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UNIVERSITY OF DURHAM
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND MEDIEVAL LITERATURE
DURHAM

COMMUNICATIVE ELT SYLLABUS DESIGN
FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN BANGLADESH:
A PROPOSAL

by

SHAH ALAM

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Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics (with special
reference to TEFL).

September, 1987



25 JUN 1992

Diss Ling

1987/ALA

To the people of my country for
whom I dream a prosperous future

S.A.

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To my supervisor Mr. Peter Grundy, I owe my unpayable debt. He has not only shaped my understanding of the subject and urged me to focus my effort on what is central rather than peripheral, he has always made himself available for any discussion.

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Needless to say, none of the individuals I have mentioned should be assumed to be in complete agreement with my views nor are they responsible for any errors that remain in the work.

DURHAM

1987

S.A.

RATIONALE

Applied linguistics with special reference to Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) is a discipline of wide intensity. The development of the concept of communicative competence, in applied linguistics (in the 70's) has been pressing for a change in the whole technique of EFL/ESL pedagogy. Since communicative competence is the new paradigm at the moment only a communicative syllabus can serve as the most reasonable framework to accommodate recent ideas about teaching English as a foreign language.

The overall aim of the work, however, is not to construct a syllabus as such but to propose that an approach along these lines can result in a more effective ELT programme for higher secondary schools in Bangladesh, since it forms the terminal point after ten years of formal education.

The students at this level are mature enough and in possession of sufficient linguistic repertoire. They are, therefore, capable of more communicative activity. It is hoped that these students, if put through a communicative course, will be able to get rid of so called 'lathophobic aphasia' (unwillingness to speak for fear of making mistakes), a disease most common in Bangladeshi speakers of English.

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0. Introduction

0.1 Bangladeshi background

The British decision to withdraw from the sub-continent in 1947 resulted in the division of India into two separate states of Pakistan and the Union of India. East Bengal joined Pakistan as East Pakistan and became free Bangladesh in 1971. Since then the English language has been passing through the most critical period of its history in that part of the sub-continent. Although it has lost its status as medium it is a compulsory subject from the primary to the secondary level of general education. Bengali is the national language of Bangladesh. It is quite natural that the sentimental issue of mother tongue will always be in favour of Bengali. It is also true, at the same time, that Bengali is spoken only in Bangladesh and the neighbouring Indian state of west Bengal. Bangladesh needs English as a language of wider communication in a highly-technologically- oriented world. Bangladesh has the examples of Japan and China not too far from where it is, and it also has the example of India, its neighbour across the border. In India, English is not only a parallel language to Hindi the national language of the Union, but also Indian English has got the recognition of an orbital dialect around the standard core of English. A developing Bangladesh has the need to re-orientate its ELT materials with more sophisticated inputs. Moreover English language teachers, by virtue of the nature of their subject, are more exposed to the need of looking beyond the existing limits of national curriculum for information, guidance and teaching materials than teachers of other subjects.



0.2 Status of English

The status of English is a matter of both the present and the past. The study of Arabic to acquire a reading and memorizing ability of the Kuranic verses or of Sanskrit, the language of Hindu religion was (and perhaps is up until now) an obstacle between the student and modern education. Under any criterion of deciding on the need of learning English in the colonial past Macaulay's (1835) opinion had been the most decisive. "Clearly if the curriculum has to be modern, the medium of instruction has to be English".¹ But the colonial educational policies, in the whole of the sub-continent, not only reinforced the existing class system but also provided the means for the emergence of a new elite composed of English medium - western educated individuals. From the very beginning, as the language of the ruling administration, English was an advantage.

Initially English medium was intended only for the local royalty and aristocracy. What happened eventually was that the privileged class remained privileged and brought a few others up the social scale with them. But the majority of the people remained socially immobile due to the poor and inadequate education offered them and their inability to speak English, the language which could secure better and higher paying jobs. While not always in favour of teaching the masses English, the administration was interested in the possibility of producing literate people to help in some of the more menial clerical positions in government and the private sectors. English was acquired in a highly formal and segregated instructional environment. A few others who had been brought up to upper level to attend English medium schools became professionals and civil servants. This situation still

prevailed prior to independence. After the division of the sub-continent into the Union of India and Pakistan of which Bangladesh was a part, a tremendous expansion of modern education took place.

While Bengali medium schools up to secondary level existed to satisfy the educational needs of the common people the English schools were being looked upon with favour by parents, who felt the need for their children to acquire English and an English type education for entry to positions in government offices, European owned banks and other business and for admission to professional training. Thus English became the means towards better employment and the language which opened up knowledge of the western way of life. The conservative reaction to modern education, from the very beginning, had been to regard it as an alien innovation rooted in secular values if not actually a threat of little relevance to the Kuranic community. English was the language of prestige among the educated, and in the society as a whole. Command of English served (perhaps still serving) as the criterion to determine educational background and English as a mark of authority. English retained its status as medium of instruction at the higher secondary level until the late sixties, but with the schizophrenic attitude of the people who had already supported the language movement of 1952 against the Pakistani decision to impose Urdu (language of Pakistan) on Bangladesh (the then East Pakistan). With the establishment of Bengali as the national language of Bangladesh, English has become in the absence of a clear directive, a foreign language in practice. Burbidge, D. (1987) quotes Malmah, A.T., a British Council official in Bangladesh holding the same view as she reports the present situation in Bangladesh. But the Bengalis have a

schizophrenic attitude to English. People with money continue to have their children taught English. The main difference since colonial days is that English is no longer a second language but a foreign one.² So the teaching materials designed for teaching students in authoritarian schools are not adequate to serve the purpose of modern learners who study English as a foreign language, and who are quite aware of their own position in the arena of Bangladeshi life. The student dedication of February, 1952, in the Bengali language movement, which they commemorate every year, has been the political capital of Bangladesh's freedom movement.

0.3 A look at the future

The freedom movement of Bangladesh was basically a language movement against Urdu and not against English. Any step towards the alienation of the society completely from outside influence, especially western, is today an anachronism. There is an undeniable need for English within the realm of international exchange, be it mercantile, political, technological, scientific, cultural or intellectual at least until such a time as Bengali has been modernized to this point. The presence and importance of modern technology is as indispensable as air and water. The means to participate in the twentieth century advance toward more elaborate technology, more sophisticated scientific knowledge, greater world trade profit and fluctuating world policies is the English language. Many scholars and professionals of Bangladesh, for the present and near future, will have to depend on English for research and resource materials. Bangladesh has to decide how much it can relinquish and how much it wishes to relinquish to accommodate the need for English. ELT at the higher secondary level constitutes the

terminal point of general education (of science, arts and commerce) to different avenues of life and education. It deserves special care and feedback from more sophisticated procedures. The needs to facilitate oral and written communication, and student comprehension of written and spoken English should, therefore, remain high priorities for the students at this level.

0.4 Presentation of the dissertation

The whole work is based on the principles of providing a comprehensive discussion about the evolution of syllabus design and demonstrating how a communicative approach appropriate to a particular situation and local conditions may be prepared. It is also assumed that a description of needs analysis based on the modern view of needs survey makes a vital point in developing a language programme for the secondary level of general education.

Chapter one describes the present ELT situation at the Higher Secondary level in Bangladesh from different perspectives. It explains the importance of this level as pre-University intermediate stage linking higher education and the lower secondary stage of 5 years supported by 5 years of primary education. It tries to picture the current state of English as related to the past keeping an eye to the future. Chapter one also incorporates a critical study of the existing ELT materials in view of the current social outlook and the attitude of the modern learners in Bangladesh. The point that teaching is greatly influenced by teacher motivation is also made in this chapter.

The second chapter gives special consideration to the meaning of communicative competence. It touches upon a comparative study of Hymes' and Chomsky's views of 'competence' and 'performance'. Halliday's functional view of language and discourse comprise other important points of this chapter. The current views of language learning and acquisition, including Krashen's Monitor Theory, are reproduced in brief. In other words the discussion in the second chapter is structured around the current views of what language is and how it is mastered. The views of language and the theory of learning are presented with possible classroom implications or approach to syllabus design. Briefly, the second chapter forms the theoretical basis for the whole work. It then moves on to the third chapter, where an attempt is made to provide a definition of the term 'syllabus' and to characterize the two broad discussions of syllabus design: traditional and communicative. Structural, situational and notional syllabuses are identified, their main features are described and an evolutionary pattern is established. This same chapter incorporates some six broad categories of communicative syllabuses and enlist altogether some eight types of current proposals for the communicative approach to syllabus design.

In Chapter four there is a description of the several phases of language programme development followed by the proposed approach to ELT syllabus for the Higher Secondary level of general education in Bangladesh. This chapter makes the presentation of the integrated approach to syllabus design which synthesises several versions of the external syllabus. It also deals with the final stages of language programme development like the preparation of a proto syllabus and the

organisation of a pedagogic syllabus. The last heading comprising classroom implications is another compelling feature of this last chapter.

The proposition of the dissertation is that the method based approach to language learning/teaching (e.g. 'Grammar Translation Method' used in Bangladesh) has failed. Since the teacher bears the responsibility of providing guidance to the learner he will decide on the possible needs of the learner. The best guidance can be formulated through these needs and the choice of an appropriate syllabus type rather than one particular method.

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CHAPTER 1

ELT Situation in the higher secondary level of general education in Bangladesh

The communicative approach to syllabus design for ELT in general courses in which the linguistic needs of the learners are not as specific as those of courses for pre-determined goals presupposes some explanation about the position or stage of the course under consideration. Ideas about the social and educational implications of the course, learner-attitudes towards the methods and materials used in EL classrooms may render valuable technical help for planning the programme.

1.1 The Higher Secondary Level as link

The higher secondary stage of general education in Bangladesh forms the link between higher education in the universities and the lower secondary level of general education for five years plus five years of primary education. At the university level English has the highest priority both as subject and medium because of its social prestige and demand. At the primary level English enjoys a sentimental priority because of the popular standing of the primary education. English forms the weakest link in Bangladeshi education at the higher secondary level which comprises two years of general education. This situation has an adverse effect on the entire system of education in Bangladesh. On the one hand it has diluted the standard of primary education where English is a compulsory subject and where teachers come from the secondary level. On the other hand it has more unfavourable

consequences on University education which gets students from the secondary level and where all the teaching materials are in English. The history of the early establishment of secondary schools dates back to the colonial past. The primary objective of those schools was to teach English.

1.2 History of English in Secondary Education

The secondary schools of the colonial period received students who were equipped with four or five years of primary education through their mother tongue. These students were put through an English course of five or six years in which they had to concentrate on English language and its use as medium of instruction in the next higher level of education. This qualified them for admission into colleges, or for a clerical job in a government organisation where mastery of English was considered the most important criterion. The same philosophy behind English language learning continued until the second half of the sixties when English was assigned double status as optional medium and subject. This double status for English had its roots in the language movement of the fifties against Urdu (language of Pakistan) and resulted in the decline in emphasis on English. Towards the beginning of the seventies Bangladeshi students were found fit for entry into the colleges but unfit for anything else. The decline in emphasis caused a serious decline in their fitness for jobs and even for admission into universities. With difference in emphasis but more socio-economic demand, English continues as one of the compulsory subjects at the higher secondary level of general education. According to one source the number of students at the lower secondary level is two million, and the number at higher secondary level is two hundred and seventy-seven thousand (277,000) on an average (Anisuzzaman, 1981).¹ But according

to a report of the Committee for National Curriculum and Syllabus Design no exact figure is available.

1.3 A Critique of the Existing Curriculum

The report of the Committee for National Curriculum and Syllabus Design (1978) presents a disappointing picture of the basis of whole ELT course programme at this level.

Little is known definitely about these students (at the higher secondary level) regarding their number, their competence in English and their future. They probably number more than 1,46,000 thousand in 1978. They are students who have managed to complete ten years of schooling and to obtain some kind of pass in SSC (secondary school certificate).²

This description presents an obvious sense of mis-match since nobody possesses any factual information about the 'number, gender and person' of the students at this level. The planning of the English language course is based apparently on no well-defined data. The introductory paragraph of the existing syllabus gives the same impression.

It is thought necessary to introduce this syllabus by a discussion of how the examination affects the mediation of the syllabus as the single most important fact governing learning.³

The examination based syllabus does not include students' linguistic needs. A constant threat of examination promotes rote learning. This kind of syllabus cannot stimulate communication in the target language.

There seems to be a communication gap between the planning and the realities of life - the plans are developed by theorists who often have very little or no experience of teaching. The secondary school board authorities' reluctance to invite the teachers to take part in any discussion about planning and implementation of the language policies is, perhaps, one of the causes of the present unacceptable situation in English language teaching. In the absence of the reasonable framework sensitive to the linguistic needs of the learners the desired aim of achieving communicative ability in the skills of speaking, writing, reading and listening has been jeopardised. This has also caused an increase in the number of unsuccessful candidates from 42% to 60% in the HSSC (higher secondary school certificate) examination during last few years. The overall situation therefore warrants a carefully constructed syllabus as well as a well-motivated teaching staff.

1.4 Teachers and Teaching

Although there are teachers who think that teaching is not their chosen profession, most of the teachers are professionally honest, involved and dedicated. The former category of teachers are reluctant to work hard because they know they are expected to do far more than someone earning twice their salary - they don't have job satisfaction. Ofcourse, the teachers' lot in secondary schools in Bangladesh is not enviable at all because it is a very poorly paid profession. It is not reasonable for the good teachers to have to sustain on their own dedication on the 'teachers are born not made' philosophy. Improved pay and prestige might improve the quality of teaching.

The type and range of EL teaching methods and materials currently in use are out-dated and this has degenerated into rote learning and extensive use of prepared notes when there are large classes and examination pressures. Learning has become a series of memory task, whereas ability to master communication techniques requires communicative interaction in the classroom. In most cases there is no choice, no freedom and no unpredictability in teaching. Teachers always supply the learners with ready made correct answers and control the class with authoritarian techniques. Traditionally the EL syllabus, in Bangladesh, consists of a focus text and lists of grammatical points or vocabulary. Rules of grammar and definitions of grammatical points are memorized by the learners from the primary to the secondary and always under the threat of physical punishment leading to the inability to communicate and anomie in a foreign environment in real life. Learners are always supposed to work within certain restrictions. This type of learning does not help the learners to grow and to mature. No consideration is given to the learners' own potential and its eventual development on the way of learning the language. While liberal treatment of students in the classroom made the Pakistanis fluent speakers of English, authoritarian attitudes made the East Pakistanis (Bangladeshis) timid transcribers of others works. The same tradition still directs classroom interaction between the teacher and the students. But the future of ELT in the general course curriculum seems to be taking a new turn. The key position held by the higher-secondary level of general education as pre-university terminal level and the changing attitudes of the learners towards life and reality may result in a general review of classroom interaction.

1.5 Future of ELT at the Higher Secondary Level

English at the higher secondary level, by dint of its position between higher education and the basic English language courses is in some ways more important than that at any other level. It can be thought of as the entry course to University or higher education in scientific and technical courses for which English has primary importance. The existing trend towards the vocationalization of secondary education (Khuda Commission Report, Gist, 1984) in a new structure consisting of 4 years of secondary education buttressed by eight years of primary education calls for a renewed emphasis on English language teaching. Elimination of the causes of large scale failure in English in the examination deserves special consideration. While success multiplies confidence, failure results in dis-interest in the target language and creates a psychological problem of frustration. Learners' failure in the examination might be a cause of the current critical position of English in Bangladesh.

Only a thorough re-organization of the teaching materials can keep pace with the new mood in the classroom. Before the teaching materials dealt with students whose medium of instruction was English. Now they will have to address the problems of students learning English as foreign language both for social and individual purposes. The current generation of students are better informed, more alert and more creative. They want more autonomy, they are not ready to take advantage of others' experience, they want to be on their own coming up through trial and error. The teacher must sub-ordinate his behaviour to the learning needs of the students. The modern teacher has to

change his role as an authority to that of guide, instructor, peer or partner. And the syllabus must be based on up-to-date views of language and the theory of learning. A review of the recent developments in the views of language and the theory of learning is, therefore, necessary and to this we turn in Chapter 2.

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CHAPTER 2

Communicative competence, and the modern view of language

The second chapter is intended to furnish the theoretical basis of the subsequent discussion about syllabus design. It also presents a brief study on the meaning and development of the concept of communicative competence and its application in foreign/second language teaching/learning.

In the sixties the application of structuralist theories produced descriptions of languages upon which teaching materials were based almost directly. Dialogues and drills formed the basis of audiolingual classroom practices. The development of the concept of 'communicative competence' as it relates to language teaching has brought about a radical change in the whole field of applied linguistics. The notion of communicative competence stretches beyond the confines of narrowly defined linguistics and the behaviourist psychology of learning to the domains of anthropologists and sociologists. Communicative competence in terms of language teaching can be realized in two sources: theoretical and practical. The former includes discussions in psychology, sociology, linguistics and the theory of communication and the latter concerns pedagogical needs and implications. In both theory and practice it emphasises the need for an extension of linguistic theory to incorporate extralinguistic factors. The concept of communicative competence provides a broader perspective than the description of language use as rule governed behaviour which characterized second/foreign language teaching methodologies prior to the sixties. 'It looks at language not as individual behaviour but as one of many symbolic systems that members of a society use for

communication among themselves. People and the languages they use are viewed in their social context' (Savignon, 1983).¹ But the first challenge against the structuralist school came from Chomsky (1957) through his theory of transformational generative grammar.

2.1 Grammatical competence

The MIT linguist Noam Chomsky rejected the structuralist theory of language learning, whereas structuralist linguists had focussed on the surface features of phonology and morphology Chomsky concerned himself with language use as rule governed behaviour. TG focussed on the underlying grammatical competence assuming their competence to be common to all native speakers. The basic properties of language were supposed to be derived from innate aspects of the mind and from how human beings process experience through language.

By generative grammar I mean simply a system of rules that in some explicit and well-defined way assigns structural descriptions to sentences. Obviously every speaker of a language has mastered and internalized a generative grammar that expresses his knowledge of his language (Chomsky, 1965).²

What this implies is that it is only the native speakers who can create unlimited numbers of sentences by using the limited number of rules. Unless and until one has mastered the rules one cannot create sentences.

Chomsky proposed an alternative theory of language learning. According to Chomsky, sentences are not learned by imitation and repetition but generated from learner's underlying competence. In

behaviourism, language learning was subject to the same laws of stimulus and response, reinforcement and association. He argued that such a learning theory could not possibly serve as a model of how human beings learn language, since much of human language use is not imitated behaviour but is created anew from underlying knowledge of abstract rules. The audiolingual method of pattern practice, drilling and memorization, and the audiolingual syllabus containing items of phonology, morphology and syntax of the language arranged according to their order of presentation, as well as the selected vocabulary items were not resulting in competence.

Chomsky's theory referred to a view of learning that involves a conscious focus on grammar, and the role of abstract mental processes. Learners should be encouraged to use their innate and creative abilities to derive and make explicit the underlying grammatical rules of language. 'For a time in the early seventies there was a considerable interest in the implications of the cognitive-code theory for language learning' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986)³ which derived partly from Chomsky. But ultimately there emerged no methodological guidelines for the application of it.

The way Chomsky distinguishes between his underlying grammatical competence and its overt manifestation in language performance furnishes the most fundamental point of Chomskyan linguistics and the criticism it draws.

2.2 Communicative Competence

Generative grammar was not concerned with language in use, Chomsky said:

Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogenous speech community who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance (1965 : 3).⁴

For Hymes, whose work has been extremely influential in the early seventies in steering developments in second/foreign language theory and practice, Chomsky's categories of competence and performance do not allow at all for whether what we say is appropriate to any given social context. 'There are rules of use without which rules of grammar would be useless',⁵ he says. In opposition to Chomsky's view of the ideal speaker-listener as a non-existent abstraction, Hymes looks at the real speaker-listener in that feature of the language of which Chomsky gives no account : social interaction. Hymes also criticises the view of performance held by the transformational grammar school, in which performance is treated as being concerned with memory and perceptual constraints, and not with social interaction. Hymes says that the transformational view of language is a grammatical one - it is nothing but the knowledge of the system. He defines linguistic competence as 'a somewhat 'Garden of Eden' view for those (like the language teacher) who are concerned with language as a living thing used by individuals and societies' (K. Johnson, K. Morrow, 1983 : 10)⁶. Hymes points out that applied linguistics, therefore, needs a theory of language that can deal with a heterogenous speech community, differential competence, and the constitutive roles of socio-cultural features. Hymes is concerned about the integration of linguistic theory with a more general means of communication, and culture. This is what is reflected in the appeal of the experts called together by UNESCO (1975) for

giving particular attention to the cultural background learners bring with them.

'..... command of a written or oral means of expression, access to a literature or a culture, promotion of international understanding and of exchanges between countries, acquisition of technical, scientific or professional vocabulary, development of the ability to analyse and synthesise knowledge through context with other conceptual and relational structures.'

Hymes proposes four parameters to the systems of rules that underlie communicative behaviour:

- 1) Whether (and to what degree) something is fully possible;
- 2) Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible;
- 3) Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
- 4) Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what it's doing entails.⁸

Hymes seems to have identified an idea that relates to teacher's intuition in a very appropriate moment in history giving the necessary impetus to the orientation in language teaching known as the 'communicative approach'.

The shift of focus from teaching the language system to teaching the language as a vehicle of communication has resulted in a

potentially difficult problem in organising syllabuses, teaching materials, classroom activities and measurement of progress. The possible uses of language are as extensive as the possible purposes and intentions people have for it. Therefore, classroom activities are required to be so organised as can engage the learners in active communication. These activities include the use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction. An intention of focussing on task oriented activities is quite common in communicative classes. Littlewood (1983)⁹ distinguishes between 'functional communication activities' and 'social interaction activities' as major activity types of communicative language teaching. The former includes such task as learners looking at sets of pictures and taking note of similarities and differences; working out a likely sequence of events in a set of pictures, discovering missing features in a map or pictures, one learner giving instructions how to draw a picture from behind a screen or how to complete a map, and solving problems from shared clues. Social interaction activities include conversation and discussion sessions, dialogues and role plays, simulations, improvisations and debates. Learning needs - the difference between the level of competence from which the students start and the target communicative competence - varies from group to group and learner to learner. Therefore, the range of techniques used by a communicative teacher is irrespective of the concept of method. It is the teacher who will decide what appropriate technique is required in a particular situation. For example, the crudest form of survival English which is fairly effective for an immigrant applying for a dish-washing job in a Pakistani restaurant in London and which cannot be considered an effective means of communication for a member of a Bangladeshi official delegation visiting the University of Durham.

2.3 Functions of language

While Hymes' new theory of language dealing with heterogenous speech community and differential competence redefines competence, Halliday rejects Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance as unnecessary and misleading.

Halliday, a British linguist, adds another perspective to the elaboration of the theory of communicative competence, that of the function of language. His concern has been to move away from the structural preoccupation of linguistic theory to a synthesis of structural and functional approaches in the study of language. We can only understand the function served by a grammatical structure by observing language in use or in the context of situation. While for Chomsky linguistic theory is concerned with the native speaker's competence of the knowledge of the system of the language, for Halliday linguistics is concerned with the description of speech acts or texts, because it is only through the study of a language in use that the functions of language and obviously all components of meaning can be brought into the limelight. In Halliday 'Function' is the 'Use' to which language is put. It comprises the purpose of an utterance rather than the forms of grammar that an utterance takes. The function of language is to do with what is said, not with how something is said. The use of language, therefore, includes an infinite number of purposes: to order, to request, to agree, to regret, to desire, to attract etc. It is only in context of a situation that the function of an utterance can be understood.

It follows, then, that the linguistic means used by human beings to enter into relationships are of primary importance rather than the psychology of acquisition, and functional theory is thus about the social rather than the psychological process involved in language.

More important than the grammatical shape of what the child hears, however, is the fact that it is functionally related to observable features of the situation around him. This consideration allows us to give another account of language development that is not dependent on any particular psycholinguistic theory, an account that is functional and sociological rather than structural and psychological. The two are not in competition, they are about different things (Halliday, 1978).¹⁰

He explains in two different ways how language functions in both the cases of 'the child and the adult'. In the child, Halliday finds the correspondence between functions and utterance as straightforward one-to-one. The younger the child the more clear-cut are the functions, whereas with an approach based on structure the opposite is true. He mentioned seven basic functions that language performs for children learning their first language.

1. Instrumental (I saw): satisfying material needs.
2. Regulatory (do as I tell you): controlling the behaviour of others.
3. Interactional (me and you): getting along with other people.
4. Personal (here I come): identifying and expressing the self.

5. Heuristic (tell me why): exploring the world around inside one.
6. Imaginative (let's pretend): creating a world of one's own.
7. Informative (I've got something to tell you): communicating new information. (Halliday, 1975).¹¹

Each individual function is supposed to have several meanings, (function, intention and purpose) (Halliday, 1978).¹² Learning the first language is interpreted as progressive mastery of primary functions of language and the building up of a meaning potential in respect of each.

Each adult utterance serves for more than one function at a time. Adult language is obviously far more complicated than that of the child. Again the range of social function is much more greater.

The immense functional diversity of adult language usage - immense, that is, if one simply asks 'in what activities of daily life does language play a part?' - is reduced in the internal organization of the language system to a very small set of functional components or 'macro-functions' (Kress, 1976).¹³

The macro functions are:

1. The interpersonal function: to establish, maintain and specify relations between members of societies.
2. The ideational function: to transmit information between members of societies.

3. The textual function: to provide texture, the organisation of discourse as relevant to the situation.

Halliday's powerful theory of the functions of language complements Hymes' view of communicative competence, and gives rise to the development of what is commonly known as the functional-notional syllabus. The names that go with the notional-functional syllabus are D.A. Wilkins and Van Ek. The first syllabus model was a notional syllabus developed by Wilkins (1976) which specified the semantico-grammatical categories (e.g. frequency, motion, location) and the categories of communicative functions that learners need to express (e.g. asking questions, making requests, expressing agreement etc.). The council of Europe developed this into a syllabus to include descriptions of the objectives of foreign language courses for European adults. The different situations in which they might typically need to use a foreign language were also identified (e.g. travel, business). The topics that might need to be dealt with were determined (e.g. personal identification, education, shopping). The functions they needed language for (e.g. describing something, requesting information, expressing agreement or disagreement), the notions made use of in communication (e.g. time, frequency, duration), and the vocabulary and the grammar all had been included. All these together made 'The Threshold Level English' (Van Ek and Alexander, 1980) and resulted in an attempt to specify what was needed in order to be able to achieve a reasonable degree of communicative proficiency in a foreign language including the language items needed to realise 'The Threshold Level'.¹⁴

2.4 Discourse competence

Halliday's third function corresponds to another layer of meaning. The substance of the organisation of discourse is an essential component of the functional or communicative approach, and also a part of any definitions of communicative competence.

In his book 'Teaching Language as Communication' H.G. Widdowson (1978) sums up many of the influential ideas of the seventies. He contends that it is a mistake to suppose that a knowledge of how sentences are put to use in communication follows automatically from a knowledge of how sentences are composed and what signification they have as linguistic units. 'Learners have to be taught what values they may have as predictions, qualifications, reports, descriptions and so on' (ELT, 1972).¹⁵ He, therefore, proposes a different type of teaching syllabus to be built around a graded selection of rhetorical (communicative) acts which learners would perform in using English for their particular purposes. For example, one might be in need of the use of such acts as recognition of the theme or topic of a paragraph, a chapter, or both, getting the gist of a conversation, poem, television programme, or legal document. Other learners might communicate in more ordinary situations of greetings, making requests, managing a social gathering and so on.

The links that exist between sentences are not always overt. There may not be any explicit connection between one proposition and another. A reader makes an inference of the meaning by applying his general knowledge of the world as well as familiarity with the particular context. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) the need

for making reference to some items in the discourse to interpret any other item always involves cohesion. Such items might include, for example, pronouns, adverbial sequences (e.g. firstly, secondly, finally), elliptical references (like 'yes, I can') and lexical sets where different items are used to refer to the same object or person (for example, 'Prabhu, the director of Bangalore project, a prominent linguist' etc.) 'Cohesion is one dimension of the general Hallidayan aim of devising principled methods of relating elements of grammatical structure to their use in discourse' (A.P.R. Hawatt, 1984).¹⁶

The foreign language classroom can furnish only a part of the possible factors involved. The physical context can be broadened by two different possible approaches. One approach is to practise the language outside the classroom when the learning takes place in the learner's native country. Another approach is a compromise, and suggests bringing the outside world or real life situations into the classroom, for example, in the form of 'authentic' materials. Various dramatic or task oriented techniques may also be used. There is the need of a great variety of input as the classroom is not furnished with all that is necessary.

For all intents and purposes, modern foreign language syllabus design involves one particular paradigm : communicative competence. Although traditional approaches persist as ways of going about designing FL teaching programmes, in practice there is no longer any theoretical backing for them by way of new ideas from linguistics, psychology or education. The communicative approach, on the other hand, is supported by current views of language. It is an outcome of the interaction between socio-cultural demands of teaching language as a social tool and the abundant supply of new ideas about the nature of

language. Some of the characteristics of the communicative view of language are:

1. Language is a system for the expression of meaning.
2. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.
3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.
4. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.¹⁷

We have, therefore, at least three different views of language, structural, functional and interactional that provide the principles and theoretical frameworks to inform syllabus designs. But they are not complete in themselves. They need theories of language learning to be supplemented.

2.5 Theory of learning

A learning theory underlying a method responds to the questions of psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in language learning, and the conditions that are necessary to activate the learning processes. Process orientated theories give rise to learning processes like habit formation, induction, inferencing, hypothesis testing and generalisation. Condition oriented theories appeal to the nature of

the human and physical contexts in which language learning takes place. Although there is a natural affinity for the combination of a view of language and a theory of learning different pairings may take place. The relation of structuralism (a linguistic theory) and behaviourism (a learning theory) produced audiolinguism. The cognitive-code theory of learning is a product of the combination of a more sophisticated form of structuralism and a weak form of behaviourism.

Very little has been said about communicative learning theory. In their book *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*, Richards and Rodgers (1986) mention some elements of an underlying learning theory. One element might be described as the communicative principle: activities that include real communication encourage learning. A second element is the task principle: activities in which language can be put to carry out meaningful tasks promote learning (Johnson, 1982). A third element implies what might be called the signification principle: language that is meaningful to the learner adds to the learning process. Learning activities are obviously chosen on the criteria of how well they manage to engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use. They speak for the conditions necessary to promote language learning.

Krashen's Monitor theory (1981) addresses both the process and condition dimensions of language learning. At the level of process, according to Krashen, acquisition refers to the natural assimilation of language rules through using language for communication; learning refers to the formal study of language rules and in a conscious process. He says that learning is available only as a 'monitor' which is the accumulation of conscious grammatical knowledge. As far as

conditions necessary for acquisition are concerned, Krashen describes them in terms of the type of input the learner receives. Input must be comprehensive, slightly above the learner's present level of competence.

An alternative has been considered by Johnson (1984) and Littlewood (1984) compatible with CLT. They call it the skill-learning model of learning theory. As the theory assumes, the acquisition of communicative competence in a language gives an example of skill development. This involves both a cognitive and behavioural aspect.

The cognitive aspect involves the internalization of plans for creating appropriate behaviour. For language use these plans derive mainly from the language system - they include grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary, and social conventions governing speech. The behavioural aspect involves the automation of these plans so that they can be converted into fluent performance in real time. This occurs mainly through practice in converting plans into performance (Littlewood, 1984).

It can also be assumed that successful learning requires a classroom atmosphere in which every individual student feels secure against any criticism for his linguistic inadequacy and is free from any intimidation. A little confidence and a sense of equality on the part of the student count a lot towards the success of communicative learning in a foreign language classroom.

With all this information about developments in the view of language and the theory of learning we pass on to the next chapter on the evolution of syllabus design.

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CHAPTER THREE

The evolution of syllabus design

It seems worthwhile to make a brief survey of the overall development in syllabus design and the new turn that it has taken after the development of the concept of communicative competence.

3.1 Syllabus and its Properties

Developments in linguistics have resulted in developments in the theory of syllabus design. The evolution of the theory of language and of the theory of learning, as has been discussed in chapter two, has had a considerable impact on the theory of syllabus. A definition of syllabus may not be out of place here since it can help teachers distinguish between syllabus and curriculum. While curriculum includes the goals, objectives, contents, processes, resources and means of evaluation, the syllabus makes a statement of the plan for a particular part of the curriculum. The ELT syllabus defines an ELT course planned for a group of learners meeting in the classroom or outside the classroom for a particular period of time. Traditionally it involves, according to Johnson, 'the division of 'terminal behaviour' into pedagogically manipulable items informed by a view of language and language learning'.¹

One thing should be made clear here, that the syllabus is not in any way an unalterable blueprint. There is plenty of latitude for the teacher to take into account alterations in the classroom situation and respond to them and still work within the framework provided by the

syllabus designer. There has been appeal for the consideration of social and ideological factors on which the success of modern syllabuses depends. What is implied is that we should invite opinions of the sociologists, experts in the social psychology of teaching and political scientists. The syllabus construction should not be a neutral activity. It should consider suggestions from those who are concerned with research in socio-economic and cultural matters, and also the opinions of the learners who are the main participants in the execution of the syllabus. This procedure would make the syllabus learner-centred, giving importance to the needs of the learners and the interests of the community they belong to.

The overall intention behind the presence of a syllabus is to provide the teacher with knowledge about the learner, the purpose he or she may have in learning the target language, and to match this knowledge with appropriate content and teaching technique.

The controversy over developing a syllabus which is suitable for teaching learners how to master communicative competence has not yet reached its final stage. EL teachers are still not in a position to state definitely what syllabus type is appropriate for what particular situation. All the traditional syllabus types have failed to meet the requirements of the communicative teacher. With the functional/notional syllabus, new problems have cropped up. There are again linguists who are in favour of syllabus-free courses. It is, therefore, necessary for a syllabus designer to have a comprehensive knowledge about different approaches to syllabus design and the range of existing syllabuses before he decides on what might be suitable for him.

3.2 Grammatical or Structural syllabus

The Grammatical or Structural syllabus, the first member of the group of traditional syllabuses, assumes that most language teaching materials come from grammatical systems. Learning a language involves the learning of that system. The designer is not interested in the context specific grammar. Every individual unit is an isolated system and the assumption is that the essential problem for the learner is to master linguistic form. The social meaning and use of such forms are additional. So this type of syllabus cannot be used for a communicative course. Many other critiques have been levelled against it from different quarters. First, it considers grammar to be at its most efficient when it presents together forms under the same rule. For instance, an efficient grammar will group 'can', 'will', 'might', 'must' etc. under the same heading as 'modals'. In a structural syllabus the units are meant to be learned systematically and are sequenced on the basis of the degree of difficulty.

Units	Time	Categorial Labels	Revision Test
I	6 hrs	Nouns: (1. Common (2. Proper (3. Abstract	List of Nouns List of Nouns List of Nouns
II	6 hrs	Verbs: (1. Regular (2. Irregular (3. Auxiliary	Conjugation Conjugation Conjugation
III	6 hrs	Tenses: (1. Present indefinite (2. Present perfect (3. Present continuous	Structural Drills Drills
IV	6 hrs	Articles: (1. Definite (2. Indefinite	Structural Drills

Fig. 1 : Example of a typical structural syllabus for a period of four weeks.

Secondly, the assumption that knowledge of the grammatical system equals ability to use that system is shortly detected to be false by the learner and the effect of this may well be to lower the motivation since he is unable to see how what he is being taught corresponds to his need. Third, the aim of teaching the whole of the grammar is inefficient, not only because it is a virtually unattainable goal, but also because few learners will ever need the whole grammar in order to communicate. In practice, none, ever on earth, speaks language by remembering rules. Human beings communicate and the language automatically follows. Monitoring by rules always impedes fluency in speech. One final complaint against grammatical/structural syllabus is that in teaching approaches based on it forms and meanings are assumed to be in one-to-one relation. Meaning is taught of course, but it is primarily the meaning of the words and sentences as isolates, and not their meaning within stretches of discourse. The changing attitude to syllabus design expresses that language must not be considered as a body of knowledge, a package possessed by a teacher and offered to the learner. Every learner is an active possessor of language; it is rather an extension of his personality. Language comprises a set of abilities used by human beings in unpredictable situations.

So a purely grammatical syllabus presents linguistic items exclusively of other elements of the languages in a contextual grading the problem can be approached in a different way, i.e. from the point of view of situation.

3.3 Situational Syllabus

According to the situational view of syllabus design, language always occurs in a social context and it should not be divorced from its context when it is being taught. The situation based syllabus comprises units bearing situational labels. But again a host of

<u>Units</u>	<u>Situations</u>
Lesson I	In the Hotel
Lesson II	In the Classroom
Lesson III	At the Station

Fig. 2 : Units and situations in a situational syllabus

problems arise. Firstly, though the syllabus designer can specify 'Announcing the arrival of x Airways flight number n from y' he cannot find out all the situations which a learner can come across.

'..... if the definition is widened to allow non-observable factors to be considered we reach the point where the wish to describe a situation is basically the wish to describe the world, reality, life itself' (Wilkins, 1972b).

So, for most learners the prediction of situational needs is an impossibility. Second, though the situational approach assumes that there is some predictable relationship between the situation and the language. There are no strong relationships of this type, except for highly ritualized language use, e.g. prayer, greeting, leave-taking,

thanking, etc. Thirdly, the situational syllabus is a structural syllabus in disguise. A structural syllabus is a list of the basic structures and sentence patterns arranged according to their order of presentation. In situational Language Teaching structures are always taught within sentences, and vocabulary is chosen according to how well it enables sentence patterns to be taught. Frisby gives an example of the typical structural syllabus around which situational teaching has been based.

Lesson	Sentence Patterns	Vocabulary
I	This is That is	book, pencil, ruler desk
II	These are Those are	chair, picture, door window
III	Is this? Yes it is Is that? Yes it is	watch, box pen

Fig. 3 : a typical situational syllabus around structural skeleton
(Frisby, 1957).³

There is always an element of unpredictability in spontaneous conversation. Making complaints, requesting, seeking information, agreeing, disagreeing are not situationally defined language functions, and may be encountered in any context. The absence of the functional component from the situational syllabus is one of the major drawbacks in its capacity to meet the claims that it has made for it in terms of

preparing learners for real life situations. So the conclusion is that a situational syllabus is not suitable for a general language course and we are to carry on our search further afield.

3.4 Notional Syllabus

In contrast with the two types of syllabus discussed above, the notional syllabus implies a belief in language as a system of meanings rather than forms. It assumes that learning a language consists of learning how to mean. Such a syllabus would seek correlations between form and function but would define the link as being between the forms of the language available to the user and meaning he wishes to express.

Wilkins (1976) in designing a syllabus for the adult FL learners of Europe set up a pair of interesting categories which were able, as it were, to convert meanings into a form which could be processed by the grammar into sentences. He calls them Semantico-grammatical Categories and Categories of Communicative Function.⁴

A. Semantico-grammatical categories

- | | |
|-------------|-----------|
| 1. Time | 4. Matter |
| 2. Quantity | 5. Case |
| 3. Space | 6. Deixis |

B. Categories of Communicative Function

1. Modality
2. Moral evaluation

3. Suasion
4. Argument
5. Rational enquiry and exposition
6. Personal emotions
7. Emotional relation
8. Interpersonal relation.

Their functions coincide with Van Ek's (1976) T-Level. Van Ek distinguishes six main categories of verbal communication,⁵ (and relates them to fourteen topic areas):

1. imparting and seeking factual information
2. expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes
3. expressing and finding out emotional attitudes
4. expressing and finding out moral attitudes
5. getting things done (suasion)
6. socializing.

But Wilkin's and Van Ek's works generally met with the criticism that the categories of functions and their exponents they had provided were no more than a collection of lists from which only situationally appropriate phrases would be generated, and what this would yield would turn out to be no more interesting than the phrase books for tourists and businessmen. Attempts at the implementation of the notional approach have proved fairly successful with specialised courses of limited duration but have been found to be insufficient for general courses. Some alternatives have been proposed which are commonly known as communicative syllabuses. A lengthy critical study of them is not possible here. We want only to reproduce the implications they have in consideration of their practical application.

3.5 Types of communicative syllabus:

Communicative syllabus type one

Structural-Functional

The problems of notional/functional syllabus for the general or global courses which are considered as investment for the future seem to be less in the structural/functional or the weak functional (Yalden, 1983) approach. This model assumes that linguistic forms are necessary before the introduction of the functional works. It is thus a question of adding a further component to an already existing syllabus, rather than integrating communicative teaching with linguistic form. Wilkins (1974) finds this type of syllabus extremely valuable for general courses. A notional approach of this type (structural/functional)

can provide a way of developing communicatively what is already known, while at the same time, enabling the teachers to fit the gaps in the learners knowledge of the language. In either case the learner will have an awareness that he is doing something fresh (Wilkins, 1974).⁶

Communicative syllabus type two

Structures and Functions

The second type of communicative syllabus represents a structural progression in a communicative framework. Brumfit holds the view that Wilkins has not addressed the question of learning theory and that it is, therefore, not clear on what ground he proposes his L₂ teaching. He calls for a development in the communicative methodology to help fluency as well as accuracy. Brumfit is in favour of retaining structural progression as the organising principle of his syllabus type.

The simple proposal is to use the grammatical system as the core of the syllabus in a ladder-like series of stages and to be prepared to relate all other essential material to this series. Thus notional, functional and situational specifications can be conceived of as a spiral round a basically grammatical core (Brumfit, 1981).

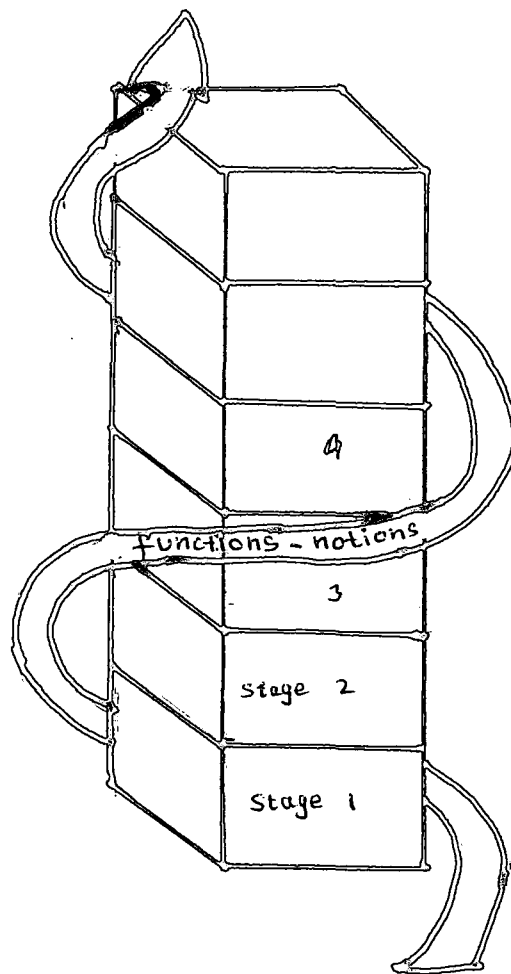


Fig. 4 :

Another approach by Johnson in the same line as that of Brumfit is based on the criterion of unit of organisation. He suggests that any unit of the course can be given functional, notional or structural focus and all used in conjunction with a structural core.

Communicative syllabus type three

Variable Focus

Another concept of the communicative syllabus has been forwarded by Johnson's work in which shifts of emphasis take place in a progression from the elementary to the advanced level rather than in a given unit. Emphasis shifts in turn from formal to rhetorical features then to the instrumental use of language in studying other subjects of the curriculum. This form assumes that there are three types of language practice (structural, functional, instrumental) and that the notion of 'primary focus' is a guarantee to the control of lesson contents at any level of proficiency. A model of the approach is presented below (from Allen, by Yalden, 1983 : 114).⁸

Levels of Communicative Competence

Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
<u>Structural</u>	<u>Functional</u>	<u>Instrumental</u>
Focus on language (formal features)	Focus on language (discourse features)	Focus on language use
(a) Structural control	(a) Discourse control	(a) Situational or topical control
(b) Materials simplified structurally	(b) Materials simplified functionally	(b) Authentic language
(c) Mainly structural practice	(c) Mainly discourse practice	(c) Free practice

Fig. 5 : Three levels of Communicative Competence in Second Language Education (Allen, 1980)

Communicative syllabus type four

Functional

Here the objectives are described mainly in terms of communicative functions. Linguistic items or ideational contents are not considered as primary needs of this type of syllabus. The objectives determine the functions needed and the functions determine the selection and sequencing of grammatical materials. Language practice is motivated by the objectives, leading to Johnson's complaints of structural disorganisation. The unit of organisation is functional in this type of syllabus. In situations where rapid progress to a highly functional variety of the target language is needed the approach under discussion is found very useful. A good number of ESP courses and materials have been built on this principle and have been criticized for providing 'phrase book' language.

Communicative syllabus type five

Fully Notional

This type of syllabus has been exemplified in the T-Level, Waystage and other Council of Europe documents. Munby's (1978) extended version of the work of Wilkins and Van Ek provides further model for generating a fully notional syllabus. The model seems to be appropriate for learners whose proficiency in the second language is specified for very particular purposes. A contemporary version of the type under discussion comprising socio-cultural, semantic, linguistic and psycho-pedagogical components has been exemplified in Maley, 1981. A good example of notional language can be found in the context of a daily weather forecast.

'Good afternoon. And a fine Sunday summer's afternoon in many places today with a ridge of high pressure over the country. There is a weak front though in some western areas and this front is going to move very slowly eastwards today and tonight. For the forecast for today and tonight I'll begin with London, Southern counties from Kent Westwards to Hampshire and Berkshire, East Anglia, the Midland and all Northern counties of England. And here it's going to stay dry all day with plenty of sunshine and reasonably warm too - the temperature getting up to 19 to 21 degree centigrades and winds mostly very light today, so there could be some coastal sea breezes.'

Notion	Language Function	Structure
1. Temporal - today, tonight, summer's afternoon	1. Socializing - good afternoon	adverbials - slowly, reasonably
2. Spatial - here, southern countries	2. Expressing intention - I'll begin with London	articles - a, the
3. Direction - eastwards	3. deduction - so there could be some coastal sea breezes	adjectives - fine, weak, high

Fig. 6 :

Communicative syllabus type six

Fully Communicative

A fully communicative approach to syllabus design involves learner autonomy implying that the division of 'terminal behaviour' (Johnson, 1982) into methodologically manipulable items would be assumed by the learner according to the dictates of his 'internal syllabus', how he himself manages the items of learning. Newmark (1966) has spoken of 'the exponential power available in learning in natural chunks' - or in more general terms, the learner's own strategies for language acquisition'.⁹ When our aim is to teach communicative competence, communication should be the primary element in the language teaching process. If we focus on communicative skills we will inevitably develop most areas of linguistic competence. A current interest is in, therefore, Prabhu's (1983) task based procedural syllabus.

An example of such a syllabus and the first instance of communicative Language Teaching around a specification of communication tasks is the Malaysian communicational syllabus (English Language Syllabus in Malaysian Schools). Three communicative tasks are divided into twenty-four sub-tasks on the basis of needs analysis. All these tasks are organized into learning areas with specified goals. A goal is a piece of comprehensible information, written, or spoken, or produced in a non-linguistic form. 'A letter is a product, and so is an instruction, a message, a report, or a map or graph produced through information gleaned through language' (English Language Syllabus, 1975 : 5).¹⁰

Communicative syllabus types discussed above follow Yalden's (1983) specification of the types of communicative syllabuses. There are other proposals, new or ad-hoc. Richard and Rodger (1980) identifies some eight communicative syllabus types: '(1) structures plus functions, Wilkins (1976); (2) functional spiral around a structural core, Brumfit (1980); (3) structural, functional, instrumental, Allen (1980); (4) functional, Jupp and Hodlin (1975); (5) notional, Wilkins (1976); (6) interactional, Widdowson (1979); (7) task based, Prabhu (1983); (8) learner generated, Candlin (1976), Henner-Stanchina and Riley' (1978).¹¹ Since no one proposal seems to have achieved universal acceptance because of inherent problems a balanced view of framework might prove reasonable for the situation we are intested in, to which we turn in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER 4

The proposed approach to syllabus design

4.1 Needs Survey

Needs analysis, as first conceived, has been tied to the idea of specified courses. In recent years, however, the whole concept of needs analysis has taken on a new dimension. It has undergone a considerable extension and enrichment after a great deal of controversy, debate and re-evaluation. It has been established that the students of the general courses also have specific needs which could be defined and used to construct a communicative syllabus. The 'Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools' (Van Ek, 1976) is a well-known example of such specifications. The communicative needs of secondary school children, as we can expect, using a foreign/second language as medium of games and instructions are closely related to two areas of activity : topics and language functions. They can constitute the most appropriate means of interaction on the playground and in the classroom. The aim of CLT is to have the learners develop the ability to create and construct utterances (spoken and written) useful to the intended social purpose. The needs of learners in a secondary school context (especially at 16 plus) are varied, extended and of higher order goals. Their first need is communication practice in a 'warm' and 'positive' (Burnfit, 1985) classroom atmosphere free from the terrorising appearance of an authoritarian teacher fond of making very tough questions to show his power.

The students at the stage under consideration (as specified in Chapter 1) come from a divergent English Language background (e.g. government secondary schools, non-government secondary schools, English medium schools, both government and non-government high madrasahs, public schools, cadet schools, etc.), but normally with a uniform knowledge of Bengali, the national language. English is taught as a compulsory foreign subject at this lower secondary level and continues with the same status and importance in the higher secondary level, which is our area of discussion. The ages of the learners at this level range from 16-20 years. They have completed their 10th year of formal training starting from the primary and have committed to memory rules of grammar, sentences and vocabulary. But they cannot speak English and recall rules to write well-formed sentences. That is to say, they cannot communicate in English. What is needed is practising communication in the classroom through pupil-pupil interaction in 'authentic' situations and maximum exposure. This will help both communication and supplementation of any deficit in their knowledge of grammar. They have 6 periods of 45 minutes duration per week spreading over a period of two years.

The higher secondary level comprises three different groups of Arts, Science and Commerce. But the learners have to undertake the same English language course prescribed by the board. Although the needs of different categories of students are obviously diverse, as far as English is concerned, the general needs are always the same. The overall expectation is to make the students understand, read, write and speak English with confidence and competence. But the reality of the situation, in Bangladesh, does not in anyway confirm the expected achievement.

Teachers as linguists and social beings are expected to have fair, not specified, knowledge about the future linguistic behaviour of these students on completion of the course since it is the terminal point at the end of twelve years of formal education. If they can identify some needs relevant to special features of the local condition for the group they work with, they would not only add a remarkable incentive to the learners' motivation, but also would be able to make the syllabus more learner centred and the teaching more enthusiastic. Teachers can identify the needs of different groups of students at this terminal stage by consulting published check lists. The most useful one could be that of 'The Threshold Level' published in 1975, by the Council of Europe. In the document, Van Ek describes a learner in general terms and establishes his needs to interact with a foreigner visiting his country, or he himself visiting a foreign country where a foreign language is spoken, and identifies the constituents of situations and furnishes specifications of each constituent. 'The Threshold Level' means the general communication requirements of a person living in a foreign environment irrespective of his knowledge about the target language in the specified field. Our students, after crossing this level, will proceed for higher studies both in technical and general universities, within the country or abroad. Some of them will undertake vocational training courses to register their names with the employment exchange division of the government ministry for labour and man-power and will subsequently be exported to foreign countries. A third group, including the dropouts will need English for personal use or for touring abroad. We wish to add only one point to Van Ek's specification of language learning objectives which are given below in the question form to help teachers identify communicative needs of the students at the terminal stage in Higher Secondary schools in Bangladesh.

1. What possible situations will the learner face and what topics will they deal with?
2. What language activities will they perform?
3. What language functions will they fulfil?
4. What will the learners do with respect to each topic?
5. What general notions will the learners be able to handle?
6. What language forms will they use?
7. What is the reason for their being unable to use their linguistic knowledge in communication?

Needs are, however, determined by purposes. The idea of specific purposes implies that the learner cannot have unlimited time to spend on the task. It is, therefore, necessary to select some aspects of the target language which will be given more prominence in the framing of the syllabus.

4.2 Determination of Purposes

Since it is not quite possible to tap the purposes of using the target language in general courses on a scientific basis, we need rather apply our common sense and intuition to define the basis of relation between purposive need and language. A look at the government specification of the future roles of these students may help describe some purposes.

A tentative list includes skilled work (e.g. of mechanic) business, clerical jobs, jobs with foreign agencies etc. And those who go on to higher education will need to be equipped to use English as study tool in reading and understanding texts written for first year students or for lay

readers. The larger context of the immediate needs of the country also affects the choice of skills and content of the syllabus. Broadly, the needs of the country include improving agriculture, industry, trade and commerce, and the welfare of the people. At the class XI/XII level the role of English in helping to meet these needs involves equipping students to find, process and express the relevant information.]

(Bangladesh National Curriculum and Syllabus Design Committee Report, 1978 : 77).

So, the learners may be required to read or listen to a lecture on say, Shakespearean Tragedies, for a general impression, specified information, the main message or author's or speaker's attitude. They may at the same time be required to take notes, write a summary, transfer the information or make some evaluation. They may be required to carry on a conversation or correspondence with a foreign friend on such topics as religion, domestication of woman, natural hazards and family planning problems in Bangladesh. These students need competence in active oral production as they have to deal with representatives of foreign agencies. They will have to deal with foreign immigration authorities as they will go to work in foreign countries as mechanics. They may be in need of writing reports as work-supervisors and labour managers in foreign settings, etc.

The traditional way of imparting knowledge about listening, speaking, reading and writing is not enough. This cannot be interpreted as a specification based on the concept of learner's needs to meet the communicative demand of the situation he encounters. The realities of the situation as manifested in the learner's inability to communicate the message he conceives do not appear to be in conformity with the national policy of bilingualism. The present syllabus (exam. 1988) comprising ten pieces (possibly for reading) from a set text (e.g. A Monarch Without a Crown - M.H. Huq), five pieces of prose and

poetry (e.g. The Luncheon - W. Somerset Maughan), grammar and composition, is rooted in a distant past when English was the medium of instruction, and is unable to cope with the need of communicative competence of modern learners. English is now taught as a foreign language, a subject. The students are now more conscious about their future.

What is needed is a syllabus with provisions for constant feedback from different sources of ELT procedure, and which is flexible and concurrent and capable of extending its bounds beyond specific aspects of needs and grading. As no single communicative syllabus type described in chapter 3 has been universally agreed upon we propose a proportionately balanced integrated syllabus for the Higher Secondary level of general ELT course in Bangladesh where teachers have to work in a not-so-well organised classroom.

4.3 The Integrated Approach to Syllabus Design

The integrated syllabus comprises a number of possible variations and is suitable for the second language teaching situation under consideration in this work. The idea is based on the principle of organising functional items followed by some structural points which will deal with some important structures introduced in the functional units but which have not been paid much attention. Even the activities concerning structural forms will vary according to the progress of the course. For instance, in the final year the linguistic forms would be considered only when the need arises. In using this type of syllabus, the teacher will have to be careful that strict separation between forms and functions is avoided. This principle and the principle of shifting focus according to the degree of prominence on different

components of communicative competence and pedagogical advantage depending on the circumstantial factors inform the development of the integrated syllabus. Since communicative functions affect motivation for the use of appropriate forms, they cannot be discussed in isolation. This is an approach which is grammatical because it is communicative and communicative because it is grammatical: 'an integrated approach which is based on the recognition that acquisition and use are not distinct but complementary and interdependent aspects of the same process'² (Widdowson 1978b).

It is more economical in that it can allow for the provision of accommodating various orientations - some covering important functions and others dealing with settings and topics and still some, others with notions or structures. It is different from the structural syllabus in its treatment of the formal component of language, here the grading is spiral rather than linear. Corder says that

In its more sophisticated form it means returning to some more general area of syntax or semantics, for example, or some domain of language use, developing a deeper or more abstract understanding of the items, process or systems involved, relating them and integrating them with other material already presented and learned³ (Corder, 1973).

Spiral distribution means distribution of some items in different contexts for a period of time giving the student various opportunities to rehearse the items rather than just one exposure to them. The integrated approach provides a more sophisticated framework by paying consideration to grammar and rules of use in an even proportion and gives the students opportunities to develop authentic samples of discourse.

The point that needs clarification here is that the functional syllabus has been criticised for being unable to provide generative framework for learning, the integrated approach retains grammatical framework but with predominance of functional material. The balance is there so that the very common criticism against functional elements that they have failed to become more than elaborate phrasebooks is not repeated.

There has always been a gap between the ways applied linguists' use of the term 'communicative' and the classroom level use of it. The integrated approach is a middle ground between how language is learned and used. It also embodies the basic principle of instruction that the acquisition process is reinforced by the nature of the input syllabus which helps pedagogic manipulation by focussing on discrete items and providing formal teaching practice in them. Even the fully communicative approach described above like Prabhu's procedural syllabus has room for allowing the learners, when they fail to perform a set task, to break down the task into sub-tasks. The students, however, would acquire learning without this, but the point is that such structuring expedites acquisition.

The integrated syllabus is an assortment of the best ideas expounded by the analytical descriptions of all the existing models - traditional and communicative - and ensures a safe ground for general courses. It sets out to be the most efficient means of providing coverage for specifications such as of Van Ek's 'Threshold Level' described in terms of functions, settings, topics, notions, and structures, by means of incorporating units of various orientations - functional, notional, structural etc. This is in contrast with the traditional structural or situational approaches.

Once we begin to think in terms of a syllabus which is multi-dimensional rather than uni-dimensional, many of the conflicting conclusions from the criteria discussed above will disappear, and the result will be a syllabus design which is less rigid and more sensitive to the various student language needs.⁴ (Johnson, 1982).

Therefore, in the integrated approach various components of communication (functions, topics, settings, notions, discourse and linguistic skills) are reproduced proportionately and woven together to form constructive and meaningful wholes relevant to the physical context of the situation. Rules of use and grammatical paradigms can be dealt with occasionally giving particular importance to stimulating the learners' creative potential and accentuating their motivation for practice what is acquired independently. Systematic use of forms appropriateness and meaning potential are considered important, though there is no scope for theories in isolation from their contextual application. All these components of the target language both in speaking and writing are related to the communicative needs of the learners defined by the teacher.

Assuming that the students at this level having not-so-bad knowledge of grammar are capable of engaging in more sophisticated works of manipulating their language system linking structures to interpersonal textual and ideational categories, the teacher, in this approach can use materials from three of the methodological camps of Littlewood (1978) - old techniques with functional component; the new techniques of games, tasks, simulations and role play; and communication as primary technique.

With all these experiences about the nature of the integrated approach, how the conflicting opinions of syllabus design are brought together in it, how it appears to be fulfilling the communicative needs of the students at the H.S. level of Bangladesh, and how it accommodates methodological implications, we pass onto the next topic : the description of the proto-syllabus.

4.4 Proto Syllabus

This stage forms the most vital part of syllabus design : the drawing of syllabus specifications. In the communicative syllabus types described above, a large number of possible candidates appear to present themselves for consideration. The list may include general notions in particular topics, roles, communicative functions and events, variety of registers, structures as well as lexical items. The difficult task of selecting and combining the items is far from the knowledge of the teachers who are familiar with and are used to working from a structural syllabus. It is very useful, therefore, to consult works such as 'Threshold Level' and 'Waystage' as they are recognised as the well-know examples of proto-syllabus inventory. Although it is quite possible to make different number of arrangements of components or alternative arrangements of components of a communicative syllabus a knowledge of 'Threshold Level' and 'Waystage' can be of great help towards deciding on the specification of contents. To decide on whether to consider all the aspects of communicative competence or how to account for all those aspects the syllabus designer has to bear in mind some important points before he begins work. Firstly, neither is it always possible nor desirable to include everything, much will depend on the physical constraints involved in the programme as well as local opinion about the syllabus type. A prior assessment of what is

both feasible and desirable may save a lot of wear and tear on the course designer. This will also help to reduce the procedure to manageable proportion. Secondly the description of the general purpose of the course made earlier on (Stage 2) must also be consulted at this stage. The thought of the purpose will help decide on a syllabus type as well as the arrangement of the syllabus specifications. Both quality and quantity of the data from needs analysis are to be considered. This information will assist in determining how many components the syllabus should have and how these components should be linked to each other subsequently. Consideration of the specification of the target levels is also important. As the progress of the students has to be measured a preconceived idea of the type of measuring instrument to be used is necessary. The determination of the target-levels should be based on the availability or on the special arrangement of measuring instruments. Finally suggestions from other partners in the process - teachers, learners and administrators - are as important as necessary for really practical selection and ordering of the item. Care must be taken in considering learners' opinion since the mental and intellectual growth of the students at this stage (higher secondary level) is not sufficient. As the integrated approach does not require the teacher to stick to any particular text the teacher can enjoy a freedom of choice as he thinks out his suggestions. He can also have the chance to introduce many different registers (formal and informal) of the target language.

Now the syllabus content can be mapped out. The mapping of the syllabus content should be done by consulting the inventories or lists constructed beforehand. These inventories are the basic tools, as it is said, of the course formulator as expert or of the teacher as course conductor. They are found in various forms. Some are found as word

frequency lists drawn up on the basis of practical research conducted on a corpus of language. Some inventories are found as lists of language functions deduced basically from sources in philosophy of language. Various dictionaries also can be used as profitable sources. The inventories of specific topics are made on the basis of a given needs analysis.

Special care must be taken in selecting the lexis. The lexical items must conform to the communicative requirement of the learners. The teachers will have to work carefully to write the lexical items to match the topics, functions and settings of the communicative functions of the target language. They may be helped by the following guidelines:

1. Word frequency : how often a particular group of words might occur in a set of communicative events.
2. Word coverage : a knowledge of what different functions one particular word can perform.
3. Availability : some words are more available than others.

The lexical items include both single words and idioms (cluster of words giving one single meaning different from the meaning of each individual word). Teachers will have to take care about introducing words and idioms (of course through communicative activity, not as isolated items). The learning of vocabulary items must include informations about pronunciation, spelling and inflexional morphology. Teachers should be aware of the fact that some words are closely related to the cultural context of the target language. The meaning of these words cannot be established without reference to the culture of the language. It must also be remembered that the lexical items taught

in the classroom form only a small fraction of the large number of words one needs in real life. It lies with the teacher to help students learn additional items beyond the lexical content of the syllabus. A caveat is necessary concerning the selection of lexical items. The word frequency lists mentioned above do not constitute reliable sources of lexical items needed for a particular programme. For the higher secondary level of general education both 'Waystage' and 'Threshold Level' are useful guides. The teacher or the syllabus designer may also call to his help information from discourse analysts, his own intuitions as well as locally available data in selecting the vocabulary. Other sources constitute the technical item-banks of various kinds, and the authentic samples of language, both in spoken and written forms, of the type the learner will deal with.

There is no need to make a list of linguistic forms since there are so many sources available in pedagogical grammar. To specify the other components of the syllabus, according to the dictates of the need for communicative competence, the checklists provided in the appendix will be very useful indeed. These checklists are collected from different published sources. The teacher already knows how to fulfill the need for linguistic forms through pedagogical grammar. He can make a choice of situations and themes to deal with semantic matters. Checklists and other planning instruments provided in the appendix can be used for different purposes. First, these instruments can be used to make a preliminary definition of content selection for a proposed programme. Second, they can be usefully employed to detect short-comings (if any) in the syllabus already being used. Third, these are useful means to record systematically what actually went on in a given course. It is always necessary to check any tendency towards the overt teaching of grammar dissociated with the context. An

integrated syllabus like one that is proposed here supports no more than 10% grammatical works, however, with functional grafting for the first year of the H.S. level in Bangladesh and for the second year nothing more than what is needed occasionally.

In addition to the checklist provided in this work a further checklist could be developed in the lines of Canale and Swain's 'Strategic Competence'. This list might include the different 'verbal and non-verbal' items of communication strategies used by the speaker of a language to supplement the deficiency in competence. Such strategies, as they say, could be of two types; those that relate to grammatical competence and those that relate to sociolinguistic competence. The first category of the strategies include paraphrasing grammatical forms when one does not possess mastery over them and the second category includes role-playing strategies to address a stranger whose social status is unknown.

In the integrated approach to language teaching there is always a need for certain amount of flexibility which is necessary for reaching the desired goal. Although an advance idea of what should be taught is necessary, an idea of what has been taught vis-a-vis what is being taught now seems necessary yet. A comparison between the prospective and retrospective (Candlin, 1980) mappings of teaching can be easily made. This work comprises a way of keeping a sensible vigilance on what is being done in the classroom. It is a way of managing the various components of communicative competence as included in the syllabus.

Since it is beyond the scope of this work to incorporate a description of syllabus specifications in detail without surpassing the requirement set for it in terms of volume, a syllabus inventory based on the model of Council of Europe specification (Van Ek, 1976) is provided in the appendix. This will certainly help the purpose. The crucial issue of organising the specifications into a pedagogic syllabus constitutes the final step to developing a really practical tool for classroom interaction.

4.5 The pedagogical syllabus

Organising a semantic syllabus inventory (of the Threshold Level type) into a pedagogical syllabus poses the problem of unit of organisation. The unit of organisation is an item selected from the specifications to play the prominent role in terms of the whole objective behind a particular unit among all other items in the unit. For instance, if a syllabus is organised such that each teaching unit in the coursebook covers one functional area (like greeting or requesting) the syllabus is termed a 'functional syllabus'; if the syllabus is organised around a setting (like a bus stop, at the airport) we call it 'setting-based' syllabus. The integrated syllabus gives particular importance to the skill and experience of the teacher in dealing with the matter in the course of classroom interaction. Here we take the example of Johnson's (1982)⁵ model of organization to carry the point home.

Johnson used an inventory of nine items - three functions, three settings and three notions - taken from Van Ek (1975).

Functions

1. Hotel
2. Location
3. Enquiring how certain/uncertain something is

Settings

1. Hotel
2. Station
3. Shop

Notions

1. Availability/non-availability
2. Location
3. Cost

These items can be organised in lessons in different ways. Three functional items can be used to organise three functional lessons around them, each having the same illustrative sentences for practice. Thus a functional lesson might take the form :

1. Requesting information

Settings : Hotel, Station, Shop

Notions : Availability/non-availability, Location, Cost

2. Giving information

Setting and Notions as above

3. Enquiring how certain/uncertain something is

Settings and Notions as above

A setting-based orientation would look like:

1. At the Hotel

Functions : requesting information, giving information,
enquiring about certainty/uncertainty

Notions : availability/non-availability/uncertainty

2. At the Station

Functions and Notions as above

3. In a Shop

Functions and Notions as above

A third possibility takes the notional form:

1. Availability/non-availability

Functions : requesting information, giving information,
enquiring about certainty/uncertainty

Settings : Hotel, Station, Shop

2. Location

Functions and settings as above

3. Cost

Functions and settings as above

The functions can be woven to frame dialogues or discourse with suitable notions and appropriate settings. The teaching techniques could be more successful if a taxonomy of communicative functions is

identified. Such classifications might take headings like:

- the immediacy of need (classroom activity)
- the generalizability (to other situations)
- the complexity (of forms or structures)

And with the structural orientation the organisation of specifications might look like:

Functions

1. Socialising
2. Getting things done (suasion)
3. Finding out moral attitudes

Notions

1. Distance
2. Location
3. Dimension

Settings

1. Hotel
2. Shop
3. Station

Structures

1. Perfectives
2. Modals
3. Conditionals

The Alexander grid⁶ (1976) which provides a cell for each item of the categories of functions: notions; settings and topics; social, psychological and sexual roles; style and range; grammar and lexis; has encouraged the production of a large number of teaching units for oral work. One typical example of a functional unit drawn on an Alexander grid may help to give a better-understanding of the format of a pedagogical syllabus.

(X) Situation or Event : Shopping

Central Functions : Agreeing/Disagreeing

ACTIVITY 1.1 PICKING UP THE FRIEND

Functions

Tone (appropriate to role; will influence choice of exponent)

1.1.1 Greeting	pleasant
1.1.2 Suggesting	intimate, pleasant
1.1.3 Disagreeing	patient, polite
1.1.4 Agreeing	Neutral or flattering
Repeat 112 to 114 as required	Add in attention signals
1.1.5 Telling	Intimate
1.1.6 Questioning	Curious
1.1.7 Responding	Excited

ACTIVITY 1.2 ENTERING STORE

1.2.1 Requesting	courteous
1.2.2 Giving information	courteous
1.2.3 Thanking	courteous

ACTIVITY 1.3 CHOOSING A GARMENT

- | | | |
|-------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| 1.3.1 | Requesting | courteous |
| 1.3.2 | Giving information | courteous |
| 1.3.3 | Persuasion | insistent |
| 1.3.4 | Hesitation | defensive |
| 1.3.5 | Persuasion | flattering, insistent |
| 1.3.6 | Disagreeing | annoyed |
| 1.3.7 | Agreeing | polite |
| 1.3.8 | Leave-taking | abrupt |

(Y) EXPONENTS : (1.1.1 to 1.1.2 only)

ACTIVITY 1.1 PICKING UP A FRIEND

- 1.1.1 Hello, Hi
 Lovely morning, isn't it?
 You look great today
- 1.1.2 I thought we'd start at
 Let's start at Smith's, then go to
 Why don't we start at Jones'
 Would you like to start at
 What about starting at
- 1.1.3 Do you think we'll have enough time?
 Perhaps we should begin at Jones'
 Couldn't we begin at
 I think it might be better if we began at

- 1.1.4 O.K. by me
Sure, why not?
I don't mind
Your'e quite right
Let's do that

(Z) Making a lesson plan from the basic unit

1. To provide the students with exponents. Rehearsing and Discussing.
2. Communicative activities
 - a) direct role play
 - b) free role-play (students to create interaction)
 - c) production of written acccount of the event⁷ (Yalden, 1983) .

A syllabus developed in such a way will have considerable effect on the role of the teacher as well as the status of the students in the classroom. The communicative syllabus, naturally demands that the teacher becomes a guide, an instructor, even the learners' partner in different classroom activities. An equally radical change in the learner will be the undertaking of a more active responsibility in a more active process by him.

4.6 Classroom Interactions

It is a common sight in all traditional foreign language classrooms that the learners are always in a psychological state of

shy and keep a low profile to avoid being asked to take part in the communicative activity. A feeling of inferiority and humiliation at making mistakes before a critical audience adds to an obvious sense of insecurity. This situation does not favour communicative teaching. Making the classroom a place of free and spontaneous communicative interaction depends largely on the extent of interpersonal relationship providing security against inhibitions and support in favour of motivation for the expression of self identity.

The growth and development of confidence in the learners and the encouragement of interpersonal relationships between learners and learners, and learners and the teacher are essential concerns of a communicative approach to language teaching/learning. Therefore, the teacher must practice submission of his own behaviour to the learning needs of the students, accepting his new role as guide and peer.

Some very practical guidelines for teaching/learning activities in the classroom as suggested by Littlewood (1983) would, we hope, be of particular use for teachers and learners of Bangladesh:

- As general overseer of learning the teacher must co-ordinate learner activities leading towards greater communicative activity.
- As classroom manager he will be responsible for grouping activities into lessons.
- In many activities, he may perform the familiar role of instructor.
- In others he will not intervene after initiating the proceedings, but will let learning take place through independent activity.
- While such independent activity is in progress he may act as consultant or adviser where necessary.

- He will sometimes wish to take part in an activity as co-communicator with the learner.
- co-communicative interaction gives learners more opportunities to express their own individuality in the classroom.
- Learners are not being constantly corrected. Errors are regarded with greater tolerance as completely normal phenomena in the development of communicative skills.

(Summary from Littlewood, 1987)⁸

The proposal of communicative (integrated) syllabus for EFLT in the Higher Secondary level of Bangladesh is far from a new adventure in the realm of syllabus design. It is rather a timely response to a very practical need of the learners which has been felt by many as something looked for to bring about a real change in the stagnant situation in the English language pedagogy. The feeling for change has been gaining momentum since the end of the sixties when the status of English was downgraded from medium to subject. We, therefore, believe that the proposed approach with all its accompanying recommendations will make some headway in the existing ELT situation in Bangladesh. The integrated syllabus by virtue of its flexible and dynamic nature may, we hope, act as the long desired solution to the problem of communicative inability that has cast shadows on the hopes and aspirations of both the learners and their parents.

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CONCLUSION

The different stages of evolution of the syllabus, the changes in the views of language and the theory of learning, and the types of approaches in communicative syllabus design as discussed in this work are all necessary steps to help decide on a syllabus appropriate for a particular environment. The learner centred approach to the communicative syllabus is always informed by the learner's social, individual and educational needs. The specification of these needs depends on the teacher's ingenuity and the dictates of the situation. Each situation has the potential to precipitate different sets of specifications. Even these specifications are not exhaustive and binding. An assessment of the programme has to be made. The progress of the students has to be measured on the basis of performance. The findings might result in the modification of some of the items of the syllabus or might lead to a thorough re-examination of the whole programme.

The question of the teacher's freedom is important. He should be free to create or re-create materials to fill in the gaps (if any) in the syllabus, but still ready to accept the framework proposed in the syllabus. As the communicative syllabus does not stick to one single method and the demands on the teacher's skill are so great the teacher must have adequate knowledge of the theoretical and practical bases of foreign language pedagogy. This makes him apt for undergoing exposure to some knowledge of the theory of syllabus design also. As the EFLT situation in Bangladesh calls for the communicative approach to syllabus design there should be an eventual change in the roles of both the teacher and the learner. The teacher will encourage the students

to take part in a more active process. The integrated syllabus, being a communicative syllabus itself, stresses that proper emphasis on the use of such exercises and interactional devices as can help promote interpersonal communication is ensured. The classroom interaction will make use of a variety of materials and techniques required by the immediate needs of the situation.

APPENDIX I

ELT Aim and Objectives for the Higher Secondary
Students of Bangladesh

1. Aim

To provide students at the higher secondary level of education with an ELT programme which will enable them to develop communication skills in English.

2. Objectives

2.10 Listening

- 2.1.1 To enable students to listen to their interlocutors appropriately.
- 2.1.2 To enable students to follow a short talk or story
- 2.1.3 To enable students to follow explanations about topics
- 2.1.4 To enable students to listen and recognise spoken/conversational English
- 2.1.5 To provide students with practical experience of listening for general or specific information
- 2.1.6 To enable students to follow a series of instructions and to write dictations
- 2.1.7 To provide students with the practice of identifying the sound pattern of English.
- 2.1.8 To provide students with the practice of listening to speech in special conditions (e.g. disturbance, rapid speech)

- 2.1.9 To enable students to follow announcements, news bulletins, interviews and dialogue
- 2.1.10 To help students initiate conversation with and respond to a tolerant native (or native-like) speaker on familiar everyday topics.
- 2.1.11 To enable students to understand a variety of styles (formal situations, young people of their own age and even to make sense of some humour)

2.2.0 Speaking

- 2.2.1 To enable students to perform verbal communications
- 2.2.2 To enable students to engage in dialogue or conversation
- 2.2.3 To enable students to ask and answer questions in English
- 2.2.4 To provide students with the practice of developing fluency in English
- 2.2.5 To provide students with the practice of explaining or describing a topic
- 2.2.6 To enable students to use language appropriately according to communicative needs of the situation
- 2.2.7 To help students to comprehend pronunciation, intonation, stress and rhythm in English
- 2.2.8 To provide students with sufficient knowledge about the comprehensible use of tenses in speech and contractions.
- 2.2.9 To provide students with the ability to take initiative and convince others
- 2.2.10 To provide students with the practice of understanding and making use of communicative strategies (gestures, body language, position of the interviewer)

2.2.11 To enable students to use English in friendly and everyday life situations

2.3.0 Reading

2.3.1 To provide students with the skill of silent reading reflecting teenage and adult interest

2.3.2 To enable students to read rapidly

2.3.3 To help students to understand literal meaning of texts

2.3.4 To enable students to comprehend and relate points in a text and draw conclusions

2.3.5 To enable students to understand main facts and opinions

2.3.6 To enable students to identify what is most relevant in a text

2.3.7 To enable students to read letters, travel informations, advertisements, newspapers and magazine stories

2.3.8 To enable students to grasp the essential message in a text

2.3.9 To enable students to develop reading practice for enjoyment

2.3.10 To encourage students to read extensively to expand their vocabulary and grammar

2.3.11 To enable students to infer the meaning of newly encountered words.

2.4.0 Writing

2.4.1 To enable students to write simple letters and job applications

- 2.4.2 To enable students to write messages, accounts and answer questions
- 2.4.3 To enable students to write simple stories, paragraphs and to express their feeling in correct English
- 2.4.4 To enable students to fill in forms and to produce written messages (e.g. conveying the message of telephone call)
- 2.4.5 To enable students to take notes of mainpoints in a text and to make a coherent paragraph expanding them
- 2.4.6 To enable students to state the details of an argument
- 2.4.7 To enable students to make the general conventions of writing
- 2.4.8 To provide students with the practice of writing summaries of long texts.

Consulted Reports of the Committee for National Curriculum and Syllabus Design for higher Secondary education in Bangladesh (1978).

APPENDIX II

Syllabus Design Checklists

The checklists provided in this appendix are never exhaustive. They are primarily intended to smooth out the syllabus designing process on the basis of learners' characteristics and needs. Secondly these checklists will help the teacher to monitor the syllabus in use and to help necessary feedback.

Checklist I : Settings

1. Geographical location:

1. foreign country where English is native language
2. foreign country where English is not native language
3. own country

2. Place

2.1 Outdoors:

1. street
2. square
3. park, garden
4. terrace
5. countryside
6. beach
7. lake, sea
8. mountains

9. sports field
10. open air swimming pool
11. camping site
12. bus stop
13. taxi stand
14. sights
15. market place
16. car park

2.2 Indoors

2.2.1 Private life:

1. house
2. apartment
3. room
4. kitchen

2.2.2 Public life:

2.2.2.1 Purchases

1. shop
2. supermarket
3. multiple stores
4. indoor market

2.2.2.2 Eating and Drinking

1. restaurant

2. cafe
3. snack bar
4. bar
5. canteen

2.2.2.3 Accommodation

1. hotel
2. camping site
3. holiday camp
4. hostel
5. boarding house
6. farm house

2.2.2.4 Transport

1. railway-station
2. bus-station
3. airport
4. ferry terminal
5. ticket office
6. travel bureau
7. information office
8. lost property office
9. customs and immigration
10. garage
11. petrol station
12. indoor car-park

2.2.2.5 Religion

1. church
2. mosque
3. prayer ground

2.2.2.6 Physical services

1. hospital
2. doctors/dentists waiting room
3. surgery
4. chemist
5. public lavatory
6. sauna
7. hairdresser

2.2.2.7 Learning

1. school
2. language institute
3. classroom
4. library

2.2.2.8 Displays

1. museum
2. art gallery
3. exhibition

2.2.2.9 Entertainment

1. theatre
2. cinema
3. concert-hall/opera
4. nightclub

2.2.2.10 Communication

1. post office
2. telephone booth

2.2.2.11 Finance

1. bank
2. money exchange office

2.2.2.12 Work

1. office
2. workshop
3. factory
4. school/university

2.2.2.13 Means of transport

1. bus
2. train
3. tram
4. underground railway

5. aeroplane
6. taxi
7. boat/ferry
8. private car
9. bicycle

Checklist II

Topics

The topics chosen here are not definitive and do not form a complete list either, but it makes use of the knowledge about learners' social roles. It is assumed that the learner who is capable of dealing with the topics linked here will also be able to deal with other topics making use of the 'transfer-potential' of linguistic ability.

1. Personal identification

1. name
2. address
3. telephone number
4. date and place of birth
5. age
6. sex
7. marital status
8. nationality
9. origin
10. profession, occupation
11. employer
12. family

13. religion
14. likes and dislikes
15. character, temperament, disposition

2. House and home

1. types of accommodation
2. accommodation, rooms
3. furniture, bedclothes
4. rent
5. services
6. amenities
7. region
8. flora and fauna

3. Trade, profession, occupation

1. trades, professions, occupations
2. place of work
3. conditions of work
4. income
5. training
6. prospects

4. Free time, entertainment

1. hobbies
2. interests
3. radio, TV, etc.
4. cinema, theatre, opera, concerts, etc.

5. sports
6. intellectual pursuits
7. artistic pursuits
8. museums, galleries, exhibitions
9. press

5. Travel

1. travel to work, evening-class, etc.
2. holidays
3. countries and places
4. public transport
5. private transport
6. entering and leaving a country
7. nationalities
8. languages
9. hotel, camping-site, etc.
10. travel documents
11. fares
12. tickets
13. luggage
14. traffic

6. Relations with other people

1. friendship/aversion
2. invitations
3. correspondence
4. club-membership
5. political and social views

7. Health and welfare

1. parts of the body
2. positions of the body
3. ailments/accidents
4. personal comfort
5. sensory perception
6. hygiene
7. insurance
8. medical services
9. emergency services

8. Education

1. schooling
2. subjects
3. qualifications

9. Shopping

1. shopping-facilities
2. foodstuffs
3. clothes, fashion
4. smoking
5. household-articles
6. medicine
7. prices
8. weights and measurements

10. Food and drink

1. types of food and drink
2. eating and drinking out

11. Services

1. post
2. telephone
3. telegraph
4. bank
5. police
6. hospital, surgery, etc.
7. repairs
8. garage
9. petrol-station

12. Places

13. Foreign language

1. ability
2. understanding
3. correctness

14. Weather

1. climate
2. weather-conditions

APPENDIX III

Language Functions

To draw a complete list of language functions is not possible. The following list is an extract from Van Ek (1975). It is hoped that the items mentioned here will provide a basis for the use and necessary modifications that must be made in designing a syllabus for a particular environment.

1. Imparting and asking factual information

- 1.1 identifying
- 1.2 reporting (describing and narrating also)
- 1.3 correcting
- 1.4 asking

2. Expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes

- 2.1 expressing agreement and disagreement
- 2.2 inquiring about agreement or disagreement
- 2.3 denying something
- 2.4 accepting an offer or invitation
- 2.5 declining an offer or invitation
- 2.6 inquiring whether offer or invitation is accepted or declined
- 2.7 offering to do something

- 2.8 stating whether one remembers or has forgotten something or someone
- 2.9 inquiring whether someone remembers or has forgotten something or someone
- 2.10 expressing whether something is considered possible or impossible
- 2.11 inquiring whether something is considered possible or impossible
- 2.12 expressing capability and incapability
- 2.13 inquiring about capability or incapability
- 2.14 expressing whether something is considered a logical conclusion (deduction)
- 2.15 inquiring whether something is considered a logical conclusion (deduction)
- 2.16 expressing how certain/uncertain one is of something
- 2.17 inquiring how certain/uncertain others are of something
- 2.18 expressing one is/is not obliged to do something
- 2.19 inquiring whether one is obliged to do something
- 2.20 expressing others are/are not obliged to do something
- 2.21 inquiring whether others are obliged to do something
- 2.22 giving and seeking permission to do something
- 2.23 inquiring whether others have permission to do something
- 2.24 stating that permission is withheld

3. Expressing and finding out emotional attitudes

- 3.1 expressing pleasure, liking
- 3.2 expressing displeasure, dislike
- 3.3 inquiring about pleasure, liking, displeasure, dislike

- 3.4 expressing surprise
- 3.5 expressing hope
- 3.6 expressing satisfaction
- 3.7 expressing dissatisfaction
- 3.8 inquiring about satisfaction or dissatisfaction
- 3.9 expressing disappointment
- 3.10 expressing fear or worry
- 3.11 inquiring about fear or worry
- 3.12 expressing preference
- 3.13 inquiring about preference
- 3.14 expressing gratitude
- 3.15 expressing sympathy
- 3.16 expressing intention
- 3.17 inquiring about intention
- 3.18 expressing want, desire
- 3.19 inquiring about want, desire

4. Expressing and finding out moral attitudes

- 4.1 apologising
- 4.2 granting forgiveness
- 4.3 expressing approval
- 4.4 expressing disapproval
- 4.5 inquiring about approval or disapproval
- 4.6 expressing appreciation
- 4.7 expressing regret
- 4.8 expressing indifference

5. Getting things done (suasion)

- 5.1 suggesting a course of action (including the speaker)
- 5.2 requesting others to do something
- 5.3 inviting others to do something
- 5.4 advising others to do something
- 5.5 warning others to take care or to refrain from doing something
- 5.6 instructing others to do something

6. Socialising

- 6.1 to greet people
 - 6.2 when meeting people
 - 6.3 when introducing people and when being introduced
 - 6.4 when taking leave
 - 6.5 to attract attention
 - 6.6 to propose a toast
 - 6.7 when beginning a meal
- [...]

Extracts from The Threshold Level in European Unit/Credit System for Modern Language Learning by Adults. Council for Cultural Co-operation of the Council of Europe, Strasbourg, 1975, in Brumfit, C.J. and Johnson, K. (eds) 1983:106-116.

APPENDIX IV

Discourse Skills

(A) Cohesion and reference

0.0 Cohesion of text

0.1 Understanding and expressing relations between parts of a text through lexical cohesion devices as for example:

0.1.1 repetition

0.1.2 synonymy

0.1.3 hyponymy

0.1.4 antithesis

0.1.5 apposition

0.1.6 lexical set/collocation

0.1.7 pro-forms/general words

0.2 Understanding and expressing relations between parts of a text through grammatical cohesion devices of

0.2.1 reference (anaphoric and cataphoric)

0.2.2 comparison

0.2.3 substitution

0.2.4 ellipsis

1.0 Rhetorical cohesion. Recognizing and using discourse markers to signal relationships such as

1.1 enumeration examples of markers

1.1.1 listing first, second

1.1.2	time sequence	then, next, finally
1.2	addition (conjunction)	(and)
1.2.1	reinforcing	furthermore, in addition
1.2.2	similarity	similarly, equally
1.3	logical sequence	(so)
1.3.1	introduction	now
1.3.2	summarizing	overall, so far
1.3.3	result, consequence	so, consequently
1.3.4	deduction, induction	therefore, hence
1.3.5	conclusion	to conclude, to sum up
1.4	apposition	(or)
1.4.1	explication	that is, in other words
1.4.2	exemplification/ illustration	for example, for instance
1.5	contrast	(but)
1.5.1	substitution	that is, I mean
1.5.2	replacement	alternatively
1.5.3	antithesis	conversely, instead
1.5.4	concession	anyway, however

(B) Operations on a text

3.0 Extracting salient points to summarize.

- 3.0.1 the whole text
- 3.0.2 a specific idea/topic in the text
- 3.0.3 the underlying idea or point of the text

3.1 Selective extraction of relevant points from a text, involving

- 3.1.1 the coordination of related information
- 3.1.2 the ordered rearrangement of contrasting items
- 3.1.3 the tabulation of information for comparison and contrast

3.2 Expanding salient/relevant points into summary of

- 3.2.1 the whole text
- 3.2.2 a specific idea/topic in the text

3.3 Reducing the text through rejecting redundant or irrelevant information and items, especially

- 3.3.1 omission of closed-system items (e.g. determiners)
- 3.3.2 omission of repetition, circumlocution, digression, false starts
- 3.3.3 compression of sentences or word groups
- 3.3.4 compression of examples
- 3.3.5 use of abbreviations
- 3.3.6 use of symbols denoting relationships between states, processes, etc.

(C) Rhetorical organization of discourse

4.0 Planning and organizing information in expository language (especially presentation of reports, expounding an argument, evaluation of evidence), using rhetorical functions, especially:

- 4.0.1 generalization
- 4.0.2 definition
- 4.0.3 classification

- 4.0.4 description of substances and their properties
- 4.0.5 description of processes and their stages
- 4.0.6 formulation of hypotheses
- 4.1 Recording information (expressing/understanding equivalence of meaning)
 - 4.1.1 within the same style (e.g. paraphrasing to avoid repetition)
 - 4.1.2 across different styles (e.g. from technical to lay)
- 4.2 Distinguishing the main idea from supporting details by differentiating
 - 4.2.1 primary from secondary significance
 - 4.2.2 the whole from its parts
 - 4.2.3 a process from its stages
 - 4.2.4 category from exponent
 - 4.2.5 statement from example
 - 4.2.6 fact from opinion
 - 4.2.7 a proposition from its argument

(D) Overt transactional skills in spoken discourse

- 5.0 Initiating in discourse:
 - 5.0.1 how to initiate the discourse (elicit, inform, direct, etc.)
 - 5.0.2 how to introduce a new point (using verbal and vocal cues)
 - 5.0.3 how to introduce a topic (using appropriate microfunction such as explanation, hypothesis, question)

5.1 Maintaining the discourse:

- 5.1.1 how to respond (acknowledge, reply, loop, agree, disagree, etc.)
- 5.1.2 how to continue (add, exemplify, justify, evaluate, etc.)
- 5.1.3 how to adapt, as result of feedback, especially in midutterance (amplify, omit, reformulate, etc.)
- 5.1.4 how to turn-take (interrupt, challenge, inquire, dove-tail, etc.)
- 5.1.5 how to mark time (stall, 'breathing space', formulae, etc.)

5.2 Terminating in discourse:

- 5.2.1 how to mark boundaries in discourse (verbal and vocal cues)
- 5.2.2 how to come out of the discourse (excuse, concede, pass, etc.)

5.3 Identifying and indicating the main point or important information in a piece of discourse

- 5.3.1 vocal underlining (e.g. decreased speed, increased volume)
- 5.3.2 end-focus and end-weight
- 5.3.3 verbal cues (e.g. 'The point I want to make is...')

Checklist V : Study Skills

0.0 Basic reference skills: understanding and use of:

- 0.1 graphic presentation viz. headings, sub-headings, numbering, indentation, bold print, footnotes

- 0.2 table of contents and index
- 0.3 cross-referencing
- 0.4 card catalogue
- 0.5 phonetic transcription diacritics
- 0.6 bibliography
- 0.7 dictionaries

1.0 Skimming to obtain

- 1.1 the gist of the text
- 1.2 a general impression of the text

2.0 Scanning to locate specifically required information

- 2.1 a single point
- 2.2 more than one point
- 2.3 a whole point

3.0 Note taking skills

- 3.1 completing note frames
- 3.2 deletions
- 3.3 use of symbols
- 3.4 use of diagrams

APPENDIX V

The situational application of a functional approach to language teaching: summary

General functional categories Language acts 1.Factual 2.Intellectual 3.Emotional 4.Moral 5.Suasive 6.Social Two types of exponents 1.Fixed phrases 2."Grammatical system"	Notions What? General: Often abstract appropriate to a large variety of topics and situations Specific: Directly determined by the choice of topic	Setting and topics Where? Concrete: transaction General open-ended conversation or argument	Social, sexual and psychological roles Who? Friends, strangers officials, etc.	Style and range How? Style: formal informal Range: "cline":certain - tentative - uncertain	Grammar and lexis With what means? As they arise in each situation
Examples Inquiring about.. Are there... Inquiring about... Are there...	the availability of tickets any tickets for tonight's performance? the existence of theatres any good theatres in your area?	Concrete: box office General	Stranger-official Friend-friend	Formal	As in example As in example

The Alexander Grid (Alexander 1975), in J.A. VAN EK, The Council of Europe, 1976:160.



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