

The introduction of the construct communicative competence in discussions of second/foreign language proficiency dates from the early 1970s. Without reference to methodology, the term "communicative" was used to describe programs that used a functional-notional syllabus based on needs assessment, and the language for specific purposes (LSP) movement was launched. Concurrent development in Europe focused not only on the goals but also on the process of communicative classroom language learning. In Germany, for example, against a backdrop of social democratic concerns for individual empowerment articulated in the writings of sociologist and philosopher Jurgen Habermas (1970), language teaching methodologists took the lead in the development of classroom materials that encouraged learner choice and increasing autonomy (Candlin, 1978). Their systematic collection of exercise types for communicatively oriented English teaching were used in teacher in-service courses and workshops to guide curriculum change. In time, the inadequacy of the four-skills model of language use would come to be recognized and the shortcomings of audio-lingual methodology widely acknowledged. Along with a general acceptance of the complexity and interrelatedness of skills in both written and oral communication and of the need for learners to have the experience of communication, to participate in the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning, newer, more comprehensive theories of language and language behavior came to replace those that had looked to American structuralism and behaviorist psychology for support. Aided by the development of audio and visual recording technology, the 1970s marked the beginning of an explosion of research in both first and second language development based on observable data as opposed to extrapolation from general theories of language and learning. The expanded, interactive view of language behavior these studies provide presents a number of challenges for classroom language teachers. Among them, how should form and function be integrated in an instructional sequence? What is an appropriate norm for learners? How is language proficiency to be measured? Acceptance of communicative criteria entails a commitment to address these admittedly complex issues. Equally important, it requires a new focus on teacher education to ensure that teachers themselves have the communicative competence to provide learners with the kinds of spontaneous interaction they need. The nature of the contribution to language development of both form-focused and meaning-focused classroom activity remains a question in ongoing research. The optimum combination of these activities in any given instructional setting depends no doubt on learner age, the nature and length of instructional sequence, the opportunities for language contact outside the classroom, teacher preparation, and other factors. However, for the development of communicative competence, findings overwhelmingly support the integration of form-focused exercises with meaning-focused experience. Grammar is important; and learners learn best on grammar when it relates to their communicative needs and experiences. Nor should explicit attention to form be perceived as limited to sentence-level morphosyntactic features. Broader features of discourse, sociolinguistic rules of appropriacy, and communication strategies themselves should be included. Berns (1990), a sociolinguist, who has focused on norms in the teaching of English as an international language, stresses that the definition of a communicative competence appropriate for learners requires an understanding of the socio-cultural contexts of language use. In addition, the selection of a methodology appropriate to the attainment of communicative competence requires an understanding of sociocultural

differences in styles of learning. Curricular innovation is best advanced by the development of local materials which, in turn, rests on the involvement of classroom teachers. The highly contextualized nature of communicative language teaching (CLT) is underscored again and again. It would be inappropriate to speak of CLT as a teaching method in any sense of that term as it was used in the 20th century. Rather, CLT is an approach that understands language to be inseparable from individual identity and social behavior. Not only does language define a community but a community, in turn, defines the forms and uses of language. The norms and goals appropriate for learners in a given setting, and the means of attaining these goals, are the concern of those directly involved. Related both to the understanding of language as culture in motion and to the multilingual reality in which most of the world population finds itself is the futility of any definition of a "native speaker," a term that came to prominence in descriptive structural linguistics and was adopted by teaching methodologists to define an ideal for learners. At the end of the 18-week course of study, learners in the experimental group who had engaged in unscripted classroom communication in place of laboratory drills to "reinforce patterns" far excelled learners in the control group in their ability to use French in a variety of unscripted communicative tasks. Equally important, they demonstrated a grammatical accuracy (linguistic competence) equal to those who had spent time repeating patterns in a language lab (Savignon, 1972). The findings were the first to challenge audio-lingual theory by providing empirical evidence that, for beginner adult learners, classroom practice in spontaneous communication could contribute to the development of communicative competence with no loss of grammatical accuracy. A collection of role plays, games, and other communicative classroom activities were developed subsequently for inclusion in the adaptation of the French CREDIF (Centre de Recherche et d'Etude pour la Diffusion du Français) materials, *Voix et visages de la France*. The accompanying guide (Savignon, 1974) described their purpose as that of involving learners in the experience of communication, along with providing them with the strategies to do so. Teachers were encouraged to provide learners with the French equivalent of expressions like "What's the word for ...?", "Please repeat," "I don't understand," expressions that would help them to participate in the negotiation of meaning. Commercialization of the "army method" and materials for wider use in US schools took place during the Cold War period that followed World War II. Impetus came in 1957 with the successful launching by the Soviet Union of Sputnik 1, the first artificial satellite. Alarmed US officials embarked on a race to compete with Soviet technological advances. The National Defense Education Act (NDEA) of 1959 provided funding to improve education at all levels in the fields of science, math, and foreign languages. Intensive summer institutes for foreign language teachers were designed to develop what was for many a non-existent ability to actually understand and speak the language they were teaching while at the same time training them in what would become known as the audio-lingual method, the "New Key" in language teaching. Commercialization of the "army method" and materials for wider use in US schools took place during the Cold War period that followed World War II. Impetus came in 1957 with the successful launching by the Soviet Union of Sputnik 1, the first artificial satellite. Alarmed US officials embarked on a race to compete with Soviet technological advances. The National Defense Education Act (NDEA) of 1959 provided funding to improve education at all levels in the fields of science, math, and foreign languages. Intensive summer institutes for foreign

language teachers were designed to develop what was for many a non-existent ability to actually understand and speak the language they were teaching while at the same time training them in what would become known as the audio-lingual method, the "New Key" in language teaching. Teaching of "the four skills" (listening, speaking, reading, and writing, in that order) through memorization of sample "dialogs" and drilling of grammatical patterns to avoid "errors" and attain "mastery" became the new pedagogical model that would influence teacher practice not only in the United States but in classrooms worldwide. With the introduction of the tape recorder to provide native-speaker models of pronunciation and grammar, language "laboratories" sprung up in schools across the land to enhance the use of audio-lingual materials. Teaching of "the four skills" (listening, speaking, reading, and writing, in that order) through memorization of sample "dialogs" and drilling of grammatical patterns to avoid "errors" and attain "mastery" became the new pedagogical model that would influence teacher practice not only in the United States but in classrooms worldwide. With the introduction of the tape recorder to provide native-speaker models of pronunciation and grammar, language "laboratories" sprung up in schools across the land to enhance the use of audio-lingual materials. In her subsequent comparative study of three groups of beginner college French learners at the University of Illinois, she found that time devoted to practice in spontaneous communication, with all the grammatical and pronunciation errors that such communication inevitably implies, was essential to developing what she termed communicative competence. This brief summary considers the underlying support, both theoretical and empirical, for communicative competence as a goal of 21st-century second/foreign language pedagogy and evaluation along with the implications of the construct for shaping classroom practice in the many different contexts in which English is taught. An initial challenge to the underlying theories of audio-lingualism came with assertions by a young US structural linguist and cognitive scientist, Noam Chomsky (1959) that human language development, or linguistic competence, was much more creative than that represented by Skinnerian behaviorism. An initial challenge to the underlying theories of audio-lingualism came with assertions by a young US structural linguist and cognitive scientist, Noam Chomsky (1959) that human language development, or linguistic competence, was much more creative than that represented by Skinnerian behaviorism. At about this same time, a young teacher in the language teaching profession itself, adept at drilling dialogs and patterns in both NDEA summer institutes and college courses of the 1960s, was discouraged by the repeated failure of learners to use structures and vocabulary they had rehearsed when offered opportunities for spontaneous interaction. Given the 1960s academic theories in linguistics and learning psychology upon which the prevailing recommendations for classroom language teaching methods and materials were based, however, the introduction of communicative competence as a guide for the teaching and evaluation of learners proved nothing short of revolutionary. These and other coping strategies became the basis for subsequent identification by Canale and Swain (1980) of strategic competence in their proposal of a three-component framework for communicative competence, along with grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence. Savignon (1983) subsequently used this framework to elaborate an approach to classroom practice consistent with the underlying construct of communicative competence. (C) 2018 John Wiley & Sons, Inc