and Swain (1980). However, research in the 1980's identified several other types of strategy relevant to language learning, language processing, and language use. Oxford (1990), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Wenden (1991) provide a detailed discussion of learning strategies. Bachman, Purpura and Cushing (1993) propose a comprehensive system of strategies that contains three main components: *cognitive strategies*, *metacognitive strategies*, and *communication* or *language use strategies* (see also Bachman 1990, Bachman and Palmer in press). In our pedagogically oriented framework, we limited our focus to communication strategies because these are the strategies most relevant to communicative competence.

[12]See Dörnyei, Kertész and Komor (1993), for a review.

[13]It should be mentioned, however, that there has been considerable controversy over the explicit teachability of communication strategies (see Bialystok 1990, Kellerman 1991, Dörnyei, Csomay and Fischer 1993, for an overview).

[14]We do, however, make a first stab at model building in Figure 1.

[15]See Jacobs and Schumann (1992), and Schumann (1992).

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Appendix 1: Suggested components of linguistic competence

SYNTAX
- Constituent/phrase structure
- Word order (canonical and marked)
- Agreement/concord
- Sentence types
  statements, negatives, questions, imperatives, exclamations
- Special constructions
  existentials (there + BE...)
  clefts (It's x that/who...; What + sub. + verb + BE)
  question tags, etc.
- Modifiers/intensifiers
  quantifiers, comparing and equating
- Coordination (and, or, etc) and correlation (both X and Y; either X or Y)
- Subordination (e.g., adverbial clauses, conditionals)
- Embedding
  noun clauses, relative clauses (e.g., restrictive and non-restrictive)
  reported speech

MORPHOLOGY
- Parts of speech
- Inflections
- Derivational processes (productive ones)
  compounding, affixation, conversion/incorporation

LEXICON (receptive and productive)
- Words
  content words (Ns, Vs, ADJs)
  function words (pronouns, prepositions, verbal auxiliaries, etc.)
- Routines
  word-like fixed phrases (e.g., of course, all of a sudden) formulaic and semi-formulaic chunks (e.g., how do you do?)

- Collocations
  V-Obj (e.g., spend money), Adv-Adj (e.g., mutually intelligible), Adj-N (e.g., tall building)
- Idioms (e.g., kick the bucket)

PHONOLOGY (for pronunciation)
- Segmentals
  vowels, consonants, syllable types, sandhi variation (changes and reductions between adjacent sounds in the stream of speech)
- Suprasegmentals
  prominence, stress, intonation, rhythm

ORTHOGRAPHY (for spelling)
- Letters (if writing system is alphabetic)
- Phoneme-grapheme correspondences
- Rules of spelling
- Conventions for mechanics and punctuation

Appendix 2: Suggested components of discourse competence
COHESION
- Reference (anaphora, cataphora)
- Substitution/ellipsis
- Conjunction,
- Lexical chains (related to content schemata), parallel structure

DEIXIS
- Personal (pronouns)
- Spatial (here, there; this, that)
- Temporal (now, then; before, after)
- Textual (the following chart; the example above)
- Social (see sociolinguistic competence)

COHERENCE
- Thematization and staging (theme-rheme development)
- Management of old and new information
- Propositional structures and their organizational sequences: temporal, spatial, cause-effect, condition-result, etc.
- Topic continuity/shift
- Temporal continuity/shift (sequence of tenses)

GENRE/GENERIC STRUCTURE (formal schemata)
  narrative, interview, service encounter, research report, sermon, etc.

CONVERSATIONAL STRUCTURE (inherent to the turn-taking system in conversation but may extend to oral genres)
- Performing openings and reopenings
- Establishing & changing topics
- Holding & relinquishing the floor; backchanneling
- Interrupting
- Collaborating
- Performing preclosings and closings

- Adjacency pairs (related to actional competence)
    first and second pair parts (preferred and dispreferred responses)

Appendix 3: Suggested components of actional competence
PERFORMING LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS
INTERPERSONAL EXCHANGE
- Greeting and leavetaking
- Making introductions, identifying oneself
- Extending, accepting and declining invitations and offers
- Making and breaking engagements
- Expressing and acknowledging gratitude
- Complimenting and congratulating
- Reacting to the interlocutor's speech
  I'm listening/following; I'm (not) interested; I'm (not) surprised; I sympathize; I'm pleased to hear that; I find it difficult to believe;I'm disappointed

INFORMATION
- Asking for and giving information
- Reporting (describing and narrating)
- Remembering
- Explaining and discussing

OPINIONS
- Expressing and finding out about opinions and attitudes
- Agreeing and disagreeing
- Approving and disapproving
- Showing satisfaction and dissatisfaction

FEELINGS
- Expressing and finding out about feelings: love, happiness, sadness, pleasure, anxiety, anger, embarrassment, pain, relief, fear, annoyance, surprise, etc.

SUASION
- Suggesting, requesting and instructing
- Giving orders, advising and warning
- Persuading, encouraging and discouraging
- Asking for, granting and withholding permission

PROBLEMS
- Complaining and criticizing
- Blaming and accusing
- Admitting and denying
- Regretting
- Apologizing and forgiving

FUTURE
- Expressing and finding out about wishes, hopes, and desires
- Expressing and eliciting plans, goals, and intentions
- Promising

- Predicting and speculating
- Discussing possibilities and capabilities of doing something

INTERPRETING ILLOCUTIONARY MEANING AND INDIRECT SPEECH ACTS

Appendix 4: Suggested components of sociolinguistic competence

SOCIAL CONTEXTUAL FACTORS
- Participant variables
  age, gender, office and status, social distance, relations (power and affective)
- Situational variables
  time, place, social situation

STYLISTIC APPROPRIATENESS FACTORS
- Politeness conventions and strategies
- Stylistic variation
  degrees of formality
  field-specific registers

SOCIOCULTURAL FACTORS
- Sociocultural background knowledge of the target language community living conditions (way of living, living standards); historical background; social and institutional structure; social conventions and rituals; major values, beliefs, and norms; taboo topics
- Awareness of major dialect differences
- Cross-cultural awareness
  differences; similarities; strategies for cross-cultural communication

NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATIVE FACTORS
- Kinesic factors (body language)
  discourse controlling behaviours (non-verbal turn-taking signals)
    backchannel behaviors
    affective markers (facial expressions), gestures, eye contact
- Proxemic factors (use of space)
- Haptic factors (touching)
- Paralinguistic factors
  acoustical sounds, nonvocal noises
- Silence

Appendix 5: Suggested components of strategic competence

AVOIDANCE STRATEGIES
- Topic avoidance
- Message replacement

ACHIEVEMENT STRATEGIES
- Circumlocution
- Approximation
- Use of all-purpose words
- Use of non-linguistic means (mime, pointing, gestures, drawing pictures)

STALLING STRATEGIES
- Use of fillers and hesitation devices

REPAIR
- Self-initiated
- Other-initiated (see also meaning negotiation)

INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES
- Appeal for help
  direct
  indirect
- Meaning negotiation strategies
  Indicators of non/mis-understanding
  asking for repetition
  asking for clarification
  expressing non-understanding
  - verbal
  - non-verbal (raised eyebrows, blank look)
    confirmation requests
    interpretive summary
  Responses
  repetition
  rephrasing
  expansion
  reduction
  Comprehension checks
  checking that the interlocutor can follow you
  checking that the interlocutor is listening/ paying attention
  checking that the interlocutor can hear you