

William Littlewood
(English Centre, University of Hong Kong)

Introduction

When teachers first began to adopt a communicative approach to foreign and second language teaching, “learning communication” was often presented as an alternative to “learning grammar”. In discussions about classroom methods and course design, people often became so excited by a whole set of new concepts (such as “communicative competence” and “communicative functions”) that all our previous occupation with the grammar of the language seemed suddenly out-of-date. It was almost as if, by mutual agreement of the teaching profession, grammar had ceased to exist. This impression was reinforced by much of the published material of the time. For example, in many of the textbooks which became popular in the late 1970s and early 1980s, the learning content is described entirely in terms of communicative functions (such as “introducing yourself” or “asking the way”). If they deal overtly with grammar at all, this is often hidden away as unobtrusively as possible.

However, the notion that grammar and communication are incompatible opposites is based on serious misconceptions about the nature of language and language use.

At the core of every language is the system of regular patterns which make up the grammatical system of that language. It is this system that enables speakers to create an infinite variety of utterances, in speech or in writing, which express the meanings they wish to communicate. It is because other speakers share knowledge of the same system that they can understand what the utterances mean. One of the wonders of human language is, indeed, precisely this capacity for “rule-governed creativity”: although the system of rules itself is limited, there is no limit to the number of sentences that it can create or, therefore, to the number of meanings that it can convey.

It is true that some restricted kinds of communication are possible without grammar. In some situations, for example, we can communicate through gestures or through phrases learnt from a phrase-book. As soon as we move beyond this rudimentary level, however, grammar becomes the essential basis for communication. This position was summed up in strong terms by David Wilkins, whose work in the 1970s provided one of the major impetuses to the communicative approach:

*The notion that an individual can develop anything other than a rudimentary communication ability without an extensive mastery of the grammatical system is absurd (David Wilkins in the journal **Applied Linguistics**, 1981).*

Far from grammar being irrelevant in a communicative approach, then, the opposite is true : the more thoroughly a learner masters the grammatical system of the language, the more effectively he or she can use this language for communication.

This affirmation of the importance of grammar does not mean, however, that we should ignore the insights and developments of the last twenty years and return to the extreme grammar-oriented approaches that have often dominated language teaching in the past. Rather, we should use these insights to help us shape a more suitable approach to grammar, which takes account of two fundamental factors that emerge from the discussion above:

1. Grammar is an essential feature of language and language use.
2. However, grammar exists not for its own sake but in order to serve communication.

On this basis we should seek to shape an approach which avoids not only the extreme rejection of grammar that we have often encountered in recent years but also the extreme over-emphasis on grammar for its own sake, with which we are equally familiar.

In this article I propose to look at four issues that we need to consider in order to devise a suitable approach to grammar in language teaching. They are as follows:

1. What do we mean by the term “grammar”? A lot of confusion has arisen because people use the term in different senses. Our first need is therefore to be clear about what we mean when we talk about grammar.
2. What is the relationship between grammar and communication? Since communication is the goal of our teaching, this is an essential preliminary to considering what grammar we want to teach and how we want to teach it.
3. How is grammar internalised? Since the goal of our teaching is for learners to actually learn the grammar, we must base our classroom approach on how we think learning takes place.
4. How can we help learners to internalise the grammar of a new language? At this point we need to consider how, as teachers, we can use the various classroom techniques at our disposal in order to help our students learn.

In this area we are dealing with a lot of complex phenomena and there are many gaps in our understanding. We cannot therefore hope for “final” answers now, any more than the answers suggested in the past have proved to be final. However, these are questions about which every teacher has to reach his or her own conclusions, since they are basic to the practical activity of teaching a language.

What do we mean by the term “grammar”?

In this section I will present four sentences which contain the word “grammar”. On each occasion the word is used in a different sense.

1. My friend bought me an English grammar for my birthday.

In this sentence a “grammar” is an object. The term refers to a book which describes the rules that make up the English language, such as the *Collins Cobuild English Grammar* or the *Students’ Grammar of the English Language*.

2. The teacher found it difficult to explain the grammar of this sentence.

Now “grammar” is not an object but some kind of abstract patterning that underlies a sentence and enables us to explain why it has its present form. This grammar derives from the way linguists analyse the forms of language, so that the same sentence may be explained in different ways by different people.

3. By the age of three, most children have acquired the basic grammar of their mother tongue.

The notion of “grammar” now has nothing to do with linguists and how they choose to analyse language. It refers to the underlying system of the language, which native speakers acquire in order to communicate. In this sense all native speakers “know the grammar” of their language, whether or not they have ever analysed it.

4. Children and foreign language learners often communicate by means of a simplified grammar.

“Grammar” has now moved completely inside the mind. The term now refers to knowledge which forms part of people’s mental make-up and enables them to create and interpret sentences. For children and language learners, this knowledge is imperfect compared to that of an adult native speaker, but this need not prevent it from serving as an instrument for communication.

When it is necessary to distinguish between these four kinds of grammar in this article, I will refer to them as “Grammar 1”, “Grammar 2”, “Grammar 3” and “Grammar 4” respectively.

The four kinds of grammar are relevant for language teaching in different ways:

- In language teaching we are ultimately concerned with developing Grammar 4: our students need to internalise a mental grammar which they can use for communication. Even though this grammar is imperfect compared to that of a native speaker and leads to many errors, students can still use it to express and interpret meanings.
- Through learning, the aim is for each student’s mental grammar to move as close as possible to Grammar 3, which underlies the native speaker’s knowledge of language. The student’s ability to communicate will improve proportionately, provided that he or she also has opportunities to use the knowledge.
- Grammar 2, which results from how we analyse the language consciously “from outside”, is relevant to the extent that it helps students to perceive patterns in the language and later to integrate them into their own mental grammar (Grammar 4).

-
- The relevance of Grammar 1 is similar to that of Grammar 2, since a grammar in this sense is in effect a handbook to help us in analysing the patterns of the language.

The mental grammar of Grammar 4 is sometimes called a person's "grammatical competence" or "linguistic competence". These phrases are used in similar ways to refer to the knowledge of the underlying system of a language which enables a person to communicate. In the next section we will look briefly at the role played by grammar in this process of communication.

What is the relationship between grammar and communication?

Let us first picture a learner who has memorised some items of vocabulary but has not acquired any grammar. If we consider the scope and limits of her communicative ability, we can also see more clearly the role that grammar plays in communication.

1. We should imagine that the setting for the communication is the kitchen, where somebody has made some tea. Our learner can perform some limited communicative functions without grammar. For example, if she uses suitable intonation, she can express her pleasure that there is some tea ("Ah! Tea!") or she can offer some tea to a friend ("Tea?"). She can even juxtapose two words to express an opinion about the tea ("Tea hot"). Provided she can point to each cup, she can even compare ("Tea weak tea strong"). With these last two examples, however, although the meanings might be intelligible, the communication is no longer acceptable as normal English. Grammar is needed to make the language acceptable, for example: "The tea is hot"; "This tea is weak but that tea is strong".
2. Let us now imagine that the learner is not physically present in the kitchen but is talking to her friend in the next room. Even in imperfect English, it becomes difficult to express all the messages above. She can still convey a general message that the tea is hot. However, she would have more difficulty in distinguishing between which tea is weak and which tea is strong, because she can no longer use a pointing gesture. She needs to use grammar to convey the distinction, for example: "The tea near the sink is weak but the tea near the cupboard is strong".
3. Similar difficulties arise when the learner wants to comment on more than the tangible physical characteristics of the tea, for example, about how it *ought* to be or *might* be. It is difficult for her to get messages like this across, because they are more subtle and unobservable. Again, the messages need to be encoded in the grammar of the language, for example: "The tea ought to be stronger" or "That tea might be too hot".

The examples above are simple and artificial but they serve to illustrate three major functions that grammar fulfils in communication:

1. Even when functional communication could take place without it, it is appropriate control of the grammar that makes the forms of the communication *socially acceptable*.

-
2. Grammar enables speakers to talk about things that are not present in the actual situation where communication takes place. In other words: it enables communication to be *decontextualised* and to serve our human need to look beyond the here-and-now.
 3. Grammar enables speakers to convey messages that are more *subtle* and *abstract* than would otherwise be possible. It thus enables language to reflect the complexity of our human thought processes.

The kind of grammar that I have been referring to in this section has been primarily Grammar 4, as discussed in the previous section: the grammar which exists in a person's mind as a system for expressing meanings. First language learners and many second language learners internalise this grammar subconsciously and use it without ever encountering the consciously-analysed grammar of Grammar 2. One of the key questions in language teaching is whether (and if so, *how*) conscious learning of the second kind of grammar can help the development of an internal grammar of the fourth kind. We will consider this question in the next section.

How is grammar internalised?

In spite of all the centuries of language teaching and the immense amount of research in recent years, we still know surprisingly little about what actually goes on in students' minds when they learn. However, both the evidence of our experience (as teachers and in other settings) and the results of research suggest that the ways for internalising grammar fall into two main categories. They correspond to whether language learning is conceived mainly as learning a skill or mainly as a process of natural development.

It should be stressed that these two ways are not mutually exclusive but may go on simultaneously. Also, between the two extremes, there are many kinds of learning that share features of both.

1. Language learning = learning a skill

This kind of learning is the most familiar in school settings. Somebody other than the actual learner (usually a teacher or course-writer) isolates elements of the language. These elements may be rules (e.g. the present continuous tense), sets of language items (e.g. prepositions) or language for expressing important meanings (e.g. a communicative function such as "making suggestions"). They are presented to the learners so that their form and meaning become clear. The learners then practise them so that they can use them automatically, first in controlled practice situations and later in free language use. Throughout this process, language choices are associated with the meanings that they express, so that they can later serve the needs of communication.

There are a large number of variations in this approach. For example, the learners may be expected to discover the rules for themselves or they may be given explanations; the practice may require the learners to make a lot of choices within the sentences they use or to vary only one or two items within a given phrase; the practice may involve the learners in communicating new information or in finding ways to express information they already know; and so on.

The starting point for the teaching/learning process is normally items that have been selected from “Grammar 2”, which is outside the learner. Teaching aims to help the learners to internalise this grammar, so that it moves into their mental “Grammar 4”. On the way, learners typically make a lot of errors until the elements of language become automatic.

2. Language learning = a process of natural development

In naturalistic learning situations (first or second language) there is no teacher or course-writer to isolate elements of the language or organise systematic practice. Language develops in the context of natural language use. Provided that learners are exposed to language they can understand and are motivated to use it as a medium of communication, they follow their own spontaneous course of development. This occurs through unconscious learning processes such as simplification, generalisation and (for second language learners) the transfer of rules from the mother tongue.

In natural situations the learners are not normally conscious of being engaged in a process of language learning. This is because their focus is not on language itself but on the meanings that are being communicated. Also, the system which learners internalise is not one which has been pre-analysed and presented by a teacher or course-writer but one which they themselves create by making their own sense of the language around them. From the outset, therefore, the learning process feeds directly into their internal “Grammar 4”.

It is doubtful whether either conception of learning on its own could serve as the sole basis for language teaching in schools. The first conception has been most commonly taken as the basis for school learning. However, it has generally been less successful than teachers and learners have hoped. There are probably many aspects of language that cannot be taught in this way and which learners only acquire (if at all) when they spend a lot of time in settings where the language is the medium for everyday communication. The second conception is attractive because almost everybody has learnt at least one language (their mother tongue) in this way. However, it needs a lot of exposure and language use, in rich and stimulating environments, for learners to reach the stage where their internal grammar corresponds to that of adult native speakers (Grammar 3). This may not be practicable in the restricted time and conditions of classroom learning (though there have been a number of attempts). We therefore need to exploit whatever advantages we can draw from both conceptions of learning. In the next section we will consider some ways in which we might set about doing this.

How can we help learners to internalise grammar?

In the classroom we need to provide learners with opportunities to (a) internalise the grammatical system of the language and (b) relate this grammatical system to the meanings it conveys in communication. We need to help them to do this by exploiting both their controlled skill-learning capacities and their spontaneous natural learning capacities.

As a first step towards organising our classroom methods so that learners have these opportunities, I should like to classify the various activities for learning grammar into four main categories:

- pre-communicative language practice
- communicative language practice
- structured communication
- authentic communication

The two main features that distinguish these categories are (a) the extent to which the learners focus on using the language to communicate meanings rather than to learn the forms and (b) the extent to which the learners use language which is not controlled by the teacher or materials. These two features are related: the more learners focus on meanings they want to communicate, the more these meanings become personal and unpredictable.

From this description and from the examples given below, it should become clear that there are strict cut-off points between the different categories of activity. They are above all a convenient way of dividing up what exists in reality as a continuum, so that we can orient ourselves more clearly and provide learners with an appropriate range of activities from different points along it.

1. Pre-communicative language practice

Often we may wish to engage the learners in practising language without communicating actual messages, so that they can focus clearly on elements of the language system itself. This may include occasions when the elements of the system are looked at completely independently of meanings (rules for word order may be one instance). Generally, however, we will wish to link language with meanings already at this stage, even though no actual communication is involved.

The most familiar way of doing this is to focus on some kind of situation (e.g. a picture, a text, the classroom or an area of common knowledge) and use this as a basis for question-and-answer practice or description:

How many children are there in the picture?

- There are four.

How many books are there on the table?

- There are six.

(etc.)

The questions may be asked initially by the teacher but it is important that they are asked also by the learners, who need experience in initiating exchanges as well as simply responding.

Since everybody knows the information already, no real communication of messages is taking place. This is in any case not the purpose of the activity: its purpose is to enable learners to practise important elements of the language system and relate them to their meanings, so that these elements can *later* be used to communicate messages.

This relationship between language and its meanings is often reinforced by simulating a situation that could occur outside the classroom, such as that of a stranger asking directions in the street. In the example below, the learners can see a map which indicates where they are standing and where the different places are situated. The interaction may be either between the teacher and the learners or - to simulate a more realistic context of communication and, again, to give learners the chance to initiate as well as respond - between learners in pairs:

How do I get to the station, please?

- Turn first right and go straight on.

Can you tell me the way to the park, please?

- Yes. Turn first left and third right.

(etc.)

The links with the learners' personal meanings may be further reinforced by "personalising" the practice, that is, talking about the learners' own lives and experiences.

This kind of pre-communicative practice, with its variations which are too numerous to be looked at here, makes up a large part of many published course-books. It is when we move on to the other categories that some course books are less helpful.

2. Communicative language practice

This kind of practice adds a further dimension to the kind just described: the language now expresses meanings that communicate new information to other people.

The basic principle is that there is now an "information gap" and the learners are given the task of sharing information in order to overcome this gap. For example:

(a) An example was given above of learners talking about a picture (how many children, how many books, etc.). It was assumed that all learners could see the same picture. By using two or more pictures, which are similar but contain differences of detail, we can give learners the opportunity to use the same language in simple communication tasks:

i) There are three or four pictures with different numbers of children, etc. The teacher or a learner is holding a second copy of *one* of these

pictures. By asking questions, the other learners have to identify which one it is.

- ii) There are two pictures with different numbers of people, objects, etc. Some learners have one picture and some have the other. They have to find as many differences as they can.
- iii) Learners have to guess how many people, objects, etc. are in a picture they cannot see.

These activities can take place in a whole-class context in which the teacher (or one learner/a group of learners) has one picture and the other learners have to find the information. Alternatively, when the learners become accustomed to this kind of activity, they can interact independently in pairs.

- (b) Another example was given above of an activity in which learners practise the language for asking directions, using a map that they can all see. Here are two ways of adapting this activity so that the same language is used for communicating new information:

- i) There are two versions of the map. They are the same except that the buildings etc. are labelled on only one of the versions. On the other, there is a list of buildings but no indication of where they are. The learners with the second of these maps have to ask directions and label as many buildings as they can.
- ii) One version of the map has half of the buildings labelled and the second has the other buildings labelled. Learners give each other directions so that each can complete his or her map.

At the end of these activities the learners can compare maps in order to see whether the communication has been successful.

- (c) The technique of “personalising” language practice was mentioned above. Because of this personal element, students were probably already giving information which others did not know, but the context did not encourage them to pay attention to this new information. Here are two ways in which they can be motivated to do so:

- i) The activity can be organised as a survey about, for example, the songs and films they like or the places in Hong Kong they have visited. The survey can take place in pairs or groups. If circumstances allow, the students can circulate around the class.
- ii) The learners are asked to find others in the group or class who have certain characteristics, for example:

Find somebody who has two brothers.

Find somebody who has been to Thailand.

(etc.)

- iii) This activity works best if learners can circulate, but it can also be carried out in a group. In each group of five or six, for example, the learners might be asked to look for people who match a slightly different set of characteristics (different numbers of brothers, different countries, etc.).

The activities described in this section are called here “communicative language practice” because (a) they involve the students in practising predictable language, which may only recently have been taught to them, but (b) students are using this language to communicate new meanings, including (to a limited extent) meanings which are their own. These two features are carried further in the next category of activity.

3. Structured communication

In “communicative language practice”, the teacher exercises control of the activity at the level of the specific language elements to be used. In what is here called “structured communication”, control moves up to a higher level of language use. Learners are able now to use whatever language they wish in order to express the meanings which arise during communication. However, the situation itself has been carefully structured so that the meanings which arise are to a large extent predictable and can be expressed with language which the learners have (perhaps only recently) been taught. The learners can thus practise using the language system for communication, but in contexts which shelter them from the unexpected demands which arise in authentic language use.

The examples below are developed from the ones described in the previous sections, in order to illustrate the continuous progression from “pre-communicative practice” through “communicative language practice” and now to “structured communication”.

- (a) In the previous section, three tasks were described in which the learners used predetermined language to convey information about numbers of children, books, etc., in a picture.

We move into the category of structured communication if it is not only a question of different numbers of people and objects in the picture-identification task. The learners also need to communicate about other features, such as the position, size or shape of the items in the picture. They therefore need to use a wider knowledge of the language system and make meaning-based choices of grammar and vocabulary.

-
- (b) Two tasks were described above in which learners ask and give directions based on a map.

In the category of structured communication, these tasks might be developed into simple role-plays based on cue-cards. For different places, the learners are cued not only to ask for directions but also (for example) to open and close the conversation appropriately, to ask how far the place is, and so on. In so doing, they need to draw on language they have learnt earlier in their course as well as language they have just learnt.

- (c) The third set of examples described in the previous section involved the learners in using a simple questionnaire in order to conduct a survey. It was assumed that the items on the questionnaire would draw on a limited range of language (e.g. about likes and dislikes, about places visited) and that the form of the responses would be similarly predictable.

In a related structured communication task, the range of questions and possible responses would be wider and less restrictive. They might also be formulated in terms which invite more open answers (e.g. “What is your opinion about ?” or questions which ask about the reasons for preferences etc.). The questionnaire itself might be constructed by the learners themselves, around a specified topic for which they have recently explored the language in more controlled activities.

A development of the above activities is the structured interview. The teacher gives cue-cards which indicate the kinds of information that learners should ask about but allow some scope in the choice of actual language. As in the communicative language practice task described earlier, the teacher might also decide to give fictitious identities to the learners by means of role-cards.

In structured communication tasks such as those described, learners need to select the appropriate language for expressing their meanings with a higher degree of independence than in communicative language practice. The actual degree of independence required varies, of course, from activity to activity, and teachers need to judge whether a particular activity is within the linguistic capacities of a specific group of learners.

Through such tasks the learners are able to develop not only their knowledge of the grammatical system but also their capacity to mobilise it for communicating meanings. Their internal grammar (“Grammar 4”) becomes more “integrated” in two senses. First, the different structures and items, which have initially been learnt separately, become linked into a more integrated network in the learner’s mind. Second, the system of grammatical choices become integrated with the choices of meaning that learners need to make when they use language for communication. This process is carried further in the next category of activity.

4. Authentic communication

It is in “authentic communication” that learners begin to engage in using language to express the unpredictable range of meanings that are likely to arise in situations outside the classroom.

It is obviously still the teacher who organises the learning situation, but this organisation moves again to a higher level than before. The teacher sets up the context and purpose for using language but does not exert any direct control over the meanings that need to be conveyed (though naturally, by virtue of setting up the context and purpose, he or she exerts a strong *indirect* influence).

Once more we can refer to examples from the previous sections and extend them:

- (a) A task was described earlier in which learners had to find differences between two pictures or identify one of several pictures. The communication becomes less predictable if:
 - i) The differences themselves are of a more subtle nature and require more two-way sharing between the learners.
 - ii) Four or more pictures form a sequence (e.g. a story or logical series of events). One picture is given to each learner in each group. The learners have to work out the story or sequence without looking at any picture but their own.
 - iii) Each learner draws a simple picture of, say, a street scene or classroom (the teacher may give them a basic outline against which to draw it). In pairs they have to describe their pictures to each other, so that their partner can draw it. They can ask each other for clarification and share information freely.

- (b) Extensions of the map-direction task might be:
 - i) The learners are given not specific cues as to what they should ask about but a more general description of the situation and what they need to find out. They improvise the interaction themselves on the basis of this description.
 - ii) The learners give each other directions for getting to their own homes or other places within Hong Kong.
 - iii) The activity is extended into a small-scale project in which the learners find out information about some of the most important places in Hong Kong.

-
- (c) Extensions of the survey or interview task might be:
- i) The survey on food-preferences might be part of a broader investigation into the eating habits of children in Hong Kong and linked to a project on food.
 - ii) Based on the results of a survey about leisure activities, learners might discuss (under the teacher's direct guidance or in groups) the advantages of different ways of spending one's holidays.
 - iii) Within a chosen topic area (e.g. food, leisure-time activities, jobs), the learners decide for themselves what questions to ask in interviews. Afterwards, they discuss the results and present them to the rest of the class.

A large number of tasks which come into the category of “authentic communication” can be found in the *Programme of Study for English: Key Stage 2* published by the Hong Kong Education Department.

In authentic communication, more than in previous activities, learners may need to express or understand meanings for which they have not learnt the most appropriate language. In such cases they will need to use communication strategies, e.g. guessing the meaning of unknown words from the context or using paraphrase to get an idea across. One inevitable result of this is that they will make more errors. This should not be a cause for worry. Indeed, in authentic communication we should encourage learners to take risks and use whatever language and communication strategies they can find, so that the grammar can become *their own* grammar in a real sense: a part of their mental make-up which they can use freely for communication and which they will develop further as they gain more experience.

It is in authentic communication (and, to a lesser extent, in structured communication) that learners are most able to exploit not only their skill-learning capacities but also the same natural capacities for learning language which (as we saw in the previous section) are evident in first language learners and natural second language learners.

Conclusion

In this article I have tried to show that in a communicative approach to language teaching, grammar is not an insignificant side-issue: it is the very means by which learners become able to fulfil their communicative needs.

In deciding how to approach grammar in our teaching, we should not repeat the mistakes of the past, when grammar has often been taught as an end in itself, divorced from the role it performs in communication. This approach has enabled only a small proportion of learners to use the language for real communication. Rather, we should make full use of recent insights and adopt an approach which affirms the importance of grammar but never loses sight of why it is important: because it enables people to communicate meanings.

We should also seek to enable students to exploit as fully as possible the different learning capacities that they bring to their task: not only their conscious learning capacities, through which they can internalise patterns and items which we present to them, but also their natural capacities, which enable them to make their own sense of language and develop an integrated grammar in their minds.

As a basis for developing a balanced approach, I have suggested a framework based on four main categories of learning activity: pre-communicative language practice, communicative language practice, structured communication and authentic communication. These are not distinct categories but form parts of a continuum. Through the examples, I have tried to show how similar activities can be adapted so that they move along the continuum and thus correspond to different learning needs.

The actual balance between activities from different parts of the continuum must be a matter for individual teachers to decide in the light of the needs of different groups of learners. The *goal* of the teaching/learning process is authentic communication and the other categories provide knowledge, skills and support on the way to this goal. In a specific teaching unit, however, this does not necessarily mean that the teacher will decide to move in sequence from the first to the fourth category. Older learners, for example, may spend almost all their learning time in authentic communication, with the teacher drawing on the other categories only occasionally, to reinforce areas of language that seem weak. Young beginners may spend more time initially within the first two categories, though they too need to experience structured and authentic communication as soon and as often as possible. With all levels of learners, teachers may sometimes begin with communication (structured or authentic), let learners experience the language needs that emerge, and then organise language practice (communicative or pre-communicative) to prepare them to fulfil these needs more effectively on future occasions. Decisions in this domain are crucial to the success of learning but, unfortunately, it is a domain which is too variable and complex for simple prescriptions to be made. In this respect, as in so many others, teaching remains as much an art as a science.

Selected Reading

1. A book which gives a general survey of teaching techniques in a communicative approach:
Harmer, J.: *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Longman, 1983.
2. Five books which give a range of practical techniques similar to those described in this article :
Byrne, D.: *Teaching Oral English*. Longman, 1986.
Harmer, J.: *Teaching and Learning Grammar*. Longman, 1987.
Littlewood, W.: *Communicative Language Teaching : An Introduction*. Cambridge University Press, 1981.
Rinvolucri, M.: *Grammar Games: Cognitive, Affective and Drama Activities for EFL Students*. Cambridge University Press, 1984.
Ur, P.: *Grammar Practice Activities: A Practical Guide for Teachers*. Cambridge University Press, 1988.

-
3. Two books which suggest activities for authentic communication in the language classroom :
Klippel, F.: *Keep Talking : Communicative Fluency Activities for Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press, 1984.
Ur, P.: *Discussions that Work*. Cambridge University Press, 1981.
 4. A book which discusses the theory and practice of using project work as a context for authentic communication :
Legutke, M. and H. Thomas.: *Process and Experience in the Language Classroom*. Lognman, 1991.
 5. A book which elaborates on the principles which underlie the framework described in this article:
Littlewood, W.: *Teaching Oral Communication: A Methodological Framework*. Blackwell, 1992.