UNIVERSITE NATIONALE DU RWANDA
Faculté des Lettres

**Communicative English Teaching Methodology:
A Look Into The Teaching of English in Rwanda.**

by Enos KAGABA

Mémoire Présenté en vue de l'Obtention
du grade de Licencié en Lettres,
Département: Anglais

Director: Dr. Charles UWIMANA

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To Tarissa, Emile and Séraphine.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

FIGURE AND TABLES

v

INTRODUCTION

Language constitutes the principal means of communication between members in a given linguistic community. In such a community natives acquire the mother tongue almost automatically from interaction with their environment while the non-natives have to be taught the language or learn it from printed materials or audiolingual devices in order to communicate and integrate the same community. Thus, foreign language learners must acquire a non negligeable amount of features of the foreign language - those are what Hymes usually refers to when he speaks of the "communicative competence" - so that they may communicate effectively with others.

One may learn a foreign language by picking up chunks of language while living among the speakers of that language, whereas another may learn it in the classic way, that is, through formal exposure in a classroom. The present study is mainly concerned with the second type of learning as found in Rwandan secondary schools.

Foreign language teaching/learning is more demanding and more systematic than unstructured language exposure. This may be illustrated by the fact that language teaching theorists, after years of research,

have not yet agreed on one efficient way of teaching a foreign language. Even today we are witnessing the growth of new techniques many of which challenge the traditional views of what the foreign language teaching classroom must be. Again, language teaching/learning theorists have not yet agreed on a unique efficient method. However, the existence of common shared assumptions has driven some linguists and sociolinguists to consider the very recent communicative approach to language teaching to be the most promising method. That is why the latter has been in vogue nearly for the last two decades in Linguistic literature.

The main assumption of the communicative approach is that language is taught and acquired by using it. That is, language teachers achieve efficiency when concentrating on "notions" and "functions" of the language and inciting students to speak instead of concentrating on sentences as in the traditional school.

Since the late sixties the communicative approach has been in vogue in the area of foreign language teaching. The purpose of this study is to see if the communicative method, which runs on many Rwandan secondary school English teachers' lips, is applied in the classrooms. In other words, I set out to examine if all Rwandan secondary school English teachers, who claim to teach communicatively, have in practice already divorced with the traditional method. The study postulates that not all Rwandan secondary school English educators who say that they use the communicative method actually do it. It also argues for the fact that among those who have not been trained to teach following that model and have no idea of what it is, there are some who, in practice, apply a considerable number of communicative teaching techniques. In fact the study attempts to address the following three research questions :

First, have all English teachers in Rwanda acquired necessary information about basic principles of the communicative approach to English language teaching? Second, to what extent do they actually apply those principles that they have acquired about the method? Third, are there any deficiencies in the way teachers apply the communicative approach? Are there any practical problems hampering the application of the method? If yes, how could teachers be helped to improve the quality of their communicative teaching?

My interest in the present topic derives from the fact that the very recent method has not yet been used systematically in Rwandan schools. I was afraid some teachers bothered little about what method they were using or did not distinguish the communicative method from others.

The first chapter is a review of the literature on the communicative approach and an attempt to inform the reader, especially the secondary school teacher of the communicative approach by supplying him with definitions of essential concepts which underly the method. The idea is to give English teachers a fresh look into the basic concepts of the communicative approach and to inform those who have not been trained to use the method nor have read about it. In this chapter, an attempt is also made to present the communicative model as proposed in Hymes (1971). Furthermore, a discussion of what is thought to be the weaknesses and strengths of the method is carried out. Finally, an attempt is made to compare the communicative approach and other major language teaching methods. These are namely the grammar translation method, the direct method and the audiolingual method.

The second chapter looks into the communicative approach in Rwanda. It shows how the method has been introduced in Rwandan teaching system and how the communicative English is relevant for English learners in Rwanda, and analyses the status of usage of the method in secondary school English teaching. Besides, it considers how the "knowers" of the very method apply it in their teaching and attempts to assess the "non-knowers'" teaching techniques. The analysis is done on the basis of data from three different but complementary sources of information. These are : answers to a survey questionnaire, interviews with English teachers and classroom observation.

The third chapter is an analysis of major defective communicative teaching practices used in different classrooms. This chapter begins with what I have labelled "cases of unawareness", that is, the teaching techniques used but which, unfortunately, do not develop communicative abilities and proceeds to analyse other hindering problems. Finally, it suggests different ways to alleviate those problems for more effective communicative methodology.

Ten Rwandan English teachers constitute the population for my observation. In addition to their responses on the questionnaire, I observed them teaching. Twenty other teachers have also answered our questionnaire and whenever possible, I interviewed them for additional information. The purpose of the questionnaire was threefold . First, I wanted to know to what extent English teachers in Rwanda, especially those who believe they know and use the communicative approach, actually do. Sedond, I wanted them to expose some of the techniques they use while teaching, and third, I wanted some information in regard to problems which

impede the communicative teaching in secondary schools for they would help in suggesting ways to solve those problems.

The teachers were principally asked to show what they know about the method or what they do in their teaching routine by marking "x" or circling letters corresponding to responses of their choice. I addition to the multiple choice questions, the respondents were presented with open questions. Some of the questions were designed to allow the teacher not only to reveal his opinion about the application of the communicative approach in Rwanda but also to say how much importance the English section in the "BPES" gives to the method through course books and inspections. Also, teachers were asked to give their opinions about the value of the communicative activities such as games, group works, dialogues and so forth.

As soon as the questionnaire was returned and corrected, a sample of ten teachers was selected for observation following a procedure described early in the second chapter. The ten teachers observed and the other twenty teachers provided me with useful information which allowed me to draw conclusions.

Another type of information was obtained through interviews with the two categories of informants. In either case, an informal talk was held in the teachers' office whereby I clarified the goal of my study and asked for clarifications about the motives of their classroom behaviour.

The last type of information resulted from my personal observation of lessons. A kind of check-list (see the appendix c) covering various areas of the communicative approach and traditional techniques was used to assess by means of comparison of teachers' knowledge of the communicative

theory with their ability to apply the method, that is, what they actually do in classroom teaching.

The results from the study are that only a few of the secondary school English teachers in Rwanda who claim that they know and use the communicative approach in their teaching course do so. Conversely, teachers who say that they do not know and thus do not use it were found to use at least sporadically some of the communicative strategies in a satisfactory way. Though informants were slotted into two categories, namely, "knowers" and "non-knowers" of the communicative approach, the analysis of data as in the second chapter has revealed that similar techniques are used by both categories of teachers. Therefore, the "non-knowers" have some knowledge of the communicative approach and this knowledge should be developed.

CHAPTER 1 : THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

1.1. Definitions of Key Terms

The present study is about how Rwandan English teachers apply the communicative approach to the teaching of English and involves such notions as "communication", "communicative competence", "communicative approach", and "Language usage/use." These terms will be often referred to throughout the whole work. Because of their high recurrence in the paper, I thought that, at the very beginning, there was a need for defining these key terms. Likewise, I found it important to present how different critics define the same notions. Thus the reader will be able to gather insights into the basic concepts used in the communicative teaching literature and above all, will be able to appreciate the extent to which Rwandan educators teach communicatively.

1.1.1. Communication

Looking at any socio-linguistic, psycholinguistic and ethno-linguistic book, one is struck by the high recurrence of the term "communication". But one is more struck to see that even Widdowson's <u>Teaching</u>

Language as Communication (1985) and Johnson's Communication in Class-
room (1986),two of the major theoretical works,do not bother to provide
a definition of "communication."

While many people define "communication" in terms of
"transfer of information", one can go a step further and take it as a
process of exchanging information, ideas or thoughts, with oneself or
between at least two individuals. The latter may be either speaker/
listener or writer/reader. Richards (1985 : 48) defines "communication"
as "the exchange of ideas, information etc., between two or more persons."
Elaborating on his definition, he further states that "in an act of
communication, there is usually at least one speaker or sender, a
message which is transmitted, and a person or persons for whom this
message is intended [i.e. receiver]."

It could be added that the "receiver" is the person
to whom the message is intended; he may be either the listener/speaker
or the receiver of the written message. That is, the act of communication
involves, as stated above, at least two individuals, one as a speaker and
the other as a listener. Though not all communication follows this
pattern, the adresser is generally the knower, and the hearer the non-
knower. However, the reverse may also work, the addresser being the non-
knower and the addressee the knower as when the former asks a question.
In writing, the sender will be the knower if he conveys information or
the non-knower if he asks for information. In this case, the receiver,
who will transmit back the requested information, is the knower.

Communication is thus a two-way process. The speaker
and listener on the one hand or the sender and the receiver on the other

hand must be in a state of readiness to exchange information. They must have what Johnson (1982) calls a "communicative intent." What he means by the expression "communicative intent" is that for real communication to exist between interactants, there must be an information gap between two or more persons.

To illustrate this idea I can take the example of the sender and receiver of a written message. When the sender has the needed information, it is not worth writing and sending a letter because this would be time consumming on his part. Lyons' (1968 : 413) clarifies this idea when he writes :

> If the hearer knows in advance that the speaker will inevitably produce a particular utterance in a particular context, then it is abvious that the utterance will give him no information when it occurs; no "communication" will take place.

The notion of information gap is associated with what Johnson (1982 : 151), in his theory of information, calls "doubt" on the part of the hearer or receiver. He says that "... information can be received only when there is doubt, and doubt implies the existence of alternative - where choice - selection or discrimination is called for." By this remark, Johnson seems to suggest that the speaker's selection of what to say implies many possibilities. Here, he adopts the psycholinguistic view of language that the listener is exposed to sets of options at various levels. "The concept of selection", Johnson (1982 : 152) goes on, "as choice from various sets of options, is thus basic to the concept of communication and the process of selection in real time from various sets of options is basic to the process of fluent communication."

1.1.2. Communicative Competence

"Communicative competence" is a basic concept to the complex philosophy of foreign language teaching/learning. The notion requires a good deal of attention for its importance in this domain and will be thoroughly discussed in section 1.2.1.

In fact, the notion of "communicative competence" may be understood through the answer to the question "what does the second/foreign language learner do to acquire, master the language?" The response would be that the second/foreign language learner would acquire the native speaker's knoweldge of the same language. It is, however, commonly held among both practitioners and theorists that, in most cases, it is impossible, if not a waste of time, to try to achieve this ideal goal. It is rare for a foreign language learner to learn and master all the linguistic and sociolinguist features of a foreign language.

As for "Communicative Competence", many theorists of language teaching/learning have speculated about it but only a few of them will be mentioned namely Chomsky (1965), Hymes (1972), Stern (1983) and Richards (1985).

The expression "communicative competence" came from what Chomsky calls "the native speaker's competence." The notion was to be reassessed and reinterpreted by Hymes and other sociolinguists for whom "communicative competence" involves the spontaneous mastery of a language that a native speaker acquires in the process of interaction and in relation to social context. This was in sharp contrast with the

Chomskyan definition of "linguistic competence" which aknowledged only the linguistic knowledge while leaving aside its sociolinguistic dimension. Chomsky's concept of language competence reflects the intrinsic tacit knowledge ... that underlies actual performance (Stern 1983 : 129) suggesting that communicative competence of a target language is a grammatical one. Conversely, Hymes (1965 : 222), defines communicative competence as the knowledge of "when to speak, when not, what to talk about with whom, when where and in what manner."

In fact, Stern (1983 : 129) shares some of Hymes' view of the term when he writes, "communicative competence, no doubt, implies the linguistic knowledge of social and cultural rules and meanings that are carried by any utterances." From this definition one sees that Stern acknowledges Chomsky's idea of internalized rules of syntax (linguistic side), but in addition to this, recognizes the socio-cultural side of the concept. Chomsky's notion of linguistic competence was criticized for its exclussive consideration of purely formal linguistic elements. Richards, in Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics, defines "communicative competence" as "the ability not only to apply the grammatical correct rules of a language in order to form grammatically correct sentences but also to know when and where to use these sentences and to whom." (P. 49). According to this linguist, communicative competence involves four levels of knowledge : the knowledge of grammar and vocabulary of a language, knowledge of rules of speaking, knowledge of how to use and respond to different types of speech acts and knowledge of how to use the language appropriately.

1.1.3. Communicative Approach

Having defined "communication" and "communicative competence", essential concepts in second/foreign language teaching, I must briefly explain the concept of "communicative approach." Generally, the "communicative approach" is a conception of language teaching the proponents of which stress on developing communicative abilities. Such a language teaching is distinguished from more traditional approaches where teachers were more concerned with giving students linguistic competence instead of the communicative competence.

As Cavell Newton defines it in English Teaching Forum (1987 : 51), "The phrase communicative approach is a very broad term encompassing any and all ways of teaching that emphasize the actual communication of meaningful information, opinions, or feelings on the part of the student, as opposed to the manipulation of language forms for their own sake (structural approach)."

Lixiaoju, in English Language Teaching (1984 : 9-12), shows that, as opposed to language knowledge which is put forward by the traditional method competence development advocated by the communicative approach involves student-centredness. The communicative approach presupposes that students take the central role in learning and the educational programme gears its objectives to what the students need or will actually need after leaving the school benches. It requires students themselves to do the learning contrary to the traditional method, which wants the language teacher to do everything for his students. The important thing in the communicative approach is that every learning activity is given to language learners' initiative. These language learners are actively

involved in communicative activities which incite them to speak, listen, write, read and think in English. Except that the teacher may sometimes act just as a facilitator by providing some language items to express ideas, students themselves do all the communicative tasks. To learn a target language learners themselves have to go through the process of learning while their teachers' role is to provide conditions for this process. In other words, contrary to the traditional school which used to treat the student as a passive recipient, taking no initiative, the communicative approach expects a high degree of involvement, initiative and activity from the student. (Li Xiaoju 1984 : 10).

1.1.4. Usage and Use in Classroom presentation.

As was already stated the communicative approach aims at enabling students to communicate through language rather than just to manipulate the language forms for their own sake. The notion of language use and usage is, in fact, another way of expliciting the same idea. Language in class-room may be presented in two ways. The teacher may require students to do mechanical substitution drills aimlessly replacing a word or expression by another. In so doing, the learner is involved in the instance of language usage. In this case, both teacher and students will be talking about the language instead of using it. The teacher on the other hand, may devise situations to which his students refer while practicing language. Students, in this case, produce sentences with reference to given specific situations.

The notion of language use as opposed to that of language usage is not different from the mechanism of communication previously described. Like communication, language use involves creation, negociation and even

interpretation of speakers' personal meaning and the information gap situation is of prime importance. This idea was thoroughly developed by Widdowson (1978 : 5) and was of great insights while I was designing the test on Rwandan teachers' knowledge about the communicative approach (see the Appendix B for instance) where teachers (informants) are asked to judge and tell whether or not the exchanges between Teacher and his pupil Emile is a case of information gap.

        A - Emile, what do you see on the desk?
        B - A book.
        A - What do you have in your right hand?
        B - Oh! Oh! a pencil.

In this classroom situation, these bits of language cannot be regarded as demonstrating an instance of language use. To show how and why this is not so, one may borrow Widdowson (1978)'s argumentation as paraphrased in the following paragraph. One has to consider the motives behind the teacher's questions. If the book is seen to be on the desk, and a pencil is equally seen in Emile's right hand, and if the Teacher is aware of the location of these objects, then why does he need to ask about their position? The book is on the desk and can be seen by the whole class, and the pencil in the pupil's right hand, it couldn't, by any means, be out of the teacher's sight. The fact that there is a book on the desk, and a pencil in Emile's right hand both visible to everybody, the teacher included, makes it unnatural and illogical to ask about their position. By the way, if Emile, or the students, realizes that the book on his desk and the pencil in his right hand are too small to be seen by his teacher, and that the latter is actually looking for them, the language, in this case, could be a genuine example of natural language use.

Widdowson (1978 : 6) says that "the realization of a sentence as use demands the ability to select which form of sentence is appropriate for a particular linguistic context and other ability to recognize the function fulfilled by a sentence in a particular communicative situation." To explain this new case of language use, let us again borrow Widdowson's argumentation and take the example of interactions between Emile and his teacher, but with slight changes in exchanges :

A : Emile, what is on the desk?

B : On the desk there is a book.

If the book on the desk is seen by everybody, the teacher's question does not achieve a normal communicative function because, in ordinary circumstances, no one would ask questions about something he already knows. So, the two utterances fulfil no communicative function in this situation. Again such a question, in normal communicative situations does not demand for answer such a long sentence as used by Emile. So, this reply is not appropriate in this particular conversation. This interchange, then, examplifies both inappropriacy of form in relation to the context and function fulfilled.

Let us take as another example the situation in which the teacher is in front of the classroom during break time, and would like his pupil who leans against the window to say whether there is room for his visual equipment on the desk. If the question and the reply are respectively :

A : Emile, what is on the desk?

B : A book.

there is an instance of language use as opposed to the instance of language usage illustrated in the above paragraph. It is appropriate for the Teacher to ask the question and the learner to answer him in this way; both form and function are appropriate for that informal interaction.

Another instance of classroom procedures which illustrate Widdowson's sense of usage/use in language teaching is the case of what he calls "situational presentation", whereby the teacher demonstrates meaning by referring to objects or events actually present in the class-room (Widdowson 1978 : 7). The procedure is, in fact, characteristic of the direct method. The events are said to represent the situation, and this is frequently used by teachers of beginning classes. This is the way we were taught English at secondary school. The teacher used to hold an object, a book for instance, point to it and say :

"This is a book" or "I am writing on the blackboard."

It is true that, in this case, we have a correct English sentence, an instance of correct usage, but there is no instance of use. Though both sentences refer to something in the situation invented by the teacher, the situations are not the ones that would normally require the use of such sentences. For instance, in the first sentence, the students know what the book is as an object. What they perhaps do not know yet is what it is called. The sentence that is uttered by the teacher would fit very well only if it were intended to differenciate the object (a book) from a notebook for example. And what the learners want is not to have the object identified as " a book" but associated with an English name. What the teacher did, in fact, was to teach instances of langage usage. What he should have said is "The English word for this is 'a book'"or "This is called a book in English."

It should be noted that an instance of usage in one situation can be appropriate as an instance of use in another. I do not pretend that an utterance of usage does not have any meaning; it does as a grammatically correct sentence and this meaning is the sum of its

individual semantic units referred to by Widdowson (1985 : 11) as "signification." It has nevertheless little communicative "value", to use Widdowson's expression. The point being made here is that speaking the language (instance of use) in classroom is teaching communicatively, whereas talking about the language (instances of usage) is not. Consequently, Rwandan communicative English teachers should teach language use instead of language usage. The second chapter of the present work will shed light on which instance of language is being taught in Rwandan English classrooms.

1.2. Communicative Approach.

1.2.1. Hymes and The Communicative Approach.

The reader of the present paper might quite rightly want to know the role of Hymes, an anthropologist and linguist, in a discussion of language teaching issues. His sociolinguistic and sociocultural insights into language teaching have led me to consider his ideas in this work. His conception of "communicative competence" fits well with the present study. Since communicative language teaching is, to some extent, built upon the notion of "communicative competence" or communicative ability, it is almost impossible to talk about the communicative approach without giving due consideration to Hymes' sociolinguistic contributions to language teaching.

A great figure in sociolinguistics, Hymes is not the only scholar to have talked about communicative competence. As cited in Munby (1978) many others such as Cooper, Jacobovits, Widdowson are as much immersed in the subject. This section will briefly evoke their ideas to show the extent to which they share Hymes' view of what communicative competence should be. The above criticized and rejected Chomsky's restricted notion of language competence as will be shown subsequently.

In The Communicative Syllabus Design (Munby 1978) especially
in its part about the theoretical background, the author indirectly argues
that the sociocultural side is essential to any study concerned with the
communicative aspects of language. Chomsky (1965) and Hymes (1972) take
a different stance. In the following sections the three sources will be
discussed.

For the sake of clarity, it is worth noting anticipatively that
Chomsky talks about "competence" whereas Hymes in his article speaks of
"communicative competence." The reader should not bother about the two
expressions; both authors mean "Language competence." For Chomsky,
"competence" is "the speaker-listener's knowledge of his language." It is
the knowledge of the "ideal speaker-listener" operating within "a completely
homogeneous speech community" distinct from what is referred to as
"performance" and defined as the "actual use of language in concrete
situations." (Brumfit and Johnson 1978 : 5).

Hymes' "On the communicative competence" (1978 : 5-26) is a
severe critical review of the Chomskyan notion of language competence.
Chomsky's conception of language competence as a speaker's perfect linguistic
knowledge within a uniform speech community with no regards to its socio-
cultural features is inadequate, for language is primarily for communication.

In defining what he calls "performance", Chomsky sometimes
includes a number of factors such as "perfect linguistic knowledge and
ideal speaker-listener"(Munby, 1978) to define "competence"; that is why
sociolinguists like Campell and Wales (1970), Cooper (1968) and Hymes
(1971) reject his view of "competence." According to them, Chomsky's
notion of "competence" is narrowly restricted to an abstract linguistic

knowledge of a language leaving aside all sociocultural considerations
which are equally important for effective communication. Such a know-
ledge and the notion he attributes to "performance" do not take into
account language competence.

While the above mentioned sociolinguists advocate the socio-
cultural aspect of competence in language description, Chomsky omits almost
everything of the kind and concentrates on the psychological constraints
of memory and perception rather than social constraints to explain
performance (Munby : 1978). In contrast to Chomskyan "competence",
Hymes' communicative competence has four sectors, namely, grammatical –
formally possible, psycholinguistic – implementationally feasible
sociocultural – contextually appropriate, and actually performed knowledge
and ability for use (Munby 1978 : 15; Brumfit and Johnson 1983 : 119). From this
                seen that
it is cleary ∧ Chomsky's notion of competence "is only one of the four constituents
of Hymes' communicative competence."

If Chomsky's notions of "competence" and "performance" were
complemented with competence for language use of sociocultural dimension
of a language, no mismatch would exist between him and Hymes in the matter
of language competence. For Hymes, Chomsky's "performance" and its under-
lying rules should be an integrated part of "competence." Without such
an integration of both concepts no communicative function of language can
be accounted for. In the same line of thought Munby (1978 : 17), though
not a sociolinguist but a syllabus designer, backs up Hymes' ideas saying :

> Applied linguistics needs a theory that, in Hymes' words
> can deal with a heterogeneous speech community,
> differential competence, the constitutive role of socio-
> cultural features.

At this stage, a word must be said about Campell and Wales, Cooper, Widdowson and Jacobovit whose concepts of "communicative competence" more or less match with Hymes'. For Campell and Wales, Chomsky's notion of competence is incomplete because it "omits by far the most important linguistic ability : to produce or interpret utterances which are not much grammatical but more important, appropriate to the context in which they are made" (Munby 1978 : 9). By "context" they mean both the situational and verbal context of utterances. They also argue for the paralinguistic features which are essential for any effective communication. Further information about this issue is provided by Burt and Dulay (1975 : 171-189).

As reported in Munby (1978: 17), Cooper (1968) deals with both the sociolinguistic and grammatical parameters. In this respect, his theory of "communicative competence" resembles Hymes'. He backs up Hymes in recognizing that effective communication necessitates more than Chomsky's mere linguistic competence.

> To communicate effectively, a speaker must know not only
> to produce any and all grammatical utterances of a language,
> but also how to use them appropriately. The speaker must
> know what to say, with whom, and when and where.

These lines make it clear that Cooper's "communicative competence" has two components : linguistic and sociolinguistic competence. For him the sole linguistic competence does not guarantee communicative competence, neither does the context by itself. The two parameters are complementary.

Widdowson (1985) shares Hymes' view point about language competence. He disagrees with Chomsky on the distinction the latter makes between "competence" and "performance", especially in his refusing to recognize performance as an integral part of "competence."

According to Widdowson, a speaker's "competence" includes the ability to recognize and use sentences to achieve what he calls "rhetorical acts." His notion of communicative competence implies the knowledge of the rules of use in a particular social situation. This differs from the speaker's "grammatical competence", that is, rules of grammar. A speaker's competence is, then, the sum of the two kinds of competence Widdowson speaks about.

And finally, Jakobovit's sociolinguistic view of language is of interest to the present study of Hymes' notion of communicative competence. He rejects the Chomskyan theory of linguistic competence for the same reasons as above. His main contribution to the notion of "communicative competence" consists of his four components of an individual's communicative ability. The four components are psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, kinesic, and paralinguistic parameters. His conception is, in fact, more inclusive than that of Widdowson and Cooper, but it differs from Hymes' in that he fails to consider the grammatical knowledge, an essential element of "communicative competence."

In short, communicative competence is a central notion to communication. Hymes and his fellow sociolinguists' rejection of the Chomskyan view of competence, especially of his ignorance of the socio-cultural parameters is justified. Linguistic competence alone is not sufficient to account for the ability the speaker-listener needs to communicate.

1.2.2. Strengths and Weaknesses of the Communicative Approach.

As it was seen earlier, communicative language teaching was developed as a reaction against the traditional methods whose prime concern was accuracy in production. The revolutionary method argues for something other than grammar practice. The main concern of the communicative approach is to involve language learners in the creation and use of meaningful and purposeful utterances in the target language. The proponents of this new method put forward various strategies to help learners develop the communicative ability. Despite communicative classroom activities have strengths, some of them are said to have weaknesses. The following paragraphs will point to some of the advantages and limitations associated with some types of communicative classroom activities, namely, "group-work" and "role-play". And for the sake of clarity, these activities will be defined at first.

1.2.2.1. Definitions

a. Group work

Group work is referred to when one talks about work or activity which involves more than one person. It suggests several people working together because they either have the same and common belief or the task which requires more than one single person's effort, be it physical or intellectual. In language teaching, group work can be defined as a classroom activity involving a group of students who take one another into account for a common purpose.

Richards (1985 : 246) provides a clear, and simple definition of "group work" in saying that it is a "Learning activity which involves a small group of learners working together." He goes on explaining that "the group may work on a single task, or on different parts of a larger task. Tasks for group members are often selected by members of the group."

b. Role-play

Generally speaking," role-play" is a specific type of group work. It is "group-work" to the extent that more than one person are involved in interaction and each member has to participate in relation to others; it slightly differs from "group work" in the sense that it is not necessarily characterized by intimate face-to-face association and cooperation. Richards(1985 : 246) precisely states the meaning of "role-play" saying that it includes

> drama-like classroom activities in which students take the
> roles of different participants in a situation and act out
> what might typically happen in that situation. For instance
> to practice how to express complaints and apologies in a
> foreign language, students might have to role-play a situation
> in which a customer in a shop returns a faulty article to a
> sales person.

The definitions above summarize long discriptions of these activities which can not be given in this paper, they are important because they will enable us to assess the communicative classroom activities in terms of the advantages and limitations associated with them.

1.2.2.2. Strengths·

Getting students to express their ideas and feelings freely in the target language is an up-to-date undertaking on the part of language teachers. It enables language learners to acquire communicative abilities. And one of the best means of achieving this is to have conversation in classroom where language learners talk to each other or with their teachers about topics of their interest. For instance, conversations may take place during group-work and this is very advantageous because during this activity, students increasingly interact or participate in conversation. As Ur (1984:11) remarks, "those who are not bold enough to express their thoughts either before their teacher or fellow students feel more or less encouraged to talk in front of a small number of peers." In front of a small group, participants overcome inhibition.

Even if a participant is unwilling to talk, the turn taking process which goes on in the classroom compels him indirectly to say something. The participant feels responsible for the succesful outcome of the debate.

Another outstanding benefit of group-work is that it allows the teacher to go around the class helping groups with language expressions where needed. At the same time the teacher is able to assess performance of individuals or groups. Thus, pupils feel that the teacher is present. The presence of the teacher not as a lecturer but as co-participant allows him to know students' problems in order to help them. What is more interesting in these types of activities is that, during discussions students learn from their peers.

The conversation involved in "role-plays", on the other hand, is helpful. This activity profits enormously language learners and to demonstrate this, only two important facts will be pointed out. The first advantage of "role-play" in an English language classroom is that during this type of exercise learners are no longer confined to the classroom language routine since, as has just been mentioned earlier, language learners can take different roles as participants in a discussion situation; that is, they may act as different characters. In such conditions, these characters themselves produce the language that they have to use. With regard to this idea, Ur (1981 : 9) shows that various kinds of language are actually involved in role-play exercise :

> The language can corespondingly vary along several parameters;
> according to the profession, status, personality, attitudes or
> mood of the character being role-played, according to the
> physical setting imagined, according to the communicative
> functions or purpose required.

The second advantage worth noting is that because role-play exercises deal with real-life situations language learners will meet in their daily communication, students will get interested in day-to-day language and will certainly enjoy it.

1.2.2.3. Weaknesses

Communicative language teaching involves various drama activities which are considered very important in language teaching. These activities, however, have weaknesses some of which will be shown in the following lines.

First, it is sometimes difficult to get students express themselves especially when they lack motivation. The foreign or second

language teacher has, therefore, an uneasy task to give them what Ur

(1981 : 1) calls the "purpose of genuine discourse."

Though very effective in giving the learner the communicative

ability, group-work activities sometimes cause serious problems, the

classical one being that it is not easy to get all students in class

communicate within a fifty-minute period. The conventional way of coping

with this classroom problem is to divide the class into relatively small

groups. But even with this strategy, the teacher will not be ensured that

each pupil talks as much as he normally would expect him   to, because

discussions may be monopolized by a few bold and fluent learners when

others listen or are occupied doing something else. Again, the group

which is not under the teacher's control "slips away" into using their

native language. There are some teachers who believe that such a slip

constitutes a serous problem since there is no known punishment to give a

student who dares use his mother tongue in an English class or who does

not participate. Ur (1984 : 8) remarks that this problem of discipline in

classroom results from the teacher's personality. The teacher should be

capable of getting students interested in group-work exercise. Besides,

if no purpose is given to group-work activities, the teacher will hardly

get his students interested in classroom communicative activities.

"Role-play", too, has limitations. As a matter of fact, with

relaxed students and a language teacher who are fond of "role-play", this

type of activity is effective and fruitful. But with inhibited learners

and a teacher who does not believe in potential outcomes of the activity,

the most interesting role-play activity will fail. This failure of "role-

play" might result from the fact that this sort of exercice involves a lot

of gestures whereby students who are neither eloquent nor active may not

enjoy doing the exercise. Such students would go in for fruitless activity, neglecting any application to look for the needed expressions or gestures to use.

The question of inhibition will be more acute with adult learners who do not feel at ease during such activities or find it rather childish to pretend to be someone else (Ur 1984 : 10). But, in my sense, this will happen if the activities are not adapted to the students' age. It is also arguable that the problem of inhibition is related to the grown up students' psychology. Performing among younger interactants, adult learners, if there are some in the classroom, add to their own language problems uneasiness of thinking that they are being laughed at by the younger learners, though the contrary may also be true. This psychological problem will prevent such language learners from enjoying "role-play" tasks no matter how attractive and appropriate they may be.

In brief, it has been shown that drama activities, namely, "group-work" and "role-play" are intended to help foreign language learners gain communicative abilities. These activities may induce the latter into communicative classroom discussions. However, these teaching strategies are not without limitations. Fortunately problems they go alongside with are far less considerable than the good they do to students; their numerous advantages in the communicative teaching are encouraging enough to be considered fruitful in language teaching classroom. This remark applies to other communicative teaching activities as well. Still, since some of the activities involved in the communicative approach have limitations, the approach is criticized. This constitutes the content of the following section.

1.2.4. The Communicative Approach and Critics

It is to be pointed out, in passing, that language teaching is, to some extent, a matter of fashion. A method which, today flourishes, is abandoned tomorrow. Innovation is indeed one of the characteristics of the human mind. This is not to say that the communicative approach is being swept away by any other method; it has already strengthened its roots and made valuable contributions to language teaching especially because of the great emphasis it places on "communicative competence." Yet, like any other method, communicative language teaching has been and is still being criticized. This approach has indeed been variably charged of many a criticism three of which will be considered here.

The classical criticism is that the communicative approach hardly pays attention to grammatical accuracy. As Johnson and Morrow (1981 : 73) rightly note, the charge is unfair because it neglects the relevance and effects of other considerations which come into play when language is really being used to communicate. In fact, the communicative approach does not underestimate the value of grammaticality in communication because many grammatical mistakes would obliterate the message. What the method advocates, is only the primacy of fluency on accuracy in interaction.

Hutchinson and Kleplác in "The Communicative Approach : A Question of Materials or Attitudes?" critize the method saying that communicative materials and techniques with which course designers are preocoupied are not sufficient by themselves. Communicative materials should be supplemented with the analysis of the learners' attitudes.

Otherwise , classroom activities and information gap, commonly accepted as communicative techniques, may fail to create actual communication. The two critics say that the lack of such an analysis is likely to bring about problems on the part of the learners. The latter egocentric as they may be take little or no account of the needs and knowledge background of their interactants. As receivers they may also hear without listening, this resulting in minimal communication or no communication at all.

In their paper, Hutchinson and Kleplac grow increasingly critical. They argue that communicative methodology is in conflict with the students' view of educational process and their perception of their role within it. They charge the method of a kind of limited scope saying that though the communicative approach is a learner-centered methodology, it should not be imposed universally. In other words, it is not because the communicative approach proved to meet the needs of the Anglo-Saxon world that it can do so in other societies all over the world. They claim that it is not practical to introduce a new learning method such as the communicative approach into traditional school systems, where learning styles and attitudes are more or less fixed. However, often students are not convinced of what they would gain in abandoning the communicative approach.

The third criticism is made by Johnson (1982). In his paper "Deep-end Strategy"(Johnson and Morrow 1982 : 192-20), Johnson does a critical analysis of "sequencing in communicative presentation." He examines the phenomenon of "risk-taking" in learning how to communicate. The "deep-end strategy" revises the traditional structural sequence of "reception-production" in which the learner listens passively to the teacher or reads and only at later stage speaks or writes. With the

communicative "deep-end" strategy, the student is asked first of all to communicate with the language he disposes of, he is then asked to speak, listen or read and thirdly drill structures. Afterwards, the student is only presented with structures he actually proves to be in need of.

The criticism toward the "deep-end" strategy is more severe against the "risk-taking" phenomenon than reversing the traditional sequence of lesson presentation. What in fact is happening is that students are put in a situation whereby they may need to use language that they have not acquired yet. At a subsequent stage they are presented with items they no longer need. That is, teaching follows "use" instead of preceding it. Johnson's view is that the "deep-end" strategy may entail serious problems in classroom teaching and material production. For instance, with this technique, it is impossible, on the teacher's part, to foresee learners' language weaknesses and to plan the second stage accordingly. Consequently, the third drilling stage may not take place since the second stage will have been inexistent.

The third problem with "deep-end" technique is that in this situation, the teacher's task to present language to students will be impeded. The paper remarks that the strategy is really applicable only with post-intermediate language learners simply because they already have linguistic competence.

Fortunately however, the "deep-end" strategy has two learning advantages. On the one hand, it develops among students a kind of confidence, essential to learning a foreign language; the confidence to attempt to say something he knows he does not actually know how to say;

it is an appropriate strategy for developing fluency. The strategy, on the other hand, is of much benefit to learners who, having learned a lot of grammar in a traditional way, do not have opportunities to practice.

1.3. The Communicative Method and Other Methods.

Objectively speaking, the current search for the best method to language teaching is a very hard if not impossible task : foreign language teaching has been and still is a matter of fashion. A method which, today, is up to date is no longer so tomorrow. Language teachers are, day after day, vacillating in all directions with this constant flow of new methods. The problem with this search for a new methodology is that except some exceptions of few outstanding characteristics, it is not easy to tell a new method from its opponent predecessor; it is fairly difficult for a teacher to claim that he is using this or that method exclusively. All language teaching researchers agree on the fact that all stylish methods have the unique goal of providing learners with "communicative ability", and that there may be more than one way to achieve this goal. That is, though revolutionary, the communicative method has no clear cut with the traditional ones.

However, Alvadro (1986) suggests that it is useful to contrast the grammar_translation method, the direct method, the audio lingual method with the communicative approach which is in vogue today. Thus in this section we will respectively point out the outstanding differences between the communicative method and grammar_translation method, direct method, and audio lingual method. This comparison will help in knowing what this new method does that the others have failed to do. I do hope

that this kind of study might help Rwandan secondary school English teachers to know the innovations of the new approach.

Before confronting the communicative approach with traditional methods, let us point out the basic distinction Stern (1983 : 259) makes between these kinds of approaches. He says that "the communicative theory presents the second language in a more clearly specified social context and situation." This element is absent in the formal or structural theories, which view language outside a particular context of language. As noted earlier, it would be claiming too much to say that structural theories did not think of language use. They probably did to the extent that situations were not clarified as it is the case with the communicative approach. Stern (1984 : 259) comments on the issue in the following terms :

> It should be pointed out though that advocates of structural approach were not unmindful of situations of language use. But the situations were left open and relatively undefined. Theorists talked about speaking and listening as skills in general. Provided emphasis was laid on "the primacy of speech" and opportunities for skill practice existed, it was thought enough was done to make language teaching realistic and relevant for potential language use.

Contrary to the traditional methods' insistence on systemic study of language, the communicative approach has considered the sociolinguistic aspects in the language teaching. With this new approach "uses" of language were to be specified in social contexts much more precisely (Stern 1984 : 259), and language learners' needs were considered to be basis in language teaching.

1.3.1. The Communicative Approach and the Grammar-Translation Method.

The difference – which is the easiest to notice – between the communicative approach and the grammar-translation method concerns the time when they were introduced in language teaching. According to Stern (1983 : 453), the grammar-translation method came into popular use around 1840 and its principal characteristics were its insistence on the teaching of the second language grammar and translation practice from and into the language. The communicative approach, whose principal feature is the insistence on the acquisition of the communicative competence, is said to have emerged late in the 1970's.

The grammar-translation method is concerned very little with the speaking of the second/foreign language. It consists in learning and manipulating the grammatical system (rules) of the target language. As for the communicative language teaching, it aims at providing second/ foreign language learners with everyday life language – fluency in speech – to interact with other speakers of the language.

Beside differences in objectives, the two methods differ in terms of teaching techniques. In a standard grammar-translation classroom, as soon as a rule of grammar is introduced, it is practiced through translation of short sentences or short passages; grammar rules are set out and illustrated by examples. So are the grammatical structures to translate; they are emphasized by the teacher in the course of the lesson. These grammatical structures are clearly pointed out in the basic text. And what students have to do is to study and memorize particular rules of

translation regulating them and examples illustrating them (Stern 1984 : 454). In fact, the study is purely analytical; no communication practice is thought of. Practice of rules consists in translating words or sentences in the mother tongue that the language learner, with a bilingual dictionary, tries to translate into the foreign language. Other exercises of translation into mother tongue are given. The communicative language classroom, on the other hand, is characterized by the use of the target language. The second/foreign language learners learn to use the learnt language instead of learning about it.

While communicative language teaching was conceived for the teaching of modern languages, the grammar-translation method, according to Rivers (1968 : 14-15), was primarily designed for the teaching of classical languages.

The difference between both approaches is that the grammar-translation method puts emphasis on reading and writing at the expense of oral skill (Stern 1984 : 454). The communicative approach, by contrast, neglects none of the four language skills.

In general, one might say that the grammar-translation method did not intend to produce language speakers; it was mainly concerned with grammar teaching. Although the student gains a considerable amount of vocabulary and grammar rules and applies the latter in exercises, he encounters difficulties, say, of communication in his learning process.

1.3.2. The Communicative Approach and the
Direct Method.

Since the grammar-translation method could not produce speakers of language, there was a need to look for other methods which focussed on communication. The direct method and the communicative approach emerged as a remedy. But in what ways are these two methods different? When I was having an interview with one of the secondary school English teachers in connection with this memoir, he frankly stated that he always has problems to tell the communicative method from the direct method.

The principal features of the direct method are : the use of the target language as a means of instruction, "communication" in the class-room, minimal use of the learner's mother tongue and minimal translation which prevail for communicative language teaching as well. Though the communicative approach subscribes to classroom communication by means of the target language and does not favour translation as a technique, it does not go as far as to severely forbidding it. For example, in a communi-cative classroom, a teacher is allowed to explain the rules of the games in the learners' native language for enhancing students' comprehension of these games. In addition, the "use" of the target language by the direct method does not necessarily imply that teachers favour the appropriateness of students' utterances as it is the case with communicative language teaching. Furthermore, while in a direct method classroom a language learner may produce a sentence in isolation from another student's utterance, having no situation in which to use it in relation to other sentences, the communi-cative approach requires that the response should follow a communicative operation. That is, it constitutes an appropriate response to a given

question in the right context. The point I am trying to make here is that one may use the target language without being necessarily communicative.

While the communicative methodology is not biased towards any of the four language skills, the direct method, on the contrary stresses on the speaking and considers it to be the most important of all skills. The direct method associates a word or phrase with the idea the latter stands for. And unlike the communicative approach which deals with authentic discourse, it uses texts constructed especially to illustrate given grammatical structures. Unlike the direct method, the communicative method does not involve students in memorizing basic sentences drilled mechanically and purposelessly. They do not have to learn sentences in isolation either.

Despite these differences however, the direct method was the very first attempt to make the language learning situation use the target language. Learners were trained to abandon the first language as a framework of reference (Stern 1984 : 459). In this respect, the communicative approach and the direct method do not conflict. The two methods share a good number of characteristics one of which is the shift of emphasis from the literary language of the grammar-translation to the everyday spoken language of the communicative language teaching.

While the objective of the direct method is to achieve accuracy in productions by constantly making learners aware of the fact that they always have to produce correct sentences, the communicative approach, without neglecting the grammatical side of language does not exclude mistakes from learners' utterances. The new approach acknowledges that it is by using a language that one comes to gain mastery of it. That is,

mistakes are not abominable in communicative language teaching as they are in the standard methods.

1.3.3. The Communicative Approach and the Audiolingual Method.

Though it is not appropriate to say that one method is better on mere empty mouth rather than on empirical evidence, it might be stated, to a limited extent, that the succession of language teaching methods towards the communicative approach constituted each time a positive contribution. The direct method's emphasis on oral skills was an improvement over the classical grammar-translation method which had been little concerned, if at all, with speaking and listening. Likewise, the audio-lingual method was designed and introduced as an improvement of the existing direct method. As its name suggests, the"audio-lingual" method was the one which put emphasis on "listening" and "speaking." Since listening and speaking are two aspects of communication, the method brought about some positive change. As Karake (1986 : 43) puts it, "it came as a result of resurrection of the direct method and the influence of structural linguistics and behavioural psychology."

If one compares the two methods from a historical point of view, one can notice that a distinct audio-lingual method was identified until the late fifties whereas the communicative approach was introduced into classroom roughly around the late sixties. Stern (1984 : 463) comments on the succession of these two methods as follows :

Whatever it was called, its period of clearest definition as a distinct language teaching theory and greatest influence was quiet brief; it lasted from about 1959 to 1966. From the

beginning of its period, but increasingly so since 1964, audiolingualism was challenged. Eventually, by 1970, it was severely criticized on theoretical and pragmatic grounds; and demands for a new orientation became more and more vocal.

In the audiolingual method, as in the direct method, the target language learner is trained to develop language skills with no reference to his mother tongue. Thus the students must take the teachers and tapes as models both for listening and speaking English. Communicative language teaching rises against the audiolingual tendency to favour mechanical drills and memorization none of which does not necessarily teach communi-cation. Language laboratories, popular in the audiolingual classrooms sometimes supply language learners with unnatural language.

Though both the audiolingualism and the communicative approach advocate the extensive use of the target language in classroom, audio-lingual activities aim at memorization and imitation of utterances in isolation with the risk of going back to the grammar-translation era, with exception that students are got to speak. But the sentences produced are not appropriate, they are not produced in interaction, in a given context or situation. In this respect, Roger Slott clearly explains in Johnson (1981 : 70) that it is not because students are active producing any sentences that the classroom language is communicative.

It is sometimes said that a structural approach, when it is orally based, with plenty of classroom activity, succeeds in doing this. It does not. It is important not to confuse plenty of student talk with learning to communicate. They are not synonymous. A communicative approach to speaking emphasises the use of language above the level of the sentence. Structural approaches, on the other hand, are concerned with the production of grammatically accurate sentences.

The author of these lines does not underestimate the value of the linguistic knowledge of a language. He argues that the structural frame should be complemented by appropriateness of utterances. If I come back to the comparison of methods, I can say that the audiolingualism does not provide target language learners with rules of use. The audiolingual method, like all other structural approaches, does not develop students' communicative competence. The audiolingualism, unlike the communicative approach, gives priority to form rather than meaning; students memorize sentences the meaning of which they sometimes do not know. Finally, the difference between the two teaching methods is that the audiolingual method tends to be boring for students, whereas well selected communicative activities are enjoyable to target language learners and, by way of consequence, stimulate learning.

Today, we are witnessing the growth of interesting new procedures and techniques that challenge the traditional view of language learning/teaching. These techniques are those proposed by the communicative approach, but have not yet been combined into what can be considered as a coherent approach to language teaching. That is why I thought there was a need to inform the reader about the approach. For that purpose, I have endeavoured to give not only the definition, the history and the basic tenets of the communicative approach but also to show that the method has been subject to some criticism. In addition, I have tried to contrast the new approach with its rivals in order to assess what innovations it brought about in language teaching. In the following chapter I examine how the communicative approach principles described in this first part apply in Rwandan English classes. The information provided in this chapter will help to appreciate the way the communicative method is used.

CHAPTER 2 :

THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH IN RWANDAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The main concern in the first chapter was a theoretical presentation of the approach. The reader was presented with definitions of key concepts within the field of communicative teaching such as "communication", "communicative approach", "communicative competence", "language usage/use",etc. Then, a comparison between the approach and standard methods was made before critically discussing the advantages and disadvantages of the approach. The first chapter was therefore an analysis of the method in the western context. The following chapter looks at it in the Rwandan setting. Almost the whole chapter deals with the information about the communicative approach as was given by my informants in response to the questionnaire presented to them. Before giving the methodology followed in this chapter, I found it better to talk about the history   and the importance of the communicative English in Rwanda.

2.1. History of the Communicative Approach in Rwanda.

It is very difficult to say when the communicative approach was introduced in Rwandan schools. There are, however, events which brought it about and those whose existence it initiated. In Rwanda, the communi-

40

cative approach was introduced some years after English was accepted as a subject on the curriculum. Rwandan educational authorities acknowledged the importance of English for Rwandans; it is this awareness which led to its adoption in the Rwandan teaching system. The teaching of English as a foreign language started in Rwanda in the late 1950's under the Belgian rule. At that time, the Rwandan educational system was in the hands of missionaries and colonizers. English was introduced in public schools ten years after missionaries had been teaching it in their schools.

The colonizers, in turn, introduced it in the Rwandan educational system to replace Flemish, which had been taught in public schools till then. English was then introduced into Rwandan schools only to fill in the time table. Despite this adoption, unfavorable attitudes towards this language prevailed among Belgians; it was to be taught as a foreign language. When it was introduced, English was chiefly taught in the way Latin and Greek were taught in missionary schools like seminaries. Belgian teachers did not teach English for communication purposes. Instead, they promoted the learning of French as the sole appropriate means to communicate with the Rwandan elite.

After independence, in 1962, Rwandan authorities soon realized how important the English language was as a means of communication between their landlocked new state and the wealthy English speaking world in general, and African English speaking countries in particular. Rwanda needed the English language for commercial purposes.

As already pointed out, except in missionary schools, English in public schools was more or less neglected before independence and

played absolutely no role. It was supposedly not necessary to teach it since there were Kinyarwanda and French through which Belgian settlers could communicate with Rwandans. This situation set back the teaching of English even after its adoption as long as the country was under Belgian colonization.

Introduced in the Rwandan educational system as a foreign language, and taught like Latin and Greek, English was inefficiently taught. The unmindful consideration towards English language teaching began to change in Rwandan schools when in the late 1970's IPN (National Pedagogical Institute) and UNR (National University of Rwanda) graduates were sent to different schools. Fortunately enough, the creation of the English section in the "BPES" in 1975 was to revise the policy, materials and methods used. From the on, English was to be taught for communication purposes. Teachers, who previously, were almost exclusively foreigners were replaced by nationals or foreigners trained in the teaching of English.

Rwandan English teaching underwent a change in the domain of methodology. With the advent of the communicative approach, the grammar-translation method which was used from the early sixties through the 1970's was questionable. The latter emphasized translation, reading, listening and writing, - neglecting the fourth language skill — speaking. I do not by any means insinuate that these language skills are unimportant in language teaching, but that speaking is, in my sense, the most skill that needs to be developed. In the same line of thought, it can be argued that, for practical reasons, most foreign language learners tend to learn how to express their ideas and feelings before tackling the other three skills.

The grammar-translation through which English was taught in Rwanda developed only students' grammar repertoire without teaching them to use it. Here the allusion is made about the communicative competence as was defined in the first chapter. Communicative competence was not emphasized during early Rwandan English language teaching. Rwandan English learners were poorly exposed to the use of English language in and out of the classroom. In the former case, teachers emphasized translation exercises at the expense of communicative exercise. As for the latter case no occasion was provided for them to speak English. That is, outside the classroom, students communicated with native teachers in Kinyarwanda and with foreign ones in French.

So, on the whole, the lack of students' exposure to the English language was a problem that preoccupied the "BPES", and the latter was left with only two ways of coping with the poor language environment. The "BPES" staff was either to seek new approaches or to ask teachers to encourage students to speak English. This is the reason why both the direct method and audiolingual method were envisaged to replace the grammar-translation method. Introduced in Rwandan secondary schools in the seventies with the coming of the first Rwandan IPN graduates, the two methods considered speaking as the most important emphasizing very little all other skills. But both methods had the merit of challenging the use of Kinyarwanda and French in English classes. But the eradication of Kinyarwanda and French for the use of English in classroom was not sufficient; not all English spoken in classroom was   enough and communicative. As Crymes (1979 : 36) points out,

> Students need exposure to a rich language environment, rich in both the amount and variety of meaningful language and opportunities for using English as a vehicle for expressing their thought and ideas.

A socio-culturally orientated approach emphasizing the actual communication of meaningful information was necessary to challenge the traditional one emphasizing manipulation of language forms. The very method was the communicative approach which, contrary to the direct and the audiolingual methods, involves material which are familiar to learners. The usefulness of the communicative English constitutes the content of the following section.

2.2. The Importance of English for Rwandans.

For Rwandans, English is very important in foreign affairs, economy and education; it is important at the same time at the individual and national, regional and international levels. It is a means of communicating with English speaking visitors or English speaking expatriates operating in Rwanda; it is a vehicle of communication within the national boundaries as well as outside the country because nowadays Rwandans travel quite extensively; they need communicative English skills to widen their sphere of communication.

Contrary to the pre-colonial administration philosophy according to which Kinyarwanda and French sufficed for Rwandans to communicate, today's educational policies promote English as a means of communication as far as international relations are concerned. That is why new provisions were made for the teaching of that language.

English was given an important place on the curriculum and it could no longer be taken as a fill-in subject as it had always been in the sixties. The new policies were elaborated by the English section in

the "BPES" from 1976. Ngoboka (1984 : 17) points to the role of the "BPES" in promoting the teaching of English as follows :

> The English section was given the task of standardizing English programs in all secondary schools where English was taught, and to send inspectors to evaluate the teachers' performance so as to devise new methods or adopt appropriate new materials. The creation of the English section was the first outcome of the Rwandan government's awareness of the real status of English and its important role in the country's development.

Thus as an instrument of communication, English plays a capital role in the development of Rwanda; it constitutes a tie between Rwanda and foreign English speaking countries.

As for Barugahare (1982 : 70), English meets crucial needs for Rwandans to expand their participation in international affairs, mainly in commercial, political and academic domains. Inhabitants of a small landlocked country like Rwanda, Rwandans cannot rightly confine their relationships to the only French speaking countries. To promote and protect their commercial relationships with East African states and other English speaking countries, a good command of English language is needed to interact with these states.

In foreign affairs and diplomacy, Rwanda has to develop his relationship with countries like the United States of America and the United Kingdom from which countries he receives an invaluable amount economic aids. I do not mean that aids will be got on the sole condition of knowing English but such a condition necessitates the ability to communicate with developed countries. In my sense, it is easier to ask someone to help you when you speak the same language. It is in connection with the need for effective communication that the American Embassy organizes English teaching seminars to improve the teaching of English in Rwanda,

or that the British council offers scholarship for Rwandan secondary school and university English teachers to train in English language teaching in Britain.

Economics is another domain in which English plays a capital communicative role. As was pointed out earlier, Rwandans are no longer bound to communicate with their peers exclusively. Businessmen for example learn English in order to conduct their business effectively. Nowadays many Rwandan businessmen travel all around the world for business. Those who do not travel very far are still in contact with their commercial partners in East Africa with whom they interact through trade and commercial consultations.

Another question arises nevertheless as to what kind of language should, for example, be taught to Rwandan businessmen or Rwandans in general. It may be said that the type of English depends both on the type of learners; their expressed needs and the function that the language will be used to perform. Traders should, in this case, be provided with an opportunity to learn and practice informal spoken English, the type they are most likely to use in their business career. As for students who intend to pursue their studies at the University; they need formal English for their academic work in addition to the informal English.

Though trade within Rwanda does not require the knowledge of English since all buyers and sellers are generally all natives, Rwandan commercial activities are normally carried out in English. In this respect, Ngoboka (1984 : 20) reasonably remarks that "bankers, foreign correspondents in firms, translators, and managers in Rwandan factories,

industries and commercial cooperatives are in need of English, and some of Rwandan products meant to be exported are labelled in English."

It has been remarked that English is important from both the individual and national point of views. When managers of commercial companies or political authorities travel to English speaking countries to negociate or handle commercial affairs, they feel a need to express themselves without any need for interpretors. In the same line of thought, English also could serve to achieve survival needs. For instance, if some of Rwandans for one or another reason leave Rwanda to stay in an English speaking country, the latter will have no problem integrating the new society. Furthermore, individuals' knowledge of English is also useful. For example, instructions for use of products such as drugs, food, to name just a few, are given in English. Knowledge of the English language is therefore necessary for the effective use of medical products and food.

While important in foreign and economic affairs, English also constitutes an efficient means of information-gathering. Many Rwandan researchers are in constant need of English to read documentation; in most cases, the scientific literature they come across is in English. Obviously this literary treasure will be accessible to the only researchers who have learned English. The language is equally required in order to enjoy, take advantage of information, magazines and newspapers articles and to listen to English broadcastings.

In summary, it may be said that communicative competence in English is very necessary for Rwandans. This kind of competence is vital for developing countries like Rwanda especially from

the point of view of world relations. Rwanda, a poor country, lies on foreign trade loans and aid for its economics survival. Communication with developed English speaking countries is one of the most efficient ways to keep in touch with them. We have also seen that the usefulness of English goes from individual to national interests because not only managers of commercial companies in Rwanda may negociate with their foreign partners, but also Rwandan tradesmen travel to discuss their own affairs with English speaking customers. Finally, it must be pointed out that a good command of English in the case of Rwandan scholars is a good instrument to exploit treasures of literary works written in English

2.3. Methodology

This chapter gives a detailed explanation of the steps of my study to see to what extent the communicative approach is used in English classrooms in Rwanda. The major aim was to see whether teachers who claim to know and use the method ("knowers") and those who think they do not ("non-knowers") actually behave in accordance with what they say.

I used three techniques for this research. First, I started the study with the elaboration of a questionnaire for English teachers to answer; the questionnaire was designed to have information from teachers, to see to what extent they were trained in the communicative methodology and how much they knew about the approach; it is assumed therefore that one cannot give but what one has. The questionnaire was equally meant to check the teachers' attitudes towards the communicative approach and actual strategies used by the two categories of teachers, namely, the "knowers" and the "non-knowers."

The second technique used was to classify informants into the two categories. For this classification, the questionnaire helped me in two ways. It was designed in such a way that informants were to say if they knew the method, had been taught how to teach using it and actually used it. The second way was to correct and grade the informants' answers to questions meant to assess theoretical information about the communicative approach. These two classifications allowed me to distinguish actual "knowers" from the "non-knowers" of the communicative approach. Were considered to be "knowers" those who claimed to know and use the method and whose grade on the test confirmed it. And were considered as "non-knowers" those who affirmed they did not know and teach in that method, and who, as a matter of fact, failed on the fact finding test. As for the correction and grading of the questionnaire, procedures used are described below.

While correcting and grading, this following code was used. "T" stands for "true"; "N.T" stands for "not true." It is to be noted that "true" could represent the right answer and the false one as well. That is, in the case an informant answered "true" and his response conformed with what I expected the correct answer to be, I marked /√/; when his answer was not correct, I marked /x/, and when he answered "not true" and his reply was the correct answer that I expected him to give, I put /√/.

The grades on the test ranged from 4 to 15 out of 20. It is worth noting that none of the "non-knowers" obtained the passing grade, and none of the "knowers" failed on the test. The results obtained by the "knowers" and "non-knowers" that I will observe teaching are presented on both pyramid figure of results and table of results below.

N = 45	Results
2	15
3	14
6	13
10	12
2	11
7	10
6	9
4	8
2	7
1	6
1	5
1	4

M = 10,6

Table 1 : Teachers' Results

15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4
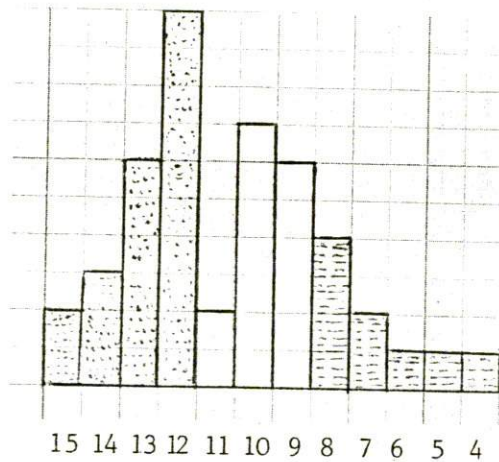
Figure 1 : Distribution of Teachers and Their Grades.

Key : ▦ : "Non-knowers"

▨ : "Knowers"

▢ : "Ambivalent respondents."

As shown in figure one (1), teachers whose grades are between 4 and 7 were selected as "non-knowers" to be observed. Teachers whose grades are between 14 and 15 were selected as "knowers" who were also to be observed while those who got grades extending from 9 to 11 were left. All the ten teachers and twenty provided information from which conclusions were drawn.

Before interpreting results, I have to inform the reader that, as the results had to be treated confidentially, the ten teachers were given names by the letters : A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I and J.

After the sample was chosen, the next step was to try to interpret the attitudes of the two categories of teachers. The

interpretation was followed and substantiated with evidence obtained
during observation in classroom to see if, for the case of the "knowers",
teachers' theoretical knowledge of the new method was applied in their
language teaching classrooms. As for the "non-knowers", the observation
was meant to check primarily whether they used it at all or if they were
not using it unintentionally. Therefore, the third technique I used was
observation in classrooms. During classroom observation a check-list
was used as a basis to assess the teachers' performance. The list of
items (see Appendix C)was graded in the same way as in the case of the
test (Appendix B). The results will be confronted with the grades
obtained on the theory of the method. Such a study will be finally
supplemented with interviews given to some of our informants.

2.4. The Population

This chapter deals with opinions of thirty different secondary
school English teachers in Rwanda. I do not claim that the sample is
utterly exhaustive: it must be acknowledged that it would   be better
if I could get enough financial means and enough time to deal with a greater
number of informants. Yet, I think that the information provided through
the questionnaire by the thirty teachers, lesson observation and interviews
I had with some of my informants is enough to draw valuable conclusions
about the actual status of the communicative approach in secondary school
English teaching in Rwanda. The following two paragraphs present the size
of my population and qualifications of my informants.

Concerning the size of my population, the questionnaire was
given to fifty Rwandan English teachers but I could get back only forty-
five answer copies. This number was to allow me to have a good number of

teachers who sincerely feel they do not use the method. In addition, I
wanted as wide information as possible on the subject before any valid
conclusions could be drawn. Schools in Gisenyi, Ruhengeri, Kigali,
Gitarama and Butare were thought of for the testing. For financial reasons,
only schools situated not too far from the main road were selected for
that purpose. The informants are from twenty-two different schools (see
Appendix D).

Among the forty-five respondents, only thirty retained my
attention because it was almost impossible to exactly determine which
category the other fifteen belonged to. The difficulty to classify them
was due to the fact that their grades varied from nine to eleven out of
twenty, thus approaching the passing (i.e. ten out of twenty). As noted
earlier, within limitations of time and resources, I was able to work
with only ten teachers (i.e. five teachers whose grades proved that they
were true "knowers" and other five teachers whose grades showed that they
were true "non-knowers" I observed teaching.

As for qualifications, among thirty teachers of the sample,
twenty-five are Rwandans; four are Zaïrians, whereas one is a Britisher.
Twenty-one of them are "masters", nine "bachelors of arts." Twelve
studied English at the National University of Rwanda (UNR), three at the
National Pedagogical Institute (IPN), six at ISP in Bukavu, four in
Britain, three in the University of Zaïre (UNAZA) and two in Dar-Es-Salaam,
Tanzania.

2.5. Rwandan English Teachers' Attitudes Towards
The Communicative Approach.

The last two sections were concerned respectively with adoption and importance of English for Rwandans. Awareness of its importance, nevertheless, does not guarantee English teachers' favorable attitudes towards its use; this has led me to explore English teachers' attitudes towards their own teaching. It is, however, not easy to penetrate someone else's feelings. To know the teachers' attitudes to the communicative approach, the wisest way, in my view, is to ask them among other things three questions with regards to namely how frequently they use different methods, which ones they prefer using, and how much they enjoy using them.

The investigation concerned primarily with frequency of use of different methods. My argument was that the most frequently used method is also the best known to the teachers. In relation to the first question concerned with how often they use the direct method, the grammar-translation method, the audiolingual method and the communicative approach, the information is given in Table 2 below. It shows each of the four methods, and the frequency of use of each of those methods as demonstrated by the teachers who "always", "sometimes"or "never" use them.

	Number of teachers who use		
	Always	Sometimes	Never
The direct method	12	12	0
The grammar-translation method	0	18	12
The audiolingual method	6	18	6
The communicative approach	0	21	0

Table 2. Teachers' Frequency of Use of the Four Methods.

Table 2 above shows that the frequency of use as reported varies from one method to another. It has to be made clear that there may practically speaking be a difference between the method teachers use and the method that they claim to use.

Twelve teachers stated that they "always" use the direct method; twelve "sometimes" do use it while only six claim that they "never" use it as a teaching method.

As for the grammar-translation method, none of the thirty teachers claimed that he uses it, eighteen said that they "sometimes" use it while twelve asserted that they "never" utilize it. So, one is hard to think that the method is still used in Rwandan English classrooms by some teachers.

Concerning the audiolingual method, six teachers out of thirty reported that they "always" utilize it as against eighteen who claimed that they "sometimes" use it in their teaching process.

As for the communicative approach in Rwandan classrooms, positive answers were given only by twenty-one teachers who reported that they "sometimes" use the method. I am inclined to think that these teachers were "knowers" since the "non-knowers" were supposed not to know the method. For the same reasons I can also assume that all "non-knowers" said that they "never" use it. Nevertheless, as will be shown by data provided by my classroom observations, some of the "non-knowers" who claimed that they do not use the method actually use it.

Another fact that can be noticed from Table 2 is that twelve teachers at least claimed that they "sometimes" use each method. In fact,

no method is self-sufficient, that is, no lesson can use one single method from the beginning to the end; a good lesson demands a combination of more than one method.

With respect to the frequency of use, one may notice that the direct method is the most frequently used method since it has the biggest number (12) of teachers who said that they always use it. It is followed by the audiolingual while the communicative approach comes in the third position. One can say that the grammar-translation method is not appreciated by Rwandan English language teaching methodology since twelve out of thirty informants "never" use it.

The second piece of information about the attitudes of Rwandan English language teachers to methods was given by the position in order of preference in which my informants put each type of the method. The results of the inquiry are reported on Table 3 below.

Methods	Number of teachers who prefer			
	Firstly	Secondly	Thirdly	Fourthly
The direct method	12	6	6	6
The grammar-translation	0	0	6	18
The audiolingual method	0	24	6	0
The communicative approach	18	0	12	0

Table 3 : Distribution of the Four Methods with Respect to Teachers' preference.

Reading this table, one notices that twelve out of thirty informants put the direct method in the first position, six in the second, six in the third and other six in the fourth.

As for the grammar-translation method, none of thirty teachers places it in either the first or the second position. Six teachers

prefer it in the third position while other eighteen informants prefer it in the fourth. That is, they minimize its usage in their teaching.

As for the audiolingual method, preferences are shown as follows. No teacher puts the method in the first or last position in order of preference. Twenty-four out thirty teachers place it in the second position while six place it in the third. Considering this kind of ranking one notices that the audiolingual method is neither preferred nor subordinated to the others. The method is preferred but not used perhaps because it requires didactic materials which are highly expensive.

Concerning the comunicative approach, it occupies the first place in the methodologies of eighteen English teachers. None, however, places it in the second and third position in his teaching, but twelve remaining ones place it on the fourth.

The third consideration about Rwandan teachers' attitudes towards the methods used concerns the latter's enjoyability in teaching, and that enjoyability of each of the four methods is found in the chart below.

	The number out of 21 teachers who enjoy		
	very much	a little	Not at all
The direct method	18	6	6
The grammar-translation method	0	12	18
The audiolingual method	12	18	0
The communicative approach	4	3	0

Table 4. The Enjoyability of The Four Methods for "Knowers".

I have thought that the degree of enjoyability of each method could more or less be gained in according to the degree of preference but the results showed that there was a slight difference between the two

factors. Eighteen out of thirty teachers enjoy "very much" using the direct method; six teachers enjoy using it "a little" while the other six do not enjoy using it at all.

Concerning the grammar-translation method, none of the thirty teachers reports that he enjoys "very much" using it; the twelve others claim to enjoy using it "a little" while the eighteen remaining ones do not at all enjoy using it. In respect to these two cases regarding this method, it may be concluded that the method is not much appreciated by the Rwandan teachers who informed me.

To come to the audiolingual method, twelve out of thirty informants enjoy "very much" using the method. Eighteen do not enjoy "very much" using it and none does enjoy using it at all. Since twelve out of thirty enjoy "very much" using it, and eighteen teachers enjoy " a little" using it. Therefore, the method is preferred by Rwandan English teachers since none of my informants dislikes it.

Finally the degree of enjoyability of the communicative method to Rwandan teachers may be hinted at by the following data. Eighteen out of twenty-one "knowers" enjoy "very much" the usage of the approach; three do not enjoy "very much" using it, and none does enjoy it at all. All things considered, one can say that the communicative approach needs promoting in Rwandan English teaching.

If one accepts the assumption according to which an individual hardly uses what he does not enjoy using or vice versa, one may conclude that the communicative approach is the last but one to be enjoyed after

the audiolingual and the direct methods before the grammar-translation method which is the least enjoyed by Rwandan English teachers.

Considering the information provided in the last two tables, one can conclude that a teacher may use more than one method. However, his preferences can be directed to one or other method. The results of my inquiry show that three methods are more appreciated than others. The audiolingual method is said to be"always" used, ranked first in order of preference and is enjoyed "very much." The direct method is also appreci- ated, and ranked second with respect to its enjoyability. As for the communicative approach, it is equally appreciated and ranked third by Rwandan secondary school English teachers. At last, the grammar-trans- lation is taken as the least valuable method. This is understandable because, in normal situations, a method which is neither preferred nor enjoyed will be hardly used in a satisfactory way.

2.6. The "Knowers" and "Non-knowers" of the Communicative Approach.

In this section, the study of the communicative approach in Rwandan secondary schools points out the strategies used by the "knowers" to teach the four language skills. Many strategies proposed in the questionnaire to informants reflect more or less of the communicative methodology. Some are characteristic of the traditional language teaching. Without being an advocate of the Devil, my aim was to make sure that these strategies are still used by teachers who claim to teach English for communication; in other words, I wanted to know how adequate their conception of the communicative approach was and how efficient their communicative teaching was. Besides, I intended to examine strategies

which are used by "non-knowers" and to know to what extent these strategies are efficient.

It can be argued that there is no unique efficient method, and that the kind of method or technique used in language teaching matters a lot; methods may be preferred according to whether they are more or less fruitful than others. In view of this, I inquired about strategies both categories of teachers used in their teaching. Such an inquiry helped to evaluate the strategies or techniques used by the "knowers" and "non-knowers" and assess the way the latter category used the stragegies involved in the communicative methodology. The first part of this section deals with strategies of the "knowers" and comments on each of them, if need be. The second will consider the "non-knowers'"strategies. I will be examining whether or not the latter are communicative. In this second case, not many comments will be made since those shared by the two categories will have been discussed within the section concerned with the "knowers." The present discussion begins with the "knowers" and respectively treats reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

2.6.1. The "Knowers".

2.6.1.1. Reading

With reading, I began by asking my informants what kind of reading texts they use in classroom; the first statement, characteristic of the traditional way of teaching was : "When you teach reading, you select your reading text to illustrate specific linguistic structures." Twelve out of twenty-one "knowers" reported that they selected the reading texts to illustrate specific language patterns. Five said that

they do not use the strategy and four did not reply; I assumed that these
five who said that they do not use the technique looked for an authentic
piece of discourse to give their English learners. The twelve "knowers"
showed they continue to use the traditional technique of teaching because
selecting texts to illustrate specific grammatical structures runs against
the process of teaching language as communication (Johnson and Morrow
1986 : 88).

The second truth assessment question given to my informants
reads : "When you teach reading, do you ask your students to read aloud?"
My informants' different choices are given in the table below.

| Choices | Number out of 21 teachers who teach reading by asking ss to | | | |
	Read aloud	Read silently	Understand every word	Read for meaning
Yes	12	8	12	8
No	9	8	0	5
Sometimes	0	5	9	8

Table 5 : Distribution of "Knowers" with Respect to Their
Techniques of Teaching Reading.

According to Table 5, twelve out of twenty-one informants teach
reading by asking their students to read aloud; nine do not do it. As one
reads normally for practical reasons, that is, for learning something
(Widdowson 1985 : 80), it is not always understandable why language
learners should be asked to think and reflect "aloud." With regards to this
twelve teachers showed that they were still using the traditional way of
teaching reading.

The third truth assessment question was formulated as follows :
"When you teach reading, do you ask your students to read silently?"
To this question eight English teachers answered that they ask their
students to read "silently"; eight do not ask their English learners to

read "silently" while five of the informants report that they sometimes ask their students to read "silently."

Even if there might be other techniques for developing reading skills, asking learners to read silently is the one proposed by many teachers and language teaching theorists such as Widdowson (1985).

The fourth truth assessment about teaching reading was: "When you teach reading, you ask your students to understand every word." Twelve out of twenty-one "knowers" said "yes"; none of my informants reports that he discourages his students to understand the meaning of every word in the text. And nine out of twenty-one say that they "sometimes" ask their English learners to understand the meaning of every word in the reading text.

The first thing we can infer about "knowers" is that all of them expect their students to understand every word at least on more than one occasion. What seems contradictory and almost unbelievable is that there is a number of teachers who at the same time ask their students to read aloud and expect the latter to understand every word. Reading aloud and understanding are two different things. The reason for asking this question was to see if Rwandan secondary school English teachers are still using the traditional method which requires learners to understand the meaning of every single word in a reading text. The report that twelve informants "sometimes" require from their students to understand every word while reading shows that the latter are still using the traditional strategy of teaching reading.

The fifth truth assessment was : "When you teach reading you ask your students to read for meaning." Eight out of twenty-one "knowers" said "yes", five said "no" whereas eight out of the twenty-one informants said they "sometimes" ask theirs to read for meaning.

Since sixteen out of twenty-one informants claimed to ask their students to read for meaning and only five of the informants claimed not to do so, the case of the sixteen may be taken as evidence that they use communicative methodology which insists on the message conveyed.

                              since
In fact, ∧reading involves negociation of meaning between the writer and the reader (Johnson and Morrow 1981 : 90), silent reading and reading for meaning are, undoubtedly, the best procedures for developing the reading skill. Even if reading aloud may be done perhaps in teaching pronunciation, English learners should be initiated to silent reading to understand the message conveyed through texts. For students, repeating after teacher is not of much benefit.

There were two more questions concerning the way of assessing students' text comprehension. The first one was : "After reading a text, which type of question do you give your students? - Wh - question?; Yes/no question or both?" Teachers' responses were distributed as follows : Eight out of twenty-one "knowers" ask their English learners wh-type questions. The other eight give theirs yes/no questions, and only five teachers combine the two types of questions.

What can be deduced from this information is that most informants (i.e., sixteen out of the twenty-one "knowers") do not like mixing different types of questions since only five of the twenty-one "knowers" said

they ask both wh-type questions and yes/no type questions; the latter
have no preference for any particular type of questions. For some
proponents of the teaching of language for communication, one of whom is
Widdowson (1985 : 96, 97), the two techniques are frustrating for learners.

Another question about assessing the learners' text comprehension
was : "After reading, which type of question do you give your students?
Truth assessment questions, multiple choice or both types?" To this
question different informants' answers were given : Eight out of twenty-
one "knowers" said they give truth assessment questions; twelve others
informed me that they give multiple choice type questions. In fact, the
information given here supports the earlier conclusion that the majority
of teachers dislike mixing different types of questions.

To come back to preferences of theorists, Widdowson (1985 : 95)
prefers truth assessment and multiple choice type question to wh-questions
and polar questions; the questions which are purely interrogative in form
are frustrating in so far as the students feel they have to give responses
meeting the questioner's expectations, and such a situation causes
students' uneasiness.

According to Widdowson (1985 : 97) contrary to wh-questions and
polar questions, truth assessment and multiple choice questions are
propositions instead of impositions on the part of the teacher; the learner
is simply given statements and asked to judge them. The reader is at ease
not to feel he has to satisfy somebody's demands. Wh-questions and polar
questions expose the reader to a kind of panic due to his "lower" social
position; they openly engage students in demanding them to produce
language whereas truth assessment and multiple choice are context-free.

Students feel that they are acting on their own initiatives and that they are not oppressed by an importunate person; they may agree or disagree with a given statement, they are called to give their judgements, they are positively engaged.

2.6.1.2. Writing.

Concerning the stragegies used to help students acquire writing skills, again some statements relating to the traditional techniques were added to statements on the communicative techniques, so that I can see to what extent the "knowers" of the approach could tell the latter techniques from those pertaining to the traditional method.

Informants were asked four yes/no questions to show how they teach writing. The results on the teaching of the writing skill are summarized in Table 6 below.

Choices	Number of teachers who ask learners to write				
	1-isolated sentences	2-authentic sentences	3-cue-words	4-looking at pictures	5-do both 3&4
Yes	8	16	13	13	13
No	8	5	4	4	8
No answer	5	0	4	4	0

Table 6 : Distribution of "Knowers" in Reference to Their Techniques of Teaching Writing.

The first statement is related to the traditional and/or audio-lingual methods. As most teachers in secondary schools were trained through this method, it was interesting to know they are not tempted to teach using the same method. The statement goes as follows : "When you teach writing you ask learners to compose isolated sentences."

Eight of twenty-one informants said "yes"; the other eight answered "no", whereas five gave no answer. What can be said about the eight teachers who agreed with the statement is that they use techniques aiming at sentence correctness. Asking a student to compose isolated sentences is mostly intended to teach or control the latter's knowledge of linguistic patterns; there is no context associated with one sentence, simply the student makes bits of correct sentences without any intention to communicate.

The second truth assessment relates to the communicative teaching, and was formulated as follows : "When you teach writing, you ask learners to write authentic sentences or creative sentences which combine to form continuous prose (i.e. coherent paragraphs)."

Table 5 shows that sixteen out of twenty-one teachers said "yes" while five said "no". In fact, the concept of "isolated sentences" is opposite to that of "authentic sentences." Contrary to "isolated sentences", "authentic sentences" combine in coherent paragraphs.

On the whole, in the light of the answers to this question, one can say that the majority of teachers are familiar with the communicative writing techniques. In connection with this question, if what is commonly noticed in Rwandan secondary school classrooms is considered, one can remark that the presentation of coherent paragraphs does not constitute the sole guarantee that the learner is engaged in communicative operation when he writes. To give an example, a teacher gives his students a two-paragraph text to read and asks them to transform the text using the passive voice. Such kinds of writing exercises constitute the type of language usage I tried to define in the first chapter. For such tasks,

students sometimes work on the paragraphs manipulating sentences but ignoring their uses or communication value in a given life context. They are asked to write sentences which have no connection with the context of the text under consideration. Widdowson (1978 : 118) comments on such semantic and syntactic manipulations saying,

> Not only do exercises of this kind not develop the learner's ability to process sentences as they combine naturally to form discourse but they actually inhibit such a development by directing the learner's attention to the isolation of the sentences as instances of usage.

What the author implicitly suggests is that each writing exercise should aim at developing natural language behaviour.

The last three truth assessment questions are also related to the communicative methodology. These are effective techniques to the teaching of writing especially to beginning classes. The first among these questions was meant to verify whether, while teaching writing, teachers ask students to write about certain topics when the latter are supplied with cue-words. On this question, thirteen "knowers" said yes; four said "no" whereas the other four gave no answer or were undecided. Since the majority (thirteen teachers) of the informants gave a correct answer, one may conclude that the teachers use the communicative techniques to the teaching of writing skills. As for the four undecided "knowers", they may be using both of these writing techniques or none at all.

The second truth assessment question was to know if when they are teaching writing, Rwandan English teachers ask their learners to write connected sentences, looking at pictures. Their responses were in fact the same as those given to the preceding question, and conclusions are also the same. Thirteen out of twenty-one teachers answered "yes"; four of the teachers said "no"; while the last four did not answer.

The last of these three truth assessment questions was to know if the informants ask students to write about certain topics with cue-words and make up connected sentences looking at pictures. Results showed that not only thirteen informants combined both techniques but also that thirteen out of twenty-one use communicative strategies for the teaching of writing, which is in accordance with Widdowson's (1975) proposal. Since they more or less keep English learners in a certain context, the two techniques are effective strategies for the teaching of writing.

The last point about communicative writing exercise was to know how Rwandan English teachers grade their students' performance in writing. "Knowers" of the communicative method were asked to choose one of the following three alternatives : either "in terms of message conveyed", "grammatical correctness" or "both."

Most of their answers favoured grammatical correctness technique. Surprisingly, only five among all "knowers" answered that students' writing is judged in terms of the message conveyed while sixteen teachers said students' production or written exercises should be assessed in terms of grammatical correctness. Such responses show that most "knowers" of the communicative method ignore some important communicative principles. Since sixteen out of twenty-one teachers grade their students only in terms of grammatical correctness, one may conclude that they still have a traditional conception of teaching writing as Johnson and Morrow (1985: 95) see it.

As suggested in the preceding paragraphs, students should be trained to communicate, which is achieved by developing not only grammatical correctness but also the correctness of use of language.

2.6.1.3. Speaking

Dealing with speaking, I inquired about strategies used by Rwandan secondary school English teachers to foster learners' speaking ability and the idea was not to ask several questions as in the cases of reading and writing, two skills which are the least talked about as communicative skills. Only three questions allowed me to have information about the teachers' conceptions of basic principles of the speaking skill.

First, teachers were asked to judge the truth value of this statement : "In the teaching of speaking, structural dialogues teach rules of communication or appropriateness." Thirteen out of twenty-one "knowers" agreed with the statement, while eight disagreed with it. In fact, dialogues involve interaction between two or more participants but they are based on the structural view which is mainly concerned with the production of grammatical sentences. This type of production does not guarantee the right choice of utterances which appropriately express a given function in a given situation (Johnson and Morrow 1975 : 71).

The second statement was : "In the teaching of speaking, much talking on the part of students leads automatically to communication in the classroom." : Eight out of twenty-one "knowers" agreed with the statement; other eight disagreed with the proposition whereas five gave no answer. Since eight of the twenty-one informants accepted the proposition and other eight disagreed while five "knowers" could not make up their mind about it, one can only say that there are some teachers who think they know about the communicative approach while they do not.

In fact some Rwandan English teachers in most cases often mistake communication for much talk on the part of the learner. They think that only oral skills should be emphasized, no matter how these skills must be developed. To them even a structural approach, once orally orientated, succeeds in developing the communicative speaking skill. This question was asked to check whether Rwandan teachers had such a limited view of the communicative skill. It is very important on the part of the communicative English teachers not to equate plenty of student's talk with the ability to communicate.

The third and last question was to see if my respondents knew the principle of information gap, essential to the communicative language teaching. They were asked the following polar question : "In dialogue teaching, must students memorize what they have to say?" The results were more encouraging than those obtained for the previous questions : eight of twenty-one "knowers" answered "yes" whereas other thirteen answered negatively. The latter did not find the technique efficient as far as communicative teaching is concerned. The thirteen "knowers" realized that structurally orientated and memorized dialogues lack communicative intent; they only acquaint English language learners with using correct sentences, an instance of usage.

It is true that students memorize chuncks of every day language and produce utterances which are always logically related to the preceding and following ones. Yet, the chuncks are not used in context and the memorized answers do not force the speaker to pay attention to his interlocutor's utterances, simply because the speaker does not feel any need to think about the reply for every thing is known by heart. Hence, there is no real reason for the dialogue to take place since it does not give any new information to either interlocutor.

2.6.1.4. Listening.

Many teachers think that the listening skill which is receptive does not necessitate the knowledge of the language form because, presumably, what all students are required to do is to hear without producing sentences. But this can be detrimental to the student's communicative needs. In some situations, in effect, not only does the student need to listen but also to respond. Thus, listening and speaking are inseparable skills in communication which is by definition a two way process. There are also teachers who select texts for listening exercises and use the texts as a model for the students' own production. This type of texts is used in Rwandan secondary school classrooms, but is not appropriate to help students improve their listening skills; they do not prepare the learner for all his potential communicative needs (Johnson and Morrow 1981 : 79).

In fact, it is indispensable to develop the students' learning ability in order to enhance their comprehension and prepare them to speak appropriately. Along with prununciation, the students' comprehension skill must be developed right from the beginning. Normally listening comprehension cannot be taught. That is why, in my questionnaire, I thought that, as Johnson and Morrow (1986 : 80) say, a teacher cannot teach a student to listen; he can only help him to practice and acquire the listening skill. In view of that, the questionnaire was less concerned with the methodology of the teaching of listening than with the selection of appropriate texts to help learners acquire the skill. For so doing, I put only two polar truth assessment statements .

The first was formulated in these terms : "When you select your listening text, you want it to be a model for students' own production."

Thirteen out of twenty-one "knowers" answered that that is what they do, whereas the other eight disagreed with the proposition. To the second statement which reads : "When you select your listening text, you try to find texts which give students'controlled and guided experience'." Only eight "knowers" of the communicative approach agreed with the technique while the other thirteen disagreed with the technique. The position of the latter'group of "knowers" seems not to be convenient since, as Johnson and Morrow (1985 : 79) put it, teachers "need to find texts that will give the students "controlled and guided experience." By this, the authors mean which "essentially involves using some form of incomplete or semi script that will help the speaker(s) control content, vocabulary and structures without inhibiting the spontaneous occurrence of features of unscripted speech."

Whith the first statement, some Rwandan teachers are faced with the problem of finding appropriate texts with which they must train students' listening skill whereas some others have cassettes. But even those who have these teaching materials should not ask students to speak like natives. The teachers' use of cassettes and written texts should not aim at training students to produce utterances linguistically as correct as those which are found in these cassettes and texts. Instead, students should be trained to listen to spoken language without being expected to speak or write the kind of language which is heard from cassettes or used in texts; teachers should perhaps only ask questions to assess if students have understood what the text is about.

What can be concluded from the responses above is that thirteen teachers select listening texts to use as an example of language they expect their students to produce, and thirteen teachers deny that a

listening text should give students controlled and guided experience. These responses show clearly that some of the "knowers" of the communicative method neglect some basic principles of the communicative teaching.

After the analysis of the information provided by some of the "knowers" of the communicative approach, one can hypothesize that there is discrepancy between techniques the "knowers" were expected to use in their teaching of the four language skills and techniques they actually use.

2.6.1.5. The "Knowers'" Attitudes towards Their Students' Performance.

The present discussion involves the students' performance. Since the communicative approach deals with and develops the four language skills, the way secondary school English teachers judge their students' performance could give a hint at how the method is applied in classrooms because in my view, learners' ignorance, to some extent, reflects their teachers' ignorance of the method. In this section I intend to see how teachers of English regard their learners' performance as far as the four language skills go. I will analyse information from "knowers" to see how they judge the results of their teaching.

For the case of the "knowers", the table below presents the four skills and the number of English teachers who say their learners perform either "very well", "well", or "with difficulty" with reference to those four skills.

	Number of teachers out of twenty-one whose students perform		
	Very well	Well	With difficulty
Reading	5	8	8
Writing	3	8	10
Speaking	1	5	15
Listening	2	8	11

Table 7 : "Knowers'" Judgements of Students' Performance.

If one considers each skill and the numbers which are under labels "very well", "well" and "with difficulty" before each of the four language skills, one might be driven to some assertions which will be substantiated in this chapter by evidence which classroom observations will provide.

Beginning with reading, as Table 7 shows, five out of twenty-one "knowers" of the communicative approach state that their students read "very well", eight say that theirs read "well" whereas the other eight state that theirs have difficulties in reading English.

What can be inferred from this information is that reading is generally well taught since the majority of teachers consider that their students read at least "well." Considering that there are thirteen teachers who affirm their students perform at least "well" in English, one may conclude that these teachers teach reading adequately.

As for the writing skill, three out of twenty-one "knowers" think their students can write English "very well"; only eight teachers state that theirs write English "well" and the other ten say that their students write English"with difficulty."

Since the majority of "knowers" claim their students have difficulties in English writing, I was led to postulate that the ten

"knowers" do not apply the method or if they do, they do it ineffectively. To test the accuracy of the hypothesis, I considered different answers the above teachers gave to different items in the questionnaire. I intended to make sure that failure of the method was due to the teachers' ignorance of the communicative principles or to a certain negative attitude towards the approach.

First, I wanted to know what they thought of the statement which reads : "The communicative approach develops only oral skills while neglecting all others." Thirteen out of the twenty-one disagreed with the statement. Eight others failed to make up their mind in judging the assertion. As the "knowers'" knowledge of the communicative approach could not be measured on the basis of one single question, three other questions were asked to assess the teachers' attitudes towards the communicative approach.

Before examining the teachers' answers one can state that the "knowers" know and have been trained to teach in the communicative approach but for unknown reasons, have negative attitudes towards the method.

To assess the teachers' attitudes, I asked them how often they use the communicative method : only five of them answered they "always" use it; the other sixteen said they use it "sometimes." I, then, asked them to rank the methods in the order of preference. Thirteen out of twenty-one teachers said they prefer the communicative approach to all other methods. As for the other eight, they put the method in the last but one position. Finally, asked to say to what extent they enjoy using the method, sixteen teachers affirmed that they enjoy using it "very much" whereas only five do not "very much" enjoy using it, that is, moderately.

Thus, one may deduce from these answers that teachers have positive attitudes since sixteen out of twenty-one informants "sometimes" use the communicative approach, sixteen of them prefer it to all other methods they use, and sixteen enjoy using it "very much." Therefore, the hypothesis put forward earlier that some "knowers" do not apply the method and if ever they do, they do it badly is confirmed. In fact, if they applied it adequately their students would have good performance in the four skills.

Concerning speaking, Table 8 displays twenty-one Rwandan English teachers' judgements about their English students' performance. For the present case, only one teacher claims his students speak English "very well" and five say that theirs speak "well" whereas the other fifteen English teachers feel their students have difficulties in speaking English.

Since only one teacher say his students speak English "very well", and fifteen out of twenty-one realize that theirs have lots of difficulties in speaking, the situation is desperate. This means that the "knowers" do not use the communicative approach which develops all skills in general and speaking in particular. There may be another possible cause for this problem. If ever they use the method, they do not use it properly in their English teaching activities.

With respect to students listening, I am led to believe that it is not developed either, at least as far as our twenty-one knowers are concerned. Like speaking, listening is a skill for which the majority of students have a lot of problems. Concerning the teachers' judgements one notices that two out of twenty-one teachers affirm that their students perform "very well" and the other eight say that theirs are good enough at

listening while eleven (the majority) find that theirs have difficulties in listening in Johnson and Morrow's sense (1986 : 79).

To conlude the section on "knowers'" attitudes towards students' performance in the four skills, the distribution of judgements on students' performance which is not encouraging was not expected. Since "knowers" have been taught how to use the method and said that they preferred and enjoyed it (see Table 2 and 3), their students were expected to have good performance. Paradoxically enough, however, "knowers'" students are judged as not being good performants (see Table 8). Therefore, as stated above, some "knowers" use other methods instead of the communicative one and if they use it, they certainly fail to apply it adequately.

2.6.1.6. The "Knowers'" Attitude Towards the Effectiveness of the Communicative Approach.

The question in this section is meant to assess whether or not the communicative approach is fruitful in Rwandan English teaching. With respect to this, informants were asked this question : "If you use the communicative approach, how effective do you find it to be?" They were asked to choose among these answers : "very effective" "effective" "fairly effective" and "not effective." The different informants' opinions are given in Table below.

Number of teachers who find the communicative approach				
Very effective	Effective	Fairly effect.	Not effective	No answer
8	6	5	0	2

Table 8 : "Knowers'" Opinions About The Effectiveness of the Communicative Approach.

By reading the table above, one notices that out of twenty-one "knowers" of the communicative approach, eight teachers judged the approach to be "very effective." The others, after using the method in their teaching, said they found it "effective"; five teachers stated that the communicative approach is only "fairly effective." No "knower" judged the approach as "not effective", except that two   did not answer the question.

I have asked this question because some of Rwandan secondary school English teachers complain that drama activities that the communicative approach involves are only possible with intermediate and advanced learners. Thus they thought that these activities required linguistic background on the part of the students. This claim was hinted at through some comments that teachers added to their judgements. There were some who answered for instance, "very effective' with fourth and fifth forms 'effective' with third forms and 'fairly effective' with beginners'". From these opinions, I see that some of the Rwandan secondary school English teachers believe that, for their students to be able to communicate, they have to acquire a lot of vocabulary and grammar. These teachers either underevaluated their beginning English students or they did not know the right meaning of communication. Communication is also a non-verbal bahaviour. Students' language, however poor it might be, does not necessarily require the knowledge of complex structures to be used as a means of communication.

Despite this somehow limited view of communication, Rwandan secondary school teachers in general find the communicative approach either "very effective" or just "effective." This means that the method is useful in the Rwandan language teaching system. For this reason, those who think that communication is only possible with "sophisticated" English language

structures need more information on the communicative approach and its techniques. As for schools where the method is still unknown, it should be adopted, used and promoted.

2.6.2. The "Non-knowers'" Teaching of The Four Language Skills and Attitudes.

So far in this chapter, I have analysed how the "knowers" of the approach handle their communicative orientated classrooms; the information yielded by the questionnaire has revealed techniques they use in their teaching of the four language skills. Now, in this section, I am considering the "non-knowers'" techniques used in the teaching of the same language skills. In other words, my concern is to know if they use their own procedures or if they share some of the"knowers". For this purpose, I have analysed the questionnaire filled in by "non-knowers." When I asked them to fill it in for me, no allusion was made to communicative methodology in the section regarding the teaching of the four language skills. I only asked all the informants to show the techniques they use in teaching those skills. This procedure was the wisest way to get information from "non-knowers" since they were not supposed to know the approach. It is worth recalling here that the same questionnaire was used to assess the "knowers'" teaching.

2.6.2.1. Reading.

The first question on reading concerned the reading text selection. The "non-knowers" had to say whether or not they choose their reading text to illustrate specific linguistic structures. Seven out of nine teachers answered "yes", two said they "sometimes" do. No teacher replied he does

not use that procedure. This means that the majority of the "non-knowers" still have a traditional view of the teaching of reading; they do not know the communicative principle the prime goal of which is to help students acquire reading skills and not to memorize language patterns.

The next question required the "non-knowers" to say whether their students are asked to read the text aloud. Table 9 gives an account of their answers.

	Number out of 9 teachers who teach reading by asking lerrners to			
	Read aloud	Read silently	Understand every word	Read for meaning
Yes	4	5	5	4
No	5	2	4	5
Sometimes	–	2	4	5

Table 9 :"Non-knowers'" Techniques with Respect to the Teaching of Reading.

As it appears on this table, four out of nine "non-knowers" said they ask their students to "read aloud" whereas the other five answered they do not use that technique. This technique of asking learners to read aloud is characteristic of the traditional method according to which each learner, in turn was usually asked to stand up and read the text aloud. This helped the learner improve his pronunciation; but very little, if any, information was acquired. I am not saying that the communicative approach tabooes reading aloud; this may be done but on purpose. There must be a good reason for doing it, to correct pronunciation for instance. Coming back to "non-knowers" of the method, it is encouraging to notice that some "non-knowers" do not ask their students to "read aloud". This would imply that there may be some communicative techniques of reading that they use alongside the traditional ones.

Contrary to the previous question, I asked the "non-knowers" if, while teaching reading, they ask their students to read "silently." Five out of nine teachers said they do; two informed me they do not, while the remaining two answered they "sometimes" do.

In the case of the five teachers who answered positively, one can, as has been done for the preceding question, notice that their technique is contrary to what was expected from them (see Table 8) because the technique of asking students to read "silently" is typical of the communicative method.

The following question about the teaching of reading assessed if the "non-knowers" require their students to"understand every word" of the text they have to read. On this question, five teachers answered "yes" and the other four said "no".

Requiring English student to understand the meaning of every item is not an effective methodology. That procedure is time consuming on the part of the learner and does not necessarily promote his reading skill. In fact, the case of the five teachers who require their students to"understand every word"is not surprising at all; the technique is accepted as fruitful by the users of the traditional method.

The fifth question was intended to know whether "non-knowers" ask their students to read for   meaning. On this question, four teachers said "yes" and the five others answered "no".

It is surprising to notice that the technique of asking students to"read for meaning", commonly used in communicative teaching is applied by four out of nine "non-knowers" of the approach. This, again, allows me to

assert that the "non-knowers" of the communicative approach use some of the communicative techniques.

Next, I wanted to look into the way these teachers assess their students' reading comprehension. The first question concerning this assessement was to know if, after students have read a text, they are asked wh-questions, yes/no questions or both. Seven teachers out of nine agreed that after students' reading, they give both kinds of questions; only two said they prefer wh-questions.

The second question was intended to know whether "non-knowers" give truth assessment and multiple choice questions. Four teachers claimed that they give truth assessment questions while five said they evaluate pupils' reading comprehension through both truth assessment and multiple choice questions.

Answers to this question are reported in the following lines. There are seven out of nine informants who use both wh-questions and polar questions and thus teach reading in the traditional way. Besides, five teachers assess reading comprehension by giving both truth assessement and multiple choice questions and are therefore in accordance with Widdowson (1979 : 96) who advocates these techniques in communicative language teaching. The consideration of the five teachers who use truth assessment and multiple choice questions allow me to say that a good number of "non-knowers" use some communicative techniques in their classroom presentations.

2.6.2.2. Writing

To determine "non-knowers'" techniques used to help their students acquire writing skills, I gave the informants two categories of questions :

those relating to the traditional method and those relating to the communicative one. The former category is made up by two statements whereas the latter comprises four.

The first statement to agree or disagree with was the following: "When you teach writing you ask learners to compose isolated sentences." Five informants accepted that they proceed in that way; the other four said they do not do so.

The second statement was : "In communicative writing, you judge the students' production in terms of the message conveyed, in terms of grammatical correctness, or in terms of both." Concerning this statement, five out of nine informants judge students' writing according to the message conveyed whereas the other four said they grade their students' writing in terms of grammatical correctness.

Actually, the "non-knowers'" answers were not expected from them. Usually, all the "non-knowers" of the communicative approach are supposed to put emphasis on the traditional method in judging and grading their students' writing,in terms of grammatical correctness. However, I realized that it was not the case. In noticed that only four teachers involved in the investigation grade their students' copies in terms of the conveyed message. Thus, this relatively small number of users of the traditional method shows that there is another method they use in English classes.

Now let us consider the four statements related to the communicative approach to language teaching. As shown in Table 10 below, the "non-knowers" had to say if they ask their students to (a) write creative or authentic sentences, (b) write about topics using cue-words, (c) write looking at pictures, or (d) if they combine the last two techniques.

	Number out of 9 teachers who teach writing by asking students to write			
	a- Creative or authentic sentences	b- With cue-words	c- Looking at pictures	d- doing b&c
Yes	5	8	5	5
No	4	1	4	4

Table 10 : "Non-knowers'" Techniques with Respect to the Teaching of Writing.

The first statement reads: "When you teach writing, you ask learners to write authentic sentences which combine to form a coherent paragraph." Five out of nine English teachers said they do, and the four others affirmed that they do not use the technique.

To the second truth assessment which is formulated as follows, "When you teach writing, you ask learners to write about certain topics with cue-words". Eight out of nine "non-knowers" answered they do whereas one said that he does not.

The third statement was formulated as follows : "When you teach writing, you ask learners to write sentences looking at pictures." Here, five teachers agreed that they ask their students to do that, but the other four disagreed with the statement.

The fourth statement which reads : "When you teach writing, you ask your students to write about certain topics with cue-words and to write sentences looking at pictures or you ask students to do both of them." For this statement, five teachers said that they use both techniques, whereas the other four said they do not.

In sum, many "non-knowers" use these communicative strategies in the teaching of writing. Instead of sticking to grammatical correctness and asking students to compose isolated sentences, both of which are

traditional techniques, they tell students to write authentic sentences, write about certain topics using cue-words, or write sentences looking at pictures. These are communicative techniques which are put forward by Widdowson (1955 : 115-118).

2.6.2.3. Speaking

Many English teachers believe that the ability to communicate is measured on the basis of the talkativeness of pupils. To make sure that this is still the case with today's Rwandan secondary school English teachers, I presented my informants with situations whereby the student is engaged in a lot of talking and asked them to assess three statements.

At the same time, it is worth remarking that contrary to the preceding sections where I presented characteristics of both traditional and communicative methods, my investigation into teaching communicative speaking exclusively involved three techniques relating to the traditional method to see what English teachers' reactions would be. Table 11 below gives an account of what these reactions are.

IN THE TEACHING OF SPEAKING	Number out of 9 teachers who choose	
	Yes	No
a- Structural dialogues always teach rules of communication	5	4
b- Much talk on the part of students leads automatically to communication	8	1
c- Students must memorize what they have to say	1	8

Table 11 : Distribution of "Non-knowers" with Respect to Traditional Techniques of Teaching Speaking.

The first of the three truth assessments was : "In the teaching of speaking, structural dialogues always teach rules of communication."

Five out of nine teachers agreed they do. The four other "non-knowers" disagreed with the assertion. As for the second statement which was "Much talk on the part of students leads automatically to communication", Table 11 shows that eight "non-knowers" think that much talk on the part of learners leads automatically to communication, whereas only one "non-knower" realizes it is not always true. As for the third and final truth assessment question which was formulated as follows : "In the teaching of dialogues, student must memorize what they have to say", one "non-knower" accepted they have to, while the other eight thought that students' memorization does not imply communication. They understand that memorization is no longer "indispensable" in language teaching.

In fact, with memorized dialogues students know by heart every thing they have to say; they know beforehand what their interlocutors have to ask or answer, which implies that there is no transfer of new information. Students memorize and recite dialogues because they are told to do so but not to exchange new information.

Most of the information in Table 11 is expected since I am dealing with "non-knowers." For instance, five teachers involved in my experiment answered that structural dialogues always teach rule of communication and seven teachers stated that much talk on the part of students leads to communication automatically. This is not surprising because "non-knowers" are normally expected to be imbued with the traditional teaching. Nevertheless, the case of the seven "non-knowers" who know that students, in learning to speak English, should not be asked to memorize what they have to say drives me to postulate that these "non-knowers", in addition to the traditional method, unknowingly use some communicative techniques.

2.6.2.4. Listening

None of the four language skills is taught in isolation. To illustrate this assertion, one can argue that conversation between two people logically involves listening and speaking. These two language skills are complementary in communication. Since most of the time listening implies talking and vice-versa, I included questions regarding speaking in my research in order to have information about listening.

Inquiring into the non-knowers'" selection of listening texts, I wanted to know teachers' position "vis à vis" the selection of materials. The first statement proposed to informants was: 'When you select your listening text, you want it to serve as a model for the students' own production." The purpose of this question was to check if, when an English teacher looks for a text to use in class, he ultimately wants students to come up with well-formed and grammatical sentences. The question was asked because a good number of Rwandan secondary school English teachers are strongly concerned with students' mistakes and constantly wish to correct them. Different teachers' positions about this question are shown in Table 12 below.

WHEN YOU SELECT YOUR LISTENING TEXT	Number out of 9 teachers who choose	
	Yes	No
a- You want it to serve as a model for your students' own production	5	4
b- You try to find texts which give students controlled guided experience	4	5

Table 12 : "Non-knowers'" Positions about the Selection of
Listening Texts.

Five teachers agreed that they choose texts which examplify the kind of language they want their English students to speak while the other four said they do not proceed in that way.

One of the basic concepts about communicative listening texts which has to be taken into consideration by teachers is "controlled and guided experience" (Widdowson 1985 : 79). That is why this statement, "When you select your listening texts, you want to find those which give students controlled and guided experience "was given to "non-knowers." Responses to this statement were distributed as follows : four out of nine "non-knowers" said "yes" and the other five answered "no".

If one considers responses to these two statements which exclude each other, one can notice that the five "non-knowers" who assert that they select their listening passage as a model for learners to imitate follow the traditional method. Nonetheless, the four "non-knowers" who try to find texts which provide students with controlled and guided experience were unexpected from the "non-knowers" of the communicative methodology. This leads me to conclude that the "non-knowers", in addition to their traditional method, use some communicative procedures in their English teaching.

To conclude this section about the "non-knowers'" teaching of the four language skills, one may generally say that these teachers still ignore some important communicative teaching principles. This concords with the grades they got on the test about the theoretical knowledge of the communicative method. Yet among these teachers who say they do not use the method, there are some who apply it. Indeed, their techniques are recommended in communicative language teaching.

With reading, for instance, five informants do not, without purpose, ask students to read "aloud"; instead texts are read "silently." Four teachers do not overload students by asking them to understand every word of the text they read, but require them to read for general meaning. Five teachers like to ask truth assessment and multiple choice questions which engage the language learners positively.

With writing, it is clear that not all "non-knowers" use the traditional ways of teaching this skill. Five "non-knowers" want their pupils to write authentic sentences instead of composing isolated sentences. Furthermore, they ask their students to write connected sentences looking at pictures, which keeps learners in context. Also, they judge and grade students' written exercises in terms of the message conveyed instead of grammatical correctness.

With listening, four teachers select authentic passages to give guided experience, and finally with speaking, seven "non-knowers'" students do not memorize every thing they have to say; instead, what a student utters comes as a natural response to what is said by his peer or as a hint to what he wants his interactant to understand. Hence, it may be assumed that they teach listening communicatively.

As a whole, the four language skills are developed by some Rwandan "non-knowers" of the new approach by means of communicative techniques.

2.6.2.5. The "Non-Knowers" Attitudes Towards

Their students' Performance.

As part of the second chapter, an analysis of how the students of the "knowers" of the communicative approach perform in reading, writing, speaking and listening was made. The concern of this section is to consider the way "non-knowers" regard their English learners' performance. Table 13 below shows the number of English teachers who find their students perform either "very well", "well" or "with difficulty." I will sometimes be referring to performance of the two categories of teachers to see if they do not have some techniques in common.

The 4 language skills	Number of 9 teachers whose students perform		
	Very well	Well	With difficulty
Reading	3	4	2
Writing	2	5	2
Speaking	1	5	3
Listening	2	4	3

Table 13 : The "Non-knowers'" Judgements of Students' Performance.

To begin with reading, three "non-knowers" state that their learners read English "very well"; four state that their students read English "well" and two judge theirs as having difficulties in their performance.

If one examines data provided above, one notices that the number (7) of teachers whose students read at least well (i.e. "well" and "very well") is big. This means that "non-knowers'" students are good at reading, which is not surprising since the traditional methods they use generally develop reading. For instance, as said before, several "non-knowers" use selected texts in teaching reading and, in effect, this traditional technique is likely to enhance students' reading skills.

As for writing, I have been informed of another interesting case: out of nine "non-knowers", two feel that their students write English "very well" while the other five assert that their students write good English and the two remaining ones say theirs have problems in writing.

That there is a big number (7) of teachers whose students write at least "well" is not surprising either. In effect, as stated above, some traditional methods the supporters of which grade students in terms of grammatical correctness cultivate students' writing skills.

With respect to speaking, "non-knowers'" judgements on students' performance in speaking were surprising on the whole. In Table 13, it appears that one out of nine "non-knowers" thinks that pupils speak English "very well" and that five are judged as speaking English "well". It is also shown that there are two teachers whose students have many difficulties in speaking.

Such judgements are surprising since "non-knowers" who stated that they had not been taught to use the communicative method have students who are skilled in speaking. Normally, the traditional methods are less concerned with this skill. But here, contrary to what was expected in traditionally orientated teaching, some of "non-knowers'" students are good at speaking. Therefore, it can be assumed that there are "non-knowers" who use some communicative techniques in addition to traditional ones.

For the same reasons, some of "non-knowers'" students are characterized by good performance in listening. Thus, one can say that "non-knowers'" attitudes towards students performance in listening and speaking are almost the same, as shown in Table 12.

Two "non-knowers" say that their students can listen "very well". The other four judge their students' listening abilities as being good while three teachers think that their students' performance is defective.

If one follows the same argumentation as in the preceding case, one can equally conclude that the "non-knowers" whose students are skilled in listening use to some extent the techniques of the communicative method.

On the whole, information gathered about "non-knowers'" judgements on students' performance in the four skills displays a significant contrast. On one hand, students are skilled in writing and reading. And this is not astonishing since their teachers ("non-knowers") are acquainted with the traditional methods which particularly develop the skills in question. On the other hand - and this is striking to notice - students are considerably skilled in speaking and listening skills which are not usually cared for in traditional approaches. What can be deduced from such an unusual fact is that, contrary to what they believe, "non-knowers" actually apply some techniques used in the communicative methodology.

The following section will attempt to assess to what extent the frequency of use of communicative activities varies from the so-called non-knowers to "knowers" and the percentages of teachers who use them.

2.7. The Frequency of Use of Communicative Activities.

It is almost impossible to conceive a communicative classroom without communicative activities such as games, group work, role-play, group discussion and dialogues. That is why this section sets out to

analyse how frequently these communicative activities are used and how many teachers use them. This analysis will give the reader a hint about the status of the communicative methodology in secondary school English classes in Rwanda. For this purpose the following question was asked to teachers.

The question was formulated and presented as follows : "Show how frequently you use the following :" games, dialogues, role-plays, group discussion and group work activities."

The responses of the "knowers" and "non-knowers" are reported in this table.

	FREQUENTLY		SOMETIMES		NEVER	
	Knowers	Non-knowers	Knowers	Non-knowers	Knowers	Non-knowers
Games	4	0	4	4	13	5
Dialogues	5	0	8	4	8	5
Role-plays	4	1	13	4	4	4
Group discussion	8	0	0	4	13	5
Group work	8	2	5	2	8	5

Table 14 : Teachers' Frequency of Use of Communicative Activities.

The table given above comprises three different alternatives of frequency. There are teachers who "frequently" use drama activities namely, games, dialogues, role-plays, group discussion and group work. There are also those who "sometimes" use them and those who "never" use them.

No comments need to be made about Table 14 which is self-explanatory if the reader remembers that the number of the "knowers" and "non-knowers" involved are respectively 21 and 9. This also works for Table 15. However, one general statement is worth making. Apart from games and group discussion, other activities are fairly frequently used by both categories.

As for Table 14, numbers of "knowers" and "non-knowers" in front of each activity which correspond respectively to classifications "frequently" and "sometimes" have been added. Then, these numbers have been put under the label "teachers who use." This had led me to draw the following table :

| | Teachers (T) who use | |
	Knowers (21 T.)	Non-knowers (9 T.)
Games	8 T. - 38%	4 T - 44%
Dialogues	13 T - 62%	4 T - 44%
Role-plays	16 T - 76%	5 T - 56%
Group discussion	8 T -- 38%	4 T - 44%
Group work	13 T - 62%	4 T - 44%

Table 15 : Users of the Communicative Approach.

By reading this table, one can notice that there are two categories of teachers who use drama activities. Characteristic of the communicative teaching, these activities characterize any communicative classroom presentation. Therefore, it can be taken for granted that teachers who use them or some of them teach communicatively. For the category of "knowers", 62% of teachers use dialogues' 76% role-plays and 62% group work activities. Besides, games and group discussion are used by 38% of "knowers" each.

As for the second category, forty-four percent (44%) of "non-knowers" use games, dialogues, group discussion, and group work activities, and fifty-six percent (56%) of them use role-plays.

These percentages of "knowers" and "non-knowers" who use drama activities lead me to the following conclusions. First, games and group discussion are activities "knowers" use the least. Second, dialogues and group work together with games and group discussion are seemingly not very

usable in "non-knowers'" view. Third, "knowers" and "non-knowers" use

the new method even if the last category $\overset{\text{does}}{\wedge}$ it unconsciously. However,

as said above, both groups seem to favour some activities more than others.

2.8. Classroom Observations.

While the preceding sections deal with teachers' knowledge of

drama activities, this new section assesses their actual teaching. The

information given in the first two sections may include some pieces of

unreliable information due to teachers' self assessment especially in the

case of "knowers." For that reason, I have thought that it was necessary

to attend three lessons by each of the ten teachers in my sample to verify

the information they have given in filling in the questionnaire. Concern-

ing "non-knowers", I wanted to see whether there are some teachers who use

the communicative approach without being aware of it. The following lines

show the procedure I have followed.

I have devised a kind of rating scheme containing twenty criteria

characterizing the communicative orientated classroom. This scheme is

presented in Appendix C. I have observed and graded "knowers" and "non-

knowers" in classroom.

Once I was allowed by the principal to observe a given teacher,

I used the rating scheme to grade the latter. I was mostly interested in

checking that what the teacher did in classroom was in accordance with

criteria of the communicative approach (see Appendix C). My observations

were scheduled to take place between March and April in 1988 for three

weeks that is, two weeks before and one week after Easter holidays. Each

teacher was observed three times and visited once a week either in the

morning or the afternoon. And as it appears in Appendix C, there were twenty criteria, and for the whole period of observations, whenever a teacher used a technique which was in accordance with a given criterion he was given one point. Thus, after three observations, the final grade was the total sum of points he had obtained. In fact, a teacher's final grade corresponded to the number of criteria that he had respected while teaching.

After assessing the ten teachers' lessons, I compared their grades on classroom management with those on their theoretical knowledge of the approach.

2.8.1. The "Knowers"

"Knowers'" grades on classroom management are listed in the table below. The letters F, G, H, I and J stand for the names of five "knowers" I have graded whereas A, B, C, D and E represent names of "non-knowers" : they are the very teachers who are involved in my experiment.

Knowers	Grade /20
F	15
G	7
H	16
I	6
J	10

Table 16 : The Observed "Knowers'" Grades.

At first sight, there is no real difference in performance among teachers. Still, they can be classified into three categories. The first category is made of two informants "F" and "H" who have proved to know the communicative approach quite well. First, they themselves informed me that they had been trained in applying the method. Second, they had good grades on theoretical knowledge of the method. Third, they also succeeded in classroom management (see Table 16).

The second category is that of two other teachers "G" and "I" who theoretically know the method but do not apply their theoretical knowledge in class. Actually both teachers seem to know the method; they have themselves said they had been taught how to teach communicatively, and their grades they obtained on theoretical knowledge support their assertion. But when I abserved them in classroom, I noticed that they do not use the method as it appears in Table 16.

The third category is made of one teacher "J" who has a good knowledge of the new method but does not use it systematically. Whenever he happens to deal with communicative activities, he mixes some communicative strategies and traditional ones. In role-play for instance, he asks his students to memorize roles.

From the three categories, one can deduce that knowing a method does not necessarily imply using it in classroom : many factors, among which motivation and attitude, come into play in determining the educators' willingness to apply it.

2.8.2. The "Non-knowers."

Concerning the "non-knowers", their grades are given in the table below.

Non-knowers	Grades
A	7
B	4
C	11
D	12
E	14

Table 17 : The Observed "Non-knowers'" Grades.

In this table, there are two categories of "non-knowers." On the one hand, two out of the five teachers have three times shown that they do not know the communicative methodology. In the questionnaire they stated that they had not been taught how to use the method. In effect, when they were tested in the theory of the new approach, they failed, and in their teaching, they hardly use some communicative strategies. This is the case with teachers "A" and "B". On the other hand, there is another category of three teachers "C", "D" and "E" who, at the beginning, stated that they had not been trained to handle communicative classrooms and therefore could not be expected to use the approach and who have shown that they do not have a satisfactory theoretical knowledge about the approach. But interestingly enough, when I attended their lessons, I discovered that they use the communicative method. This is shown by the results that they obtained when I evaluated their teaching (see table 17).

2.8.3. "Knowers" and "Non-knowers'" Results on the Test and Classroom Presentation.

This section constitutes a synoptic presentation of "knowers" and "non-knowers'" grades. The table below presents the grades which were obtained by "knowers" and "non-knowers" respectively in theory and practice, so that the two types of grade can be compared.

	Non-knowers					Knowers				
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
Theory/20	05	04	07	07	06	14	15	15	14	14
Practice/20	07	04	11	12	14	15	07	16	06	10

Table 18 : Teachers' Results on the Theory and Practice of the Communicative Approach.

A careful reading of this table shows that, among "knowers", there are those who use the theoretical knowledge they have gained. This is supported by the grades obtained by teachers "F" and "H", i.e., 14 and 15 out of twenty respectively in the theoretical text and 15 and 16 on classroom presentation. Another category of the "knowers" actually know the method theoretically without applying it in their classrooms. This is the case with teachers like "G" and "I" who respectively got 15 and 14 on theory, and 7 and 6 in classroom presentation. This cases verify the first part of my hypothesis according to which there are some Rwandan English teachers who affirm that they know and use the communicative approach but who actually do not apply it.

In the present investigation, however, an unexpected category emerged. This is the category of teachers who theoretically know the method very well but who, in their teaching, do not apply it satisfactorily. This is the case with "J" who has 14 on theory and only 10 in classroom presentation.

As for the "non-knowers", two considerations are to be made. On the one hand, there are teachers who have no theoretical knowledge of the new method and subsequently do not use it. This case is examplified by teachers "A" and "B" who respectively obtained 5, 4 in theory and 7, 4 in practice. On the other hand, there are other teachers who seem to have no information about the communicative method but satisfactorily use the new method. This category of teachers is illustrated by teachers "C", "D" and "E" who obtained respectively 7, 7 and 6 on theory and 11, 12 and 14 for classroom presentation.

Consequently, it is right to say that there are some Rwandan secondary school teachers who believe that they do not know or do not know

how to use the communicative method while they actually use a good number

of communicative techniques. Besides, there are some other Rwandan

secondary school English teachers who claim to know and use the communic-

ative approach while they actually do not use it.

At the end of this chapter about "knowers" and "non-knowers" of

the communicative Approach, it is worth pointing out that, though slotted

into two categories, teachers have some teaching techniques in common. The

"knowers" have techniques, be they communicative or not, in share with the

"non-knowers." For instance, with respect to traditional teaching of

reading, twelve out of twenty-one "knowers" (57%) against four out of nine

"non-knowers" (44%) ask students to read aloud, 57% of "knowers" against 55%

of "non-knowers" ask English learners to understand every word while reading

a text.

With respect to communicative teaching of writing, thirteen out

of twenty-one "knowers" (66%) against eight out of nine "non-knowers" (88%)

ask students to write coherent passages with cue-words. As for traditional

way of teaching speaking, eight out of twenty-one "knowers" (38%) ask students

to memorize conversations whereas only one "non-knower" (11%) does it.

With regard to listening, 38% of "knowers" (see p.71) against (44%)

of "non-knowers" (see P. 86) choose texts which give students controlled and

guided experience. The point is that there are some differences in number

and ways the two categories of educators teach English, but one cannot go as

far as to talk of a total compartimentization in terms of their teaching

habits.

CHAPTER 3

DEFICIENCIES IN THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH IN RWANDAN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

The second chapter has looked into ways in which the communicative approach is handled and applied in English classrooms in Rwanda by the "knowers" and "non-knowers" of the communicative methodology. The two types of teachers' communicative abilities have been analysed in relation to the way they help their students acquire communicative abilities. The investigation conducted among ten teachers has shown that not all "knowers" use the method. Also, it has been found out that not all "non-knowers" are incapable of using it. It was clear that, in both categories of teachers, there is a considerable number of incongruities between what teachers claim and what they actually do as regards particularly "knowers." I have come to the conclusion that their ways of handling classrooms still present much room for improvement despite their praiseworthy knowledge of the method. Hence, the third chapter points out major deficiencies in English language classrooms and tries to propose ways in which they could be ameliorated. I have only picked out problems of high recurrence throughout my lesson observation.

According to the information provided by responses to the question-naire and interviews that I had with different teachers, one can classify

deficiencies in two main categories : human and material problems. On the one hand, teachers seem unaware of the consequences of some of the stragegies they use in their teaching; there is also laziness and lack of motivation. As for the students, acquisition of communicative ability suffers from both poor language background and motivation. In addition, students are sometimes too many to be followed each individually. Finally, the application of the method is handicaped by lack of adequate materials and the discrepancy between materials and time alloted to use them. This chapter will suggest some possible solutions to such problems.

3.1. Deficiencies

3.1.1. Teachers

3.1.1.1. Cases of Unawareness

In this section, I will call "teachers' unawareness" stragegies some teachers, though, well intentioned, apply in their teaching but which, to some extent, handicap the learners' acquisition of communicative competence. For example it is a little bit queer to see a teacher, who asserts that he uses communicative approach forbidding pupils to use more than one tense in a sentence. This is the case of three teachers who, while teaching a given tense, tried to discourage their students from mixing tenses. In my sense, this hinders the students' potentialities to communicate.

The first case is that of a teacher who said : "Who has taught you that tense?" or "where have you got that tense?" On each of the three moments I visited him. The second case is that of a teacher who is fond of the expression "Class, have we seen that tense?" The third case concerns a teacher who said "Someone else, who knows the right tense" on each of the

three occasions I attended his lessons. Thus he stopped the lesson stream

for about two minutes to wait for students to recall a given verb form that

was previously taught.

I understand what these teachers meant in telling their students

to content themselves with tenses under consideration : they wanted their

students not to get confused with many different tenses. Even at an

advanced level, tense agreement causes so much trouble that it is not an

easy task for learners to manipulate various tenses. It does not follow,

however, that a student who, after being taught how some tenses work and

how to generate tense rules, should be discouraged from trying to express

his ideas, feelings through other tenses on the pretence that he has not yet

been taught the tenses. The idea behind that kind of teaching philosophy

is the illegitimate traditional need to prevent language learners from

making mistakes. Practically, it is by making mistakes and having them

corrected that one learns a language effectively.

Teaching one tense at a time throughout the whole lesson is to

ignore the prime role of language which is communication. If a teacher

emphasizes one tense, he prevents students from freely and spontaneously use

language. The involvement of one tense, say, the present, throughout the

whole text sometimes constitutes an artificial presentation. English

teachers should fully recognize the importance of involving various tenses

in most ordinary communication situations. The point I am trying to get

across here is that the English language learner should, when possible, be

encouraged to use more than one tense whithin one lesson. Rwandan English

teachers should not compel learners to content themselves with only one

tense because this would be to inhibit the learner's innate language learning

capacity. On the contrary, they had better allow them to use their

inductive power to generate English rules.

Segedy (1987 : 27)'s "A Rationale for Mixing Tenses in Beginning

English Course" counsels language teachers who have this problem, saying :

> A truly Direct-method Approach to language instruction requires
> the student of foreign language to manage to rapid transition
> across tense barriers that are demanded in genuine communication...
> transitions from the present to the past to the future and back
> are common place in the most ordinary communication situation,
> and the students must make these elementary tense shifts if he
> is to cross over into the real world of communication.

In the above quotation, the author advocates tenses mixing. In fact, no

English teacher should insist on one tense in a lesson or conversation

because no book devises a definite order in which tenses should chronogically

be taught until students reach a certain given language level. In addition,

the teaching of no more than one tense at once would give students the idea

that there are compartiments among English language tenses. Though tenses

and aspects have different functions, it is these functions, once put to-

gether, which constitute communication. Furthermore, communication should

be aimed at from the very early language learning/teaching stage; language

learners should not be expected to communicate only when they have been

taught all about English tenses.

As I attended classroom presentations, I met with another important

problem. On some occasions, the flow of two students' conversation stopped

abruptly. One of them stopped, seemingly, not knowing what had just been

said by his interlocutor. Sometimes the other student did not even know

what the real problem was so that he could repeat his utterance, be it a

question, statement or a negative question.
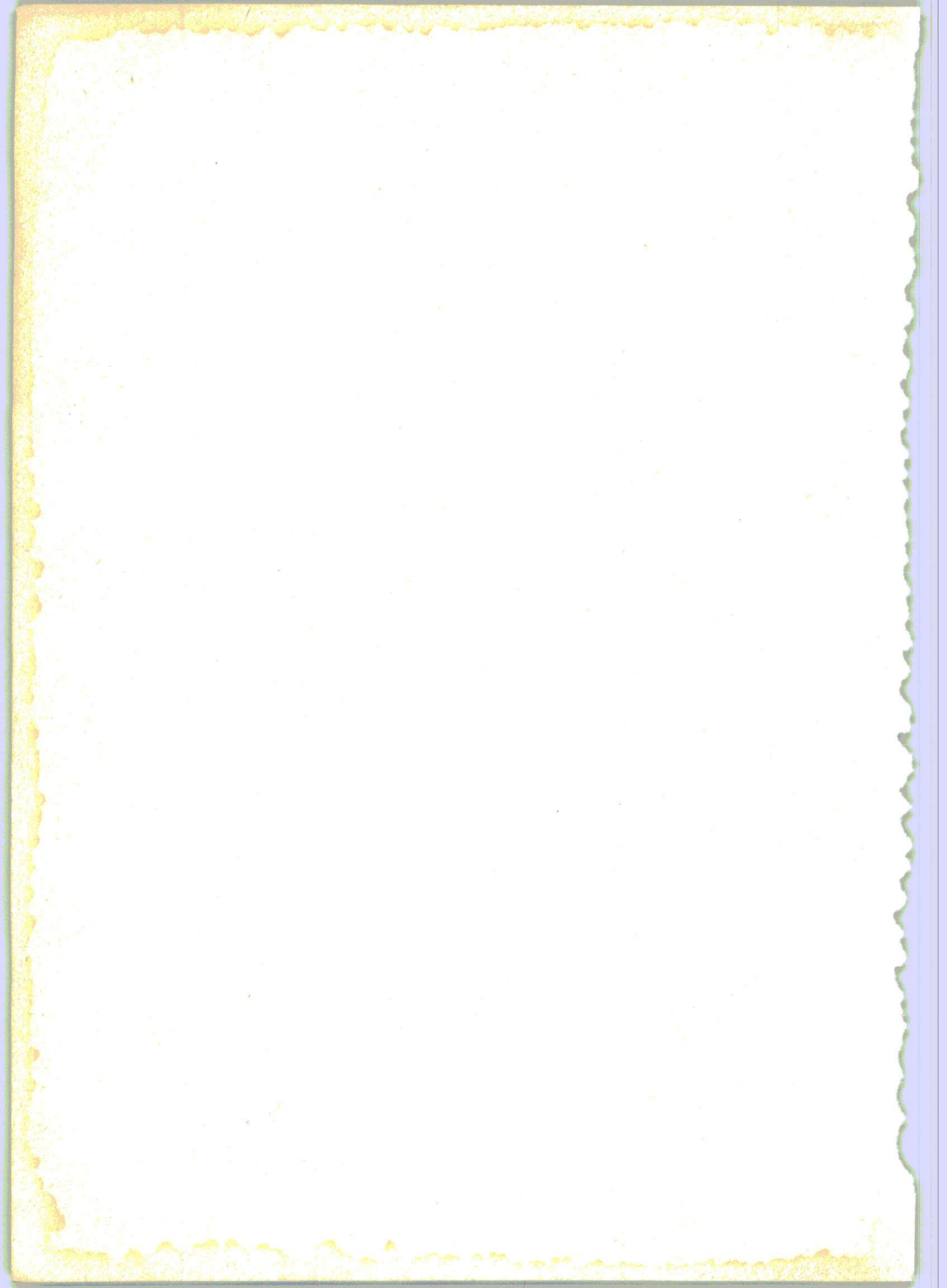
I have realized that this kind of interruption was frustrating to both the teacher and students. In such a situation, the teacher ignores the real problem the interrupter of the conversation has; and may think that he has not supplied enough information about the way conversation should be held, and is disheartened to see classroom activity fail in the presence of a visitor.

As for the student, he can display a sort of panic, thinking he has not adequately and successfully delivered his speech for his interactant to understand the message. The "stopper", feels unseasy before his peers because of having been the cause of interruption of the conversation. The worst situation may arise when the student thinks that he may fail the course. I think that this situation may, at a different degree, according to the teacher's personality, loosen discipline in classroom. In three out of five cases I witnessed, the rest of the class shouted and loughed at the student who was in shortage of expression and stood mute before the class.

The first time, it was very hard for me to understand what was really happening to such students. But having encountered similar cases in more than two language classrooms, I began to understand the problem: the poor students tend to worry about the grammatical correctness of his next utterance. That is why a student may not pay attention to what his interlocutor says. This lack of attention to what has just been said or follows one's utterance spoils any communicative activity in general and conversation in particular; it hampers communication. In my opinion, behind this constant feeling on the part of the student to express himself by well constructed sentences is more or less linked to the teacher's attitudes towards students mistakes or errors; I shall return to the discussion of

this problem very shortly. In fact as we have pointed out in the first chapter, communication is a two way process. Every utterance comes as a natural response to the other which directly precedes it or as a natural introduction to that which follows.

Witnessing such situations in their classrooms, teachers should immediately realize that the students suffer from the problem of language, a shortage of the right vocabulary, structure or expressions to entertain exchanges. Concerning the problem of shortage of language with beginners Revell (1979 : 50) counsels communicative English teachers to introduce or adopt the use of cue-words. This gives to students choice of things to say allowing them to choose what is the right answer to give to his interactant. It is perhaps worth precising that the use of "cue-words" only makes the student replete with possible answer but does not spare him to follow what is being said by the person he is talking with. Attention to what is said is, by essence, peculiar to communication.

Cue-cards only dispense the language learners with the sequencing of his mind searching for a new item. It rather enables him to focus on listening : he has not to formulate what to say himself, he only has to choose one of the proposed possibilities. To do so, he has at least to catch the key-words in his partiner's speech (Revell 1979 : 51).

The third case of unawarenesses of some Rwandan English teachers is related to the traditional aversion to students' mistakes. I have observed the problem in almost all classes visited. When one considers the way teachers react to students' mistakes, one would tend to consider mistakes as anomalous. But, research today has shown that errors and mistakes are inevitable, even necessary in language learning/teaching. If there were no errors and mistakes, there would be no need for teachers.

Many Rwandan English teachers are uneased by mistakes made by their English learners. This fact was shown by the way these teachers react to incorrect forms that students produce. When a mistake slips into the students' language, considerable is the number of teachers who are very ill at ease. Some of them may easily spend five minutes elaborating on rules about trivial mistakes made by their students. Others express their discomfort by facial expression, others rebuke students on account of their mistakes.

According to how some of them react to errors or mistakes, these teachers seem to make students believe that errors or mistakes bring discredit upon both teachers and learners' activities. This inhibiting reaction was noticed exclusively in Rwandan teachers' classrooms. This did not happen with a native English teacher even if her students made errors and mistakes. One could say that these teachers themselves inhibit their students' fluency. Students are reluctant to freely express their ideas in English because they are afraid either to appear ridiculous and weak in front of their teachers, or to be laughed at by their classmates.

These teachers forget the prime goal of language teaching, that of helping students to get across their thoughts and feelings and to communicate either with their peers or teachers or other people. These teachers are unaware of the fact that errors making constitutes a positive step in learning. A student who makes mistakes proves his active involvement in the learning process. Making mistakes while talking with others in a given language ensures the speaker's rich language environment as Norrish (1983 : 3) richly comments the issue saying :

> But the majority of language learners only acquire an *active*
> knowledge of the language if they have the opportunity to listen to a
> great deal of the language and to make numerous mistakes while

expressing themselves in it. The language learner will find that he is more successful in getting his message across in the foreign language if he speaks reasonably quickly and makes some mistakes rather than hesitating before every word he is not certain about. In other words, what may be more highly valued in speech in real life is 'fluency' rather than a somewhat academic accuracy. The point here, then, is that drawing the learner's attention to every mistake he makes, encouraging him to be aware of these mistakes, and making him think at length before speaking or writing, may not help him to use the language in the most natural or useful way.

In the above quotation, Norrish shows that practically no active knowledge of the language is obtained without passing by mistakes. The further reading of the book shows, however, that the author does not overlook the importance of linguistic form because he shows that too many grammatical mistakes break communication down. The point here, then, is that both "accuracy" and "fluency" are important but teachers for communication should go in for "fluency" before "accuracy."

3.1.1.2. Case of Laziness.

By no means, an English teacher could claim to be true pedagogue when he declares that preparing for his lessons constitutes a heavy burden. Surprisingly enough, some teachers affirmed that they were not used to prepare "difficult" or "tiresome activities" such as discussion group activities. Out of ten teachers I observed, only three "knowers" and two "non-knowers" told me that they are interested in activities such as English clubs and group discussions in their schools. They even added that their students enjoyed such activities.

When I interviewed teachers who do not give their students such activities, I asked them whether they did not think about those types of activities, three out of five "non-knowers" said they could not find time for those kinds of activities. As for the other two out of five "knowers", they stated that their time-tables were so ambitious that they did not find

any time for such extraclassroom activities. They added that, in addition
to English classes, they are responsible for many other courses that it
was impossible to find time to spend on such time consumming activities.

Teachers who do not teach using those activities tried to convince
me that they were so busy in day time teaching, that the little time they
had after classes was spared to rest. The "knowers" called my attention to
the fact that, normally, the above-mentioned activities are usually held
when teachers are supposed to be preparing lessons for the following day.
They tried to show me that few were English teachers who are ready to spend
their leisure time on extra-curriculum activities such as English-clubs and
group discussions. Personnaly I am inclined to believe that this is rather
a case of laziness or motivation since there are   three "knowers" and two
"non-knowers" who manage to teach using English clubs and group discussions.

Laziness is also illustrated by teachers "G","I" and "J" (cfr.
Chapter two) who, on the theoretical test prove well to have a good knowledge
of the communicative approach but who once observed teaching do not give
any communicative exercise to their students.

I would charge some Rwandan English teachers with laziness because
while I was talking with them, some said that the conception and presentation
of these activities take a lot of time. As a matter of fact, activities
such English clubs and group discussions require a lot of time to be
prepared and performed. But a good teacher is the one who takes a great
deal of his own leisure time to improve, and enrich the quality of his teaching.
In my sense, a teacher who is not ready to find an extra-time to enrich his
teaching can be charged with laziness. I relate this laziness to a lack of
motivation which may be remedied by the enhancement of teachers' professional
consciousness I will talk about shortly.

3.1.2. Problem of Motivation

3.1.2.1. Teachers

Lack of motivation also impedes the application of the communicative approach to English teaching in Rwanda. It is not always easy to determine what motivates an individual to do this or that but the problem of lack of motivation on the part of Rwandan English teachers was deduced from different responses that English teachers gave to questions like : "Which future career did you long for in studying English at the university level?"; "Are you paid according to the work you do or Are you ill-paid?"; "Have you chosen to teach English?", and "As a teacher, how are you regarded in your community?"

Asked what their career plans were during their schooling, fifteen of the thirty informants said they had chosen to study English because they wanted to know and teach it; the other five answered that their choice was motivated by the need to be a diplomat; two by the need to be an interpretor and the remaining six said they did not choose but were appointed by the Minister to study English instead of law they had applied for.

These responses show that fifteen out thirty informants have been disappointed in their career hopes. They are doing what they did not look for, at least at the beginning. It is worth pointing out that among these fifteen teachers four are of the ten teachers I observed teaching. These responses show a lack of choice of career before and after teaching training in Rwanda, and this may help to account for the frustration which, sometimes, characterizes certain English teachers, which makes them dislike the teaching profession.

Lower salaries constitute another factor which makes some of English teachers not motivated in their profession. Asked whether or not they are paid according to the work they do, ten teachers said that they do not demand to be paid according to the great and difficulty work they do because it is almost impossible for Rwandan authorities to find money since they work day and night; still they want to be paid reasonably well. They told me that even with the two thousand francs added to their salaries (the case of "Masters"), the wage is still small especially, for a good number of teachers still have to pay themselves their lodging allowance. On the whole, teachers realize they work day and night, and consequently they would like to be paid and treated accordingly. This dissatisfaction could affect the quality of language teaching in general and the communicative methodology which is more demanding in particular.

Coming to talk about how the teaching profession is regarded by the people outside or within their environment, that is, how Rwandan teachers are considered in their community, the majority of English teachers tried to convince me that so far in Rwanda, a teacher, be it in primary or secondary schools, is always a "teacher" meaning that the teaching career is still overlooked especially by well off people. These teachers persuaded me that this is the reason why some teachers are appointed unwillingly, though with time, some of them become reconciled to the teaching profession when they realize they run risks of becoming jobless if they refuse to do what the Minister tells them to do. But many others are frustrated once for all especially when, while studying, they aimed at another totally different career.

To cope with this problem, Rwandan authorities should promote this important profession by giving more privileges to teachers so hat they could

not feel uncared for workers in Rwandan society; they should, for instance, earn good wages and be given accomodation well equiped not only to better the teachers' conditions of work but also to make the teaching profession attractive to everybody.

In summary, I have been arguing that the teaching profession may turn out to be an undesired profession to Rwandan graduates because, according to some teachers, it is ill-paying, poorly considered in society, and frustrating. All these factors may undermine teachers' motivation.

3.1.2.2. Students

As I have found out in schools I have visited, English is not appreciated by learners in the same ways; the importance learners give to it varies according to sections. For instance, in the sections of Letters and Economics, eighty per cent (80%) of students who were asked the reason why they studied English said they were studying it in order to communicate in it; they felt they have to acquire a good command of that language.

As for the other sections such as those concerned with Mathemathics and Physics, sixty per cent (60%) said that they studied English to be able to do research in English.

Concerning other sections, namely Primary Teacher-Training, 60% of learners affirmed they learn English only because it is on the curriculum. For this kind of learners, English language is still considered as a make weight subject. This high percentage (60%) of students in Primary Teacher-Training who say they take English courses because they have to, and the sixty percent (60%) of students in Sciences and Mathematics sections who

study English to be able to read material in English show that English, in these sections, is a secondary subject. In fact, it is understandable since even the failing grade in English in these sections does not bring about the refusal of the students in the following school year.

The fact that the number of hours alloted to English language diminishes from year to year in their studies may also explain the lack of motivation on the part of students in these sections. To illustrate this fact, we would like to refer our reader to English teaching time table published in August 1983 which is given in the Appendix E .

3.1.3. Class Size.

In general a lot of Rwandan secondary school classes comprise many students. This constitutes a great problem for teachers to follow each student's progression. When I did not find any drama activity or communicative exercise in lesson, during my conversation with English teachers, I was bold enough to ask why they did not use such activities. In their responses teachers pointed to the problem of high number of students they had to teach at one time. They said that providing a class of forty-five students with communicative materials for instance was beyond their capacities. As these teachers rightly remarked, large class management is one of many impediments to language teaching. Strevens (1977 : 30) goes a step further to remark that the problem of large classes affects language teaching/learning achievement when he puts:

> A class size of 100 is a prescription for very low average class rates of achievement, while a class size of 1 is a prescription for probable high rates of achievement.

In the same line of thought, Magambo (1986 : 34) remarks that there is a number of students in each group beyond which it becomes difficult to control. Undoubtedly, in big classes, drama activities organization will cause a lot of problems. Some teachers rightly remarked that a communicative activity in a group made of more than eight students is likely to be non effective because cohesion and mutual comprehension among group members become loose. Above all, not all students will participate in the learning activity. The case becomes more problematic, they remarked, when, for example, the classroom is not large enough to contain all possible groups since there must also be a reasonable distance between formed groups. From this example we see that, despite group formation, too many students in one classroom may constitute a problem to the application of the communicative Approach. In other words, the bigger the group, the lesser participation and the smaller the group, the harder it will be for learners not to participate. Even the very timid students will try to say something. In all cases, however, dividing the class into relatively small groups is more effective than dealing with the whole class as one group.

3.2. Conditions for Optimal Application of the Communicative Approach in Rwandan Secondary Schools.

In three sub-sections, I would like to propose a number of possible solutions to some of problems that face communicative English teachers in Rwanda. Firstly, I want to look in the "BPES'" tasks in the improvement of the communicative teaching. Secondly, I will show how Rwandan English learners also have an important role to play for the success of the communicative teaching; they should improve their behaviour in language teaching classrooms. Lastly, I will consider the problem of adequate

communicative teaching materials. For this very point, it will be seen
that this problem regards the "BPES", English department, but also that,
contrary to what most teachers believe, responsibility for providing
appropriate materials is shared by teachers themselves and The "BPES" staff.

3.2.1. The "BPES" Role.

3.2.1.1. Adequate Yearly Teaching Training.

For any type of language teaching to succeed, many factors come
into play, the most important of which being the teacher's quality. The
teacher introduces his student to language and continually gives and correct
in-class exercises. In fact, the students' ability to perform is partly due
to the quality of the teacher. This implies that, the teacher, too, is a
central element in language teaching process. With respect to that,
Rwandan English teachers should be adequately trained. Strevens (1977 : 21)
recognizes the importance of teacher training, saying that it is

> The chanel by which, in the long terms, the aims of language
> teaching, its organization, and its links with the world wide
> profession, are converted into classroom action of a particular
> kind, equally, it is the principal chanel through which changes
> and reforms in language teaching can be brought about.

This quotation indirectly shows that without the teacher, there is no
learning and that for this classic teaching/learning to be effective,
whoever aspires to teach should receive initial teacher training whereas he
who is already teaching should be maintained up to date through in-service
training.

As stated in the second chapter of this study, there are two
types of "knowers" : those who have been trained in the traditional method
in their studies. This category of teachers has not been taught how to

teach using the new method but some of them actually use some communic-
ative techniques. They have a great deal of potentiality so that, if they
received in-service training, for instance, they could become good teachers
of English for communication. There is another category of teachers who,
having been taught in the communicative method, know the method almost
perfectly but do not use the method in their lessons because as Strevens
says training an individual to do something is one thing and for him to do
the thing is another thing. These teachers are either lazy or not motivated.

For these two categories of teachers yearly in-service training
would constitute a remedy for the situation. Until very recently, there
were three-month training in the USA, but nowadays, secondary school English
teachers wonder why they no longer hear of teachers who are sent there for
such types of training. They wonder whether the United States have with-
held their offer or the Rwandan government authorities do not want their
English teachers to benefit from those opportunities offered to them.

We also know that the "BPES" English section, financially sup-
ported by the American Embassy, regularly organizes workshop meant to
acquaint Rwandan English teachers with English teaching methods and inform
them of the new theories of language teaching, but several teachers, during
our talk, said that they very often hear of such meetings but have rarely
been invited to attend them. More than four interviewees told me that
during the six years they have been teaching English, they have never been
asked to take part in those teaching seminars. Some of them went so far as
to say that in order to be sent to such seminars, or to be appointed to
in-service training in USA or Britain, one has to "mouiller la barbe."
That is, to pay something to one appointed to select.

My suggestions are that teachers should be trained yearly and that whenever the"BPES"organizes English teaching seminars, all English teachers should have equal apportunities to participate to these seminars. It is on such occasions that teachers could discuss problems they have in their English teaching. And this could be a good opportunity for the "BPES" staff to ask for new ideas and information about the kind of material which would be part of English syllabuses.

3.2.1.2. Frequent Controls and Tests.

During my personal discussion whith teachers of English I learned that they are reluctant to go in for the communicative teaching since they realize taht their English learners, while taking their national exams, are not tested on speaking. Almost all interviewees agree on the fact that they would be interested in training learners to develop spoken English if oral tests in English were given to students. Again, almost all the interviewees declare that the system of evaluation of both teachers (rarely by national inspectors) and learners constitutes, though indirectly, a hindrance to communicative English teaching. What they mean by this is that inspectors do not insist on communication. For instance, they require a written lesson plan from English teachers with a list of grammatical structures and vocabulary items to be learned by students in a set of lessons; they do not, for example, ask for preparations of drama exercises to assess teachers' enhancement of students' freer communication. Besides, teachers realize that, in national exams, their English learners are only tested on text comprehension, vocabulary, grammar and phonology.

As these teachers' remarks go, the solution to this problem is self-evident. While inspecting English teachers, national English inspectors

should assess English learners' oral skills, since the goal of the com-
municative language teaching is communicative competence or the ability
to use language in communication. It stands to reason that spoken English
must not be neglected. Spoken English does not necessaily mean reciting,
mimicry or producing formulae but also includes real conversation in which
roles are played and given to interactants. According to the majority of
teachers, national English texts and examinations should go beyond the
linguistic form to test oral skills and fluency, that is, beyond linguistic
competence. This would stimulate English teachers to go in for these
equally important language skills.

For the same reasons, inspectors should encourage teachers to
prepare yearly oral tests. In addition to these tests on spoken English,
they should observe teachers in classroom as frequently as possible, gather
useful remarks, discuss them with teachers after their lessons. And once
all remarks from all schools have been gathered, they should be synthetized
and sent back to teachers for the latter to amend their teaching, or to be
warned against repeating the same thing in the same way and improve their
teaching quality.

Another effective way to emphasize the method in its speaking
aspects is that the head of the English section in the BPES could use
public micro teaching which should be broadeasted as is done with primary
school teachers. On this occasion, the remarks and corrections talked about
above could be broadeasted.

In a few words, our argument is that national English inspectors
should adapt their way of assessing both Rwandan English learners and
teachers. Instead of evaluating teachers on the basis of a number of

language items (i.e. the knowledge about English language they have taught students), they should as well base their evaluation on how communicatively these items have been taught and how students are capable of using the items in everyday life conversation. The former type of evaluation of the English teaching in Rwanda should be revised and supplemented with tests on learners' real communication competence. But this type of evaluation requires teachers to have some freedom not to rigidly follow the pre-established English teaching programme which is said to be lengthy. They should be allowed to add materials which fit well in the new type of teaching.

3.2.1.3. Enhancing Professional Consciousness.

Teachers' motivation enhances their teaching abilities and professional consciousness. Language teaching is, in fact, a matter of motivation on the part of the teacher. That is why in he following lines, various aspects of how they could be motivated will be discussed. "Affective Factors in Second Language Learning" in Alatis (1981 : 122) Brown reveals six desires (needs) which make up an individual motivation. Two of them may illustrate our present discussion about the enhancement of teachers' professional consciousness, namely the need for stimulation - the need to be stimulated by the environment, by other people, or by ideas, thoughts, feelings, and the need for ego-enhancement, for the self to be known and to be accepted and approved of by others.

The preceding chapter has revealed that some teachers are not in favour of the communicative methodology because of a great deal of work it requires. A teacher who is not motivated in using a given method, as it is the case with above-mentioned approach, is not likely to have students who

are interested in his lessons. That is why the importance of the com-
municative method, as discussed earlier should be inculcated in all
Rwandan teachers.

The importance of the communicative approach, however, cannot
itself stimulate unwilling teachers. In addition to this, teachers need
to be interested in their career. This interest would be gained if Rwandan
teachers were granted privileges such as those of having decent accom-
modation, good salaries, occasions to pursue their studies. Talking about
factors which make a good teacher, Strevens (1977 : 30) regognizes the
existence and consequences of this problem in the following terms :

> Teaching can be for some people, a difficult and trying
> profession, ill-paid, poorly regarded in the community,
> frustrating, worrying. The teacher who views his job in
> this light is quite likely to deteriorate over the years
> in the standards he brings to the service of his pupils.

Many of the teachers with whom I talked told me that, as in many other
countries, the teaching career is not a rewarding one. For the case of
Rwanda, they realize that the biggest problem is not that of salaries;
they say that with their "small" salaries, they could subsist if they had
decent accommodation. They find the situation to be probably the worst,
frustrating for a newly appointed teacher who arrives at school and notices
that there are no rooms available, that the school is in shortage of houses
and that he has to pay his lodging himself without any contribution of the
school for which he comes to work.

In addition to their need of some privileges, teachers would
like to participate in the elaboration of syllabuses and curricula. Since
the teacher's activities are guided by a teaching programme, no one else is
fit to conceive and state its content to recommend teaching techniques :
he would neglect teachers' experience and knowledge. Therefore, teachers

should be present or consulted in the elaboration of syllabuses and curricula. That is, grammatical items, vocabulary and communicative activities to be included in the syllabus should reflect an account of various suggestions of English teachers. In this way, the syllabus would be said feasable; it would be, though indirectly the teachers' own production.

Any Rwandan English teacher should be aware of the fact that without his participation, teaching would fail and that he therefore must be a model. This requires of him to give proof of what Strevens (1977:71) calls "personal qualities", "technical abilities" and "professional under-standing." By "personal qualities", the author means among other things psychological attributes such as being intelligent and having a non-discouraging personality. By "technical abilities", he means ability to know his students' progress and difficulties in language and a creative familiarity with the syllabus and materials being used in classes. For example he may improve on them by looking for his own material. By "profes-sional understanding" Strevens alludes to the fact that the language teacher must be aware of trends, and developments in language teaching and to accept that it is his professional duty to go on improving his professional effectiveness throughout his teaching career (1977 : 71). What the author says matches my conviction that the English teacher's professional and technical abilities should be rightly and positively exploited. In other words, Rwandan English teachers could be asked to invent communicative exercises. Also, I propose that teachers who would invent genuine exrcises should be rewarded in order to encourage or stimulate every professional endeavour on the part of Rwandan English teachers. This practice would be in accordance with Brown's need for stimulation (Alatis 1981 : 122); every teacher would be "prompted" by activities in his environment and the need

for ego-enhancement since every teacher would be incited to produce the best in, let say, a game to be accepted and approved of by everybody in general and by his fellow English teachers in particular.

In brief, I can argue that for enhancing English teachers' professional consciousness and teaching qualities, they should be stimulated by being given privileges and being shown that their teaching profession is not less important than others in the development of the country. They should not think that all teaching materials always have to come from the "BPES" and that they have to limit themselves on textbooks written by foreign writers who may completely ignore the Rwandan learners' needs.

3.2.2. On the Learner's Improvement.

3.2.2.1. Real Friendship.

In the light of the communicative language teaching; I think that the student who leaves his family should feel at home in peer-group activities. This requires him to live together in a kind of friendship with people that he joins. What we should understand here by "Friendship" is what Revell (1979 : 10) has called "mood" or what may be called "climate of trust."

If we keep our term "Friendship" as a basic attitude, the learner's friendship should be both "vertical" and "horizontal", that is, contrary to the traditional belief, the learner should not feel remote from his teacher and classmates; he should feel as if he were among brothers, sisters because this will help him feel confident in what he says or does.

With regard to the student's relations with his teachers, many language teaching/learning theorists support that language learning proficiency of many language learners may be measured in direct proportion to their relationship with the teachers. This is expressed by Strevens (1977 : 45) in the following words :

> The progress of many learners is very sensitive to their relationships with teachers. Some learn equally well (or badly) no matter who the teacher is; some reach their optimum learning rate more readily with some teachers than with others; some find difficulty in relating to *any* teachers. And the degree of effect which the relationships have upon learning may itself change from one period of time to another: for example, adolescents are especially liable to strong emotional feelings towards or against particular teachers, and these feelings at that age have an inordinate effect upon the learner's achievement.

These lines show that the teacher's attitude toward his students is a determinant factor in his student's learning. Concerning the communicative English teaching, students should feel at ease in order to use English because if this is the case, they will know that if they express themselves with mistakes, they will be fatherly corrected. With such a kind of good hearted teachers, students involved in communicative exercises will realize that their activities have not been set to trap them into mistakes but to learn the language through its use. These students will have confidence in the teachers. In such conditions students, even the beginners will not fear to speak English.

In addition to what I have been saying about real friendship between students and teachers, when one talks about the real friendship in a communicative orientated classroom, one could directly think of the "horizontal" relationship. This is student-student relation because the prime goal of the approach is more getting students to talk to one another than establishing good relationships between the teachers and his students.

Concerning the relationship between learners, many are people who do not realize how such a real friendship is possible. Contrary to what most people may believe, not all games in small groups of students aim at competition among players as it was the case in traditional schools, where every student's activity resulted in a kind of competition. Some of activities in class aim at cooperation between English language learners. Rixon (1984 : 5) shows that some other games may be two-sided, that is, having competitive and cooperative characteristics. One can speak of cooperation among members of one team and competition when one team plays against another. Thus, I can reasonably speak of friendship among English language learners. According to Rixon, the kind of language use a teacher wishes to encourage may require him to make a choice between cooperation or competition depending on the relationship or friendship existing among the people who are involved in the game.

In so far, we have been arguing that friendship is desirable between students and the teacher or among learners. The friendship in a communicative classroom may also be understood as what Revell (1984 : 10) calls "Psychological preparation" which means the extraction of probable inhibitions a given student may feel in contact with new members.

As long as classroom members have not got into mood, to use again Revell's terminology, the need to communicate will constantly be "squeezed". Without a relaxed atmosphere, no natural need for talking (exchange information) will take place; language learners will feel reluctant to talk to the teacher and to each other, no matter how lively communicative exercises would be; each student will be afraid of being laughed at. According to Revell, the real friendship will occur only if the teacher builds up students' confidence by creating an atmosphere of trust in the classroom.

Since friendship is necessary among foreign language learners, the teacher should favour his students' confidence by getting the whole class become one group and above all by making his students feel that they belong to an English class. Besides, he had better become an active member of the group or a cooperator who enriches the group by providing new and fresh items or expressions. If he has to rearrange the classroom, he should make himself halped by them because this will create friendship between them and him. He will constantly have to put them in new places to cultivate or activate friendship among all of them.

3.2.2.2. Role-Plays or Pair-work.

Another drama-like classroom activity which was found very rare if not absent in many Rwandan English classrooms is Role-play. Still, this type of exercise is very helpful in communicative language teaching. It enormously aids learners to acquire communicative competence because the kind of language it involves simulates every day life language (see section 1.2.2.2.). For this reason, I suggest its adoption by Rwandan English teachers who, during our lesson observations did not use them and whose English learners have proved to have difficulties of expressing themselves. These teachers should incorporate role-playing into their learners' ability to express themselves.

Role-play activities may even be adapted from a dialogue every Rwandan English teacher is acquainted whith. Suppose that a teacher, while teaching a dialogue, asks his students to role-play a situation of, say, a student who comes late three successive times and who is sent for by the Headmaster. My suggestion would be that the teacher would first of all conduct his lesson in the usual way, that is, presenting the dialogue,

explaining the vocabulary and grammar points. After his classic teaching of dialogue, he could go back to the taught dialogue and review it with his pupils for good comprehension.

When the review shows that the dialogue is well understood and even enjoyed, the teacher could then divide the students into pairs or small groups of four. Then he would give other two or three possible situations on the board, and explain what language the learners might want to perform and ask them to extend the situation of the previous dialogue and permit them to cope with various and different situations.

The role of the teacher as students are preparing this exercise is that of a cooperator or animator; he helps the learners with the forms they are in need of; he might be going around to different pairs and answer the students' probable questions (again see section 1.2.2.2.). For such an activity, the teacher should ask learners who need his help to ask him questions in English.

After some ten minutes, the teacher would ask the groups, in the process of turn taking, to come in front of the rest of the class to enact their dialogue adaptations. In this type of exercise, the teacher will not to be surprised because some groups will produce something not very much different from the dialogue about the "principal and the student." He will also witness other cases of skilled students who will produce other totally different and more interesting dialogues.

In order to avoid the problem of participation on the part of the class, in such a kind of activity, the teacher could motivate his students positively by telling them that participation counts for their grading.

To call students' attention to what is being said, he may ask questions concerned with listening comprehensions after each newly presented dialogue. Or students can ask oral questions to each other.

Though I have suggested that a communicative orientated classroom should be characterized, by friendship between the teacher and his students, this amity among them does not necessarily mean that the teacher will not correct mistakes or errors. However, the teacher, while correcting his student's mistakes, has not to forget that when a learner is presenting his dialogue, his attention should be paid on getting across the message rather than on grammatical correctness. That is to say, stopping him to correct his pronunciation mistakes for instance could frustrate him. Trivial mistakes should be corrected after the presentation. A mistake of content should, however, be corrected right away. And if, during different presentation, there are mistakes the whole class needs to work on, the teacher might base one of his following leassons on them. Otherwise, comments on individual minor mistakes should be minimized. In short, intelligent and genuine role-play or dialogue adaptation constitute an indirect but excellent way of practicing and reinforcing structures and vocabulary appropriately; moreover, these activities develop fluency and speaking skills.

3.2.2.3. Dramatization

My interview with ten Rwandan English teachers has revealed another problem. They insist on writing and reading and seem to minimize the importance of speaking before an audience. It is likely that the more a student reads, the more information he stores; and the more he writes, the more information he locks in his writing. But why couldn't he be given an

occasion to express himself or share information with his peers verbally? As an appropriate technique to train students to express themselves, dramatization develops oral skills but requires a particular atmosphere. The ten English teachers I observed teaching asked their students to take roles (see section 1.2.2.2.), but it seemed to me that students did not feel at ease; they talked with no gestures, no facial expressions. What lacked in such classrooms was a relaxed atmosphere, undoubtedly because teachers make these students feel that they have no right to make mistakes. These teachers should not make students feel their (teachers') dictator-ship or power. They should instead remember they are there to help their students. With this remark I, again put forward the idea of "real friend-ship" between teacher and learners which should characterize all communic-ative English teaching.

The presence of a "climate of trust", is very important among students who perform roles. Our suggestion would then be that Rwandan English teachers ought to be realistic and human with their students in the sense that they should not expect them to be perfect speakers. These teachers should know that students are likely to make mistakes and, above all bear in mind that mistakes show that active language learning is taking place. Teachers should know that a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom is of vital importance and favours the acquisition of speaking skills that can be gained through dramatization activities. Furthermore, English teachers should encourage their pupils to develop their speaking potentialities by means of dramatization and favour relaxation in the class. This is summarized in A Vials (1975 : 159) "English Through Drama" as follows :

> The first thing—and one of the most important things—in creating a good play, and for learning or teaching English, is the

> right atmosphere in the classroom. If the atmosphere is one of
> tenseness and tightness, our bodies become tight and tense, and
> we are not able to concentrate properly on what we want to do.
> But when the atmosphere in the classroom is one of relaxation,
> happiness, fun, our whole bodies relax, and we are able to receive,
> we are able to learn.

The quotation above informs teachers that dramatization in a relaxed class-room develops learners' speaking akills, and much more.

3.2.4. Discussion Groups.

The last suggestion I would give here is that teachers who have not yet handled "discussion groups" technique in their English language teaching process should adopt the technique. Like any o ther effective type of communicative exercice, group discussion (see section 1.2.2.1.), constitutes another valuable means to get English learners use the target language in communication. Few are communicative activities which are as efficient as group discussion in helping learners to become more fluent and to acquire language. In discussion groups, each learner is exposed to his peers' language and every one is required to use English at least once. With this activity, as Magambo (1986 : 28) puts it, students, who are waiting for their turns to be asked or give their impressions on what is going on by asking question or by commenting on one or another idea, are asked to reveal their ideas.

In order to know the status of the communicative activities use in Rwanda, I asked my informants to tell me how frequently they used "discussion groups" to teach English. Some teachers left a blank in front of the question whereas others said that they never used "discussion groups" in their English language teaching process. Afterwards, I discovered that none of the ten teachers was actually using the thechnique. Few teachers

of them said that they took discussion groups as an outside classroom exercise. Other informed me that since the teacher in such activities has to play "aloof" in order to leave room to student's discussing among themselves, he does not like such a type of activity simply because nothing ensures him that his students in groups are using English and slips into the mother tongue may occur.

I personally was little convinced by those two arguments. Beginning with the former, it is worth pointing out that, in a communicative exercise, especially with beginners, what matters primarily is not the use of the target language, but the students' need to communicate, the natural impulse that makes them feel the excessive and irresistible need to exchange information regardless of the language by means of which they do it. That is to say that sometimes, in a communicative exercise, the natural use of some first language expressions cannot be seen as sin. A student who uses his mother tongue expression to convey an idea because he lacks the expression conveying the same idea in the target language is not to be condemned. He will not make it a habit because this would make him feel queer to be constantly using an "inappropriate" language when others try to find and actually use the filling expression; he will learn it from his fellow students.

As for some teachers' argument regarding "group discussion" as being only an extra-classroom activity, it can hardly be supported because there may be various situations students might be involved in and which could as well generate students' everyday life discussions. To illustrate this, a teacher could ask the formed group to discuss, for instance, about "what makes a good/bad teacher?" or "what makes a good/bad learner?" Definitely, such topics will make the liveliest discussions in class if

the teacher knows how to create a climate of relaxation in the classroom. Through in-class discussion, Rwandan English language larners would achieve a considerable degree of proficiency if, once again, the class-room is characterized by real friendship among all its members.

3.2.3. Problems of Materials

The present section discusses another serious problem regarding materials, an important requirement in language teaching/learning, and it at the same time proposes ways in which the problems of materials could be alleviated.

As a matter of fact, for students to achieve a certain amount of proficiency in a given language, they must have, at their disposal, an extensive range of various materials. Teachers must as well constantly refer to them in their teaching. According to the nature of teaching they adopt, materials should be adapted to the type of teaching. In connection with such a remark, my observation of some of the Rwandan communicative orientated classrooms has revealed that there is still a lot to be done to improve that type of teaching; with respect to this, teachers have evoked the problem of : inavailability of communicative exercises, inadequacy of directives and discrepancy between materials and time alloted to cover them.

To begin with, the view points about this problem of materials are inequally shared by the thirty Rwandan English teachers interviewed. Twenty-two teachers state that the poor quality of their communicative English teaching is due to the fact that the "BPES", English section, does not give them textbooks elaborated in the light of the communicative method; they say that it does not, for example, supply them with ready-made games,

dialogues, groupwork activities and the like. As for the eight remaining teachers, they realize that the "BPES" gives them textbooks with ready-made games, dialogues, group work activities. That is, the English section in the "BPES" gives them communicative English teaching materials. The latter category of teachers, however, complain that the games and dialogues although sufficient, are inappropriate; they always need adaptation. As for group work activities, they are insufficient, inappropriate and must be adapted.

The problem of insufficiency of communicative exercises raised by fifteen of my informants, in fact, resembles the one relating to inavailability of the communicative materials. These informants say that games, role-plays and group discussions are quasi-inexistent in their coursebooks, consequently in their English classes. If really they are not sent books with such activities, it is very problematic as far as communicative English teaching goes. These types of exercises are very important; they give English learners opportunities to practice speaking under conditions which are as close as possible to those of real communication, involving information gap, choice and feedback, to use Keith & Johnson's terminologies (1981 : 71).

The third problem which faces Rwandan English teachers constitutes actually another aspect of materials problem. Teachers point out not only that they lack enough communicative exercises but also that they are not given precise directives as to how to use the would-be materials. Twenty-four out of thirty teachers state that the "BPES" only mentions activities: games, dialogues, group work activities through coursebooks and curricula without giving any instructions about how these activities should be dealt with in the classroom. It is in connection with this that twenty-five of

the thirty English teachers said that the textbooks provided by the English section in the "BPES" do not at all conform to the communicative approach principles and objectives of the syllabus that they devise and impose upon them. To cope with problems of materials, there would be a collaboration between the "BPES" and teachers of English; "BPES" English staff should try to find adequate materials; English teachers should be creative and be given freedom in devising teaching materials and the "BPES" English staff should buy appropriate books and collaborate with English teachers to enrich appropriate materials.

3.2.3.1. Collaboration Between the "BPES" and Teachers.

It is not surprising to hear Rwandan secondary school English teachers complain they have problems in relation to communicative teaching materials, but it is worth a brief discussion because, at any rate, it should be seen how the question of materials should be solved so that the communicative English taching can go ahead and improve. The solution to the problem, contrary to what most teachers believe, is in their own hands and those of materials designers. Teachers and designers (or the "BPES" English section) have not only to adapt the available textbooks but also to choose, add and exchange adequate materials.

In New Orientations in the Teaching of English, Strevens (1977:27) is aware of this problem in language teaching; at the same time, he acknowledges the teacher's legitimate claim of materials when he states:

> It is a practical requirement of the LL/LT process that learners should have available to them an extensive range of different materials. And it follows from the nature of teaching that the teacher should be able to choose this material from among an even greater range. The only

practical way in which this can be brought about is by the existence of a massive industry of materials publishing, which in most countries relies on commercial firms. This is a difficult problem in countries whose educational budget is very small, and some such countries exercise various forms of restriction upon the availability of published materials from abroad. It is probably true, however, that there is a positive relation in any given country between effectiveness of teaching and the quantity of materials available to choose among. The bigger the choice, the more effective the teaching.

In fact, what Strevens remarks reflects well the actual problem of communicative teaching materials in this country; the national designers are in shortage of appropriate printed materials. Because of the limited economic means of the country, available materials should be "intelligently" exploited and adapted by the "BPES" English section and teachers. Both groups should feel directly concerned with the problem of appropriate materials. Moreover, teachers had better exchange available communicative materials.

To begin with, the problem of lack of communicative materials is to some extent inherent to the type of syllabus or curriculum the "BPES" English staff devises and gives out. Normally, in communicative language teaching, the learner's needs are taken into account. But in Rwanda, the English syllabuses for secondary school can be considered as what Alatis (1981 : 216) calls "institutional-centred" syllabuses according to which it is the government which determines the content of instruction. The "BPES", English section, without consulting neither learners nor teachers (who know best the students' needs and interests) elaborates coursebooks and imposes them to English teachers. This procedure gives, mor or less, a structural or traditional syllabus with the advent of the communicative approach, things have changed : the emphasis is put on the "learner-centredness" or rather the "learning-centredness" approach according to which second language teaching materials are made with respect to learners'

needs (interests). Needs are analyzed and transformed in to learning objectives. And as Alatis (1981 : 123) puts it, these needs are adjusted to time facilities, resources, achievability and the adjustement redifines the needs in order to formulate instructional content. With respect to such a consideration current Rwandan English syllabuses are structural, and thus the relevant materials are likely to cause a lot of problems to a communicative English teacher. That is why, the "BPES" staff and English teachers must collaborate to adapt English teaching materials.

3.2.3.2. Availability of Adequate Materials

The "BPES" English staff should try every thing in their power to give out materials. Saying this I do not ignore the hard and valuable work it does in providing coursebooks, but the latter, according to most teachers, are conceived in the light of the traditional method. The "BPES" office, wherever possible, should provide materials adapted to the communicative English teaching. For instance, in case of communicative games for pairs (Rixon 1984 : 107) students' different roles should be invented, adapted and kept separately in small envelops or card board folders and distributed in all Rwandan secondary schools where English is taught.

Twenty-four aout of thirty respondents told me that the "BPES" does not give them enough ready-made communicative games. To cope with the problem, the office should encourage teachers to use available communicative exercises and adapt non-communicatively orientated activities.

English teachers should profit from the wider experience of the members of the "BPES" section, considered the most enlightened on methods. Such an experience could give them knowledge of suitable communicative

teaching materials. The staff is in a position of selecting, evaluating and adapting materials in a sensible and systematic way. In so doing, they would provide secondary schools with materials which would inspire both teachers and students.

Besides the problem of structural syllabuses I have evoked in the above paragraphs, there are structural textbooks which in turn could lead English teachers to use artificial language in the classrooms. This is the case of the language I came across in some of the activities during my lesson observation. The language used there was unnatural and some of the situations dealt with were non-communicative and unrealistic. The appropriate materials the "BPES" can supply to English teachers would countrebalance this situation.

With regard to the "BPES" elaboration of adequate materials, what should count on the part of the office is not the number of books produced in a given amount of time but the communicativeness of exercises they use. They should, if need be, omit or reduce the number of inadequate books and concentrate their energies on the production of appropriate ones.

3.2.3.3. Teachers' Creativity and Freedom.

For most English teachers I conversed with, the common claim was that for the communicative English teaching to be improved, the "BPES" should supply them with adequate and appropriate materials. In fact their claim is sound in the sense that they recognize that the adequate or communicative materials are very useful in language teaching. This point leads me to the problem of materials adaptation. What English teachers should keep in mind is that the task of adaptating any given materials is

practically done by the teacher himself and not by the coursebook designer. The latter does not know particular or specific problems in each class. In this respect, the materials he produces should only be considered as raw material from which each teacher, according to his particular students' needs, should extract the language items his students are in need of. Cunningsworth (1987 : 66), clearly supports the issue defining the role of the coursebook as follows:

> The role of the coursebook can then be seen as that of an 'ideas bank', a source of practical examples of ideas for teaching particular topics and an inspiration which stimulates the teacher's own creative potential. The benefits of such a partnership between coursebook writer and teacher are considerable: the coursebook writer is no longer expected to do what he manifestly cannot do, which is to tailor the material to each individual class, and the teacher teaches in a more personal and creative fashion, with greater confidence and originality.

In these lines, the author alludes to the fact that the English teacher should have a great deal of inspiration and creativity. Aware of specific needs of his students, a good teacher critically examines the coursebook from which he extracts his teaching materials in order to achieve the objectives of his lessons.

While talking with English teachers I was willing to know what they did once the content of a textbook was in a sheer contradiction with their teaching objectives. Asked if, in such a case, they could drop the textbook from their teaching materials and look for a suitable one, some of my informants told me that this would be running a great deal of risks especially for classes which are to write national exams. Some others informed me it is what they are used to doing and others said they cannot dare dropping the textbook. For the communicative English teachers, however, it would be better if they were left with more room for liberty to orient their teaching in a suitable way. They should not be expected

to follow the predetermined syllabus word by word. And this would give them the opportunity to match materials with teaching objectives. It is only when Rwandan English teachers will have the freedom to delete some unfitting coursebooks that the communicative English teaching will be improved and likely to succeed.

Teachers should not, for instance, be asked to follow a textbook or coursebook the content of which is based on form rather than meaning of language, even if it is on the teaching programme. After all, it is known that teaching materials should be used as aids to the language teacher : "the best teacher is that who considers materials presented to him as a general guide, who takes pride in transcending those materials cannibalizing them improving of them, re-writing them, circumventing them reordering or even omitting them." (Strevens 1977 : 68)

According to Strevens (1977 : 31) the qualities of good and creative teachers should be ranked in terms of their reliance/unreliance on given materials. For him, the best teachers are those who rely rather little upon materials prepared by other people, often make their own improvement, and use the prescribed textbooks only as general guide. The poorest teachers are those who rely totally on the teaching materials, and whose effectiveness only depends on textbooks which meet the teaching objectives by chance. For more detailed information about the problem of English teaching materials, Cunningsworth's <u>Evaluating and Selecting EFL Teaching Materials</u> is an excellent document. For teachers who are interested in gaining insights into materials adaptation, chapter nine embodies a very helpful information.

3.2.3.4. Additional Materials.

In the foregoing section, as a general suggestion, I said that the "BPES" English staff, on account of their greater experience in language teaching, should try their best to produce appropriate course-books. In this section, I would like to suggest that, the staff should add other appropriate materials to these coursebooks. By adding materials, I mean to say that they have either to buy books conceive in the light of the communicative approach to English teaching or photocopy ready-made materials found in those books. Also, the staff should collaborate with all kinds of English teachers who could possibly provide the former with appropriate materials.

During my interviews with some of secondary school English teachers, I asked them if they had in their school shelves English Teaching Form series or books such as Revell's Teaching Tehniques for Communicative English; Norrish's Language Learners and their Errors; Widdowson's Teaching Language as Communication. Johnson and Morrow's Communication in the Classroom, to name just a few examples. The answer was that they did not know such books. Schools should therefore apply for such kinds of
communicative
useful documents about English teaching. They are full of information and communicative exercises.

The head of the "BPES" English section could buy the books mentioned in the previous paragraph since they exist, or it could get in constant touch with people who are acquainted with the approach and might find appropriate textbooks. For instance, it would consult the British Council representatives. In addition, teachers themselves would benefit from additional materials since they would be in touch with the "BPES" English section.

In case these textbooks become rare, the "BPES" should within
limits of its means reproduce exercises, and techniques found in those books,
and distribute them to secondary school English teachers all over the
country. Some teachers are complaining that they are not sent any of such
books. Moreover, students would profit from the collaboration between
the "BPES and secondary school teachers and the UNR English department on
finding, proposing and exchanging additional materials. For the
collaboration between the "BPES" and UNR English Department in particular,
the former would propose the type of methodology that should be applied in
secondary schools to UNR English Department so, this departement would
acquaint future English teachers with the new methodology.

In brief, Rwandan English teachers need appropriate materials in
addition to coursebooks. For this reason, the "BPES" English staff should
try to have such additional materials at hand so as to distribute them to
English teachers who would also profit from up-to-date information about
the communicative approach. Besides, always in collaboration with all
people who know the new approach as well as with UNR English Department,
the staff should propose to the latter what kind of methodology that
future English teachers should be trained to use. Thus, a close
collaboration particularly between the "BPES", English teachers and UNR
English Departemnt would propose the application of the new method.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was not only to analyze the status of the communicative approach in the teaching of English in Rwanda but also to propose to teachers possible solutions to the problems that they have in the application of the new method.

The study began with definitions of key concepts in communicative literature, namely communication, communicative approach, communicative competence, language usage/use. Then, after having described the history of the approach and shown the importance of the latter in the Rwandan teaching system, the major concern of the study has been of threefold. First, the reader was given access to English teachers' personal thinking about the communicative approach and its status in Rwanda. Second, with respect to "knowers" and "non-knowers" various cases of use or misuse of the approach were pointed out and analysed. Third, Rwandan English teachers, national institutions and all people concerned with English teaching in Rwanda were provided with useful information and suggestions about the actual application of the new method. To put it another way, conditions for optimal application of the communicative approach were discussed.

One aspect of Rwandan English teaching that has been revealed by the study is that not all English teachers in Rwanda who claim that they use the communicative approach actually use it and that some of those who think that they do not use it actually apply it in classroom. This contrast has become clear after several steps of investigation into the English teaching system. After examining responses to the questionnaire and attending some representative teachers classroom presentations, after interviewing teachers and confronting all information, it was possible to know whether or not a given teacher liked, used or enjoyed the communicative approach. Besides, it has been shown that there are some teaching techniques that teachers are "fond of" in their teaching, unaware of the fact that these techniques are traditionally orientated.

Other aspects made clear relate to the problems that impede Rwandan English teachers either to apply the new method or, simply, to be interested in the English language teaching. To the problem of unawareness, I have suggested that teachers' abilities could be developed by means of yearly in-service training or workshops. Thus, those who no longer use the communicative teaching should be adequately re-immersed in the theory and application of it. Likewise, those who do not know the method would have opportunities to learn about it. As for the case of laziness "dwelling" within some Rwandan English teachers, frequent control to check if they go in for the career should be a remedy to the detrimental situation.

And if laziness is really due to the fact that national English inspectors seem not to be concerned with the communicative side of language, it is advisable to find out a totally new way of evaluating teachers on the basis of their abilities to develop student's speaking skills for

instance. Furthermore, the teaching profession, which, according to many teachers, is not rewarding, should be promoted to motivate and encourage teachers. Helping these educators to work in good conditions would be one of the means which are likely to enhance their professional consciousness. This implies that there are many reasons to the so-called laziness one of which is lack of motivation, and that motivation directly or indirectly plays a big role in determining what an individual goes in for.

In addition to the preceding problems, the study has revealed that communicative English teaching in Rwanda is hampered by the lack of appropriate materials and for that reason it has been suggested that the "BPES" English section and the teachers themselves should supplement published textbooks with their own communicative materials. This is possible if the English section could encourage, through rewarding, all genuine inventions on the part of Rwandan English teachers. Also, it has been put forward that, beside the collaboration between Rwandan secondary school English teachers and the "BPES" staff, the latter should work hand in hand with the U.N.R. English Departement for the future English teachers' better efficiency.

These are some of major problems and solutions which have been discussed in this study with respect to the status of the communicative English teaching in Rwanda. Maybe some criticisms of the Rwandan English teaching system may have been harsh towards some of the users of the new approach, but this was inevitable. Actually, as my conviction goes, Rwandan English teachers are not likely to progress very far in their pedagogical experience if they are not awaken, so to speak; if their professional consciousness is not appealed to, and if their teaching techniques are not closely examined. Replacing one method by another, or leaving the

teaching system as it is without looking for means of improving it, would be detrimental to the whole system.

At last, it would be unfair to be pessimistic about English language teaching in Rwanda. As noticed by the reader, the communicative approach is variably used by some teachers in some shools. But its usage has not yet attained what can be called a common and systematized practice; it is only sporadically and episodically applied. In view of that, enhancing English teachers' professional consciousness, increased in-service teachers training, and the use of better communicative teaching materials constitute adequate means through which the application of the communicative approach could be developed in the Rwandan English teaching system.

APPENDIX A : QUESTIONNAIRE

N.B.: Even if you do not feel familiar with the communicative approach to English teaching, please feel at ease to say it and try to answer or give information asked for as objectively as possible.

1. IDENTIFICATION

   a) Name of school ....
   b) Where and when did you learn English?

                1- UNR from 19.. to 19..
                2- IPN from 19.. to 19..
                3- _____ from 19.. to 19..

   c) Qualifications

                1- Baccalaureat   /¯7
                2- Licence   /_7
                3- Others   /_7

2. a) Have you ever heard about the communicative approach to English teaching?   Yes /_7   No /_7
   b) Have you been trained in using the communicative approach to English teaching?   Yes /¯7   No /_7
   c) Do you use the communicative approach?   Yes /¯7   No /_7
   d) How often do you use

                1- The grammar-translation method: Always /_7 Sometimes /_7 Never /_/
                2- The direct method: Always /_7 Sometimes /_7 Never /_7
                E- The audiolingual method: Always /_7 Sometimes /_7 Never /_7
                4- The communicative approach: Always /_7 Sometimes /_7 Never /_7

e) How do you rank the Four (4) methods from the point of view of how enjoyable in your teaching they are? (The grammar t.method; direct method; audiolingual method; communicative approach.)

1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____

f) How much do you enjoy using.

    1- The direct method : very much /_/ not very much /__/ not at all /_/

    2- The grammar-translation method: very much /_/ not very much /_/ not at all /_/

    3- The communicative approach: very much /_/ not very much /_/ not at all /_/

    4. The audiolingual method : very much /_/ not very much /_/ not at all /_/

g) If you use the communicative method, how effective do you find it to be?

    very effective /_/ fairly effective /_/ not effective /_/

The Teaching of the Four Language Skills.

3- **Reading**

When you teach reading :

a) You select your reading passage to illustrate specific linguistic structures Yes /_/ No /_/

b) You ask your students to read aloud a) Yes /_/ No /_/ Sometimes /_/

c) You ask your students to read silently a) Yes /_/ No /_/ Sometimes /_/

d) You ask your students to understand every word

    Yes /_/ No /_/ Sometimes /_/

e) You ask your students to read for meaning

    Yes /_/ No /_/ Sometimes /_/

f) After reading a text which type of question do you give your students.

    (i) wh-question Yes /_/ No /_/ Sometimes /_/

    (ii) truth assessment question Yes /_/ No /_/ Sometimes /_/

    (iii) multiple choice question Yes /_/ No /_/ Sometimes /_/

4- **In the teaching of speaking**

a) Structural dialogues always teach rules of communication Yes /_/ No /_/

b) Much talking on the part of students leads automatically to
communication Yes ☐ No ☐

c) In dialogue teaching students must memorize what they have to say
Yes ☐ No ☐

5- <u>Writing</u>

When you teach writing you ask your students

a) (1) to compose isolated sentences Yes ☐ No ☐

(2) to write authentic sentences Yes ☐ No ☐

(3) to write about certain topics
with cue-words Yes ☐ No ☐

(4) to write sentences looking at pictures Yes ☐ No ☐

b) In a communicative writing you judge your students'
production (text) in terms of

(1) message conveyed Yes ☐ No ☐

(2) grammatical correctness Yes ☐ No ☐

(3) both (1) and (2). Yes ☐ No ☐

6- <u>Listening</u>

When you select your listening texts

(1) You want them to serve as a model for the students' own production
Yes ☐ No ☐

(2) You try to find texts which give students controlled and guided
experience Yes ☐ No ☐

<u>The frequency of use of Drama activities.</u>

7- Show how frequently you use each of the following

|	Frequently	Sometimes	Never
Games			
Dialogues			
Role-Plays			
Group discussion			
Group work activities			

APPENDIX B : TEST ON RWANDAN TEACHERS' KNOWLEDGE
ABOUT THE COMMUNICATIVE PRINCIPLES.

Instructions : Put "T" in the box before each statement to show your
judgement. "T" means "True" while "NT" means "Not True".

1. The communicative approach develops only oral skills while neglecting
   all others.
2. The communicative approach deals only with child-like activities,
   therefore it is innapropriate for adult learners.
3. During group-work activities and role-plays, teacher's authority is
   diminished.
4. It is important not to rebuke the student on account of his errors and
   negative comments should be minimized.
5. In code-control games (intented to check grammar) learners' responses
   are exclussively judged and evaluated by the teacher who, alone, is
   linguistically competent.
6. In communication games, when a linguistic problem occurs, the teacher
   should stop the game, quickly stard teaching or revising the linguistic
   point.
7. Games, group-work activities, role-plays and others alike should be
   adopted in teaching for communication because they drive students to
   use language.
8. With the communicative approach, the ability to read and write is less
   important than to speak and listen.
9. A good teacher of English :
   a) Asks students to avoid repetitions and false starts as they try to
      convey a message this results in both the student and the whole
      class wasting a lot of valuable time.
   b) Encourages students to talk while minimizing his talking time.
   c) In order to reduce students' mistakes must give controlled exercises.
10. The following exchanges between the Teacher and his pumil Emile embody
    information gap.
               T- Emile, what do you see on the desk?
               E- A book
               T- What do you have in your right hand?
               E- Oh! oh! A pencil.
11. Materials : when you select your English course material
    a) You think in terms of the ability to use language or particular
       areas of communication
    b) You think in terms of students' needs
    c) Among subject areas into which learners of English should be
       introduced, you may talk of
                1- Science and humanities
                2- Cultural topics.
12. Structural dialogues always teach rules of communication or ap-
    propriateness.
13. Much talk on the part of students leads automatically to communication
    in classroom.
14. In dialogue teaching, students must memorize what they have to say.
15. Communicative activities are possible only with small classes of
    advanced learners.

APPENDIX B : GRADING

	A-T	A-NT	B-T	B-NT	C-T	C-NT	D-T	D-NT	E-T	E-NT	F-T	F-NT	G-T	G-NT	H-T	H-NT	I-T	I-NT	J-T	J-NT
1.	—	✓		✓	✗					✓				✓		✓	✓			✓
2.	✗					✓								✓		✓	✗		✗	
3.	✗			✓	✗			✓	✓	✗	✗					✓		✓		✓
4.	✗			✓	✗			✓	✗	✓	✓			✓	✓		✓			
5.	✗				✗			✓	✗			✓		✓	✓			✓		✓
6.		✓		✓	✗		✗			✓		✓		✓	✗			✓		✓
7.	✓			✓		✓			✗	✓	✓		✓					✗		✗
8.	✗			✓		✗				✓		✓	✓	✗		✓		✗		
9.a	✗			✗	✗			✓		✓	✓			✓	✗			✓	✗	
b	✗			✗		✓	✗		✗	✓	✓			✓		✓		✓		
c	✗			✗	✗		✗		✗			✓		✗	✗		✗			
10.	✗			✗	✗			✓	✗			✓	✓	✗				✓		
11.a	✗			✓				✗	✗	✓	✓			✓		✓		✓		
b	✓			✓			✗		✗	✓	✓			✓		✓		✓		
c 1.		✗			✗				✗	✓		✗		✗		✗		✗		✗
2.	✓			✗			✗		✗	✓		✓		✓		✓		✓		✓
12.	✗			✗	✗		✗		✗			✓	✗			✓		✓		✓
13.	✗			✗	✗		✗		✗		✗		✗			✓		✓		✓
14.	✗			✗		✓		✓		✓	✓	✓		✓				✓		✓
15.	✗			✗	✗		✗		✗			✓		✓	✗					✓

| 5/20 | 4/20 | 7/20 | 7/20 | 6/20 | 14/20 | 15/20 | 15/20 | 14/20 | 14/20 |

MARKING AND GRADING

ME : CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

	A		B		C		D		E		F		G		H		I		J	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
with the statement of any operations																				
rm in English																				
d to any communicative task?	✓			x		x		x	✓			x		x	✓			x		x
warm up" offer his students interesting		x		x		x	✓		✓		✓		✓			x		x	✓	
to relax them and let them use language?		x		x		x		x		x		x	✓			x		x		x
learners given the reason of taking the	✓		✓			x														
roduce new language in context of appropriate		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x
istening) deal with everyday life experience?	✓			x	✓		✓		✓			x		x		x	✓		✓	
o read for meaning or silently?		x		x	✓		✓		✓		✓		✓			x		x		x
ed with truthassessment or multiple choice ing?	✓		✓		✓		✓		✓		✓		✓			x		x		x
o memorize words, structures or rules?		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x
ctivity in the teacher's teaching?	x			x		x	✓		✓			x		x		x		x	✓	
p learners when the latter make mistakes?	✓			x		x	✓			x		x	✓			x		x		x
each others?	x			x		x	✓		✓		✓		✓			x		x	✓	
tive to students' false strarts and y talk?	✓		✓			x		x		x		x		x	✓			x		x
se creatively language previously taught		x		x		x		x		x	✓		✓			x	✓		✓	
ist on fluency?	x			x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x
out topics with cue-words?		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x
municator with learners and does he minimize ents to talk?	✓			x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x
tion gap exercise in the teacher's teaching?		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x
ere to grammar and the textbook?		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x
k too much in class?		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x
	7/20		4/20		11/20		12/20		14/20		15/20		7/20		16/20		6/20		10/20	

NON-KNOWERS   KNOWERS

APPENDIX D

Schools From Which Information was Gotten.

1. Collège des Humanités Modernes de Nyanza
2. Collège du Christ-Roi
3. Collège de Gitwe
4. Collège de Kabgayi
5. Collège de Rwankeri
6. Ecole des Lettres de Gatovu
7. Ecole Sociale de Rambura
8. Ecole Normale Primaire de Nyanza
9. Ecole Normale Primaire Gacuba II
10. Ecole Normale Primaire de Nzige
11. Ecole des Sciences de Byimana
12. Ecole des Sciences de Musanze
13. Groupe Scolaire de Save
14. Groupe Scolaire de Byimana (filles)
15. Groupe Scolaire St André
16. Groupe Scolaire APACOPE
17. Groupe Scolaire de Rilima
18. Groupe Scolaire de Nyundo
19. Groupe Scolaire du Mont Kigali (APACE)
20. Groupe Scolaire Notre Dame de Citaux
21. Petit Seminaire de Nyundo
22. Petit Seminaire de Kabgayi.

Anglais au Secondaire
(Grille d'Août 1983)

	1ère	2ème	3ème	4ème	5ème	6ème	Total
01. Enseignement Agricole et Vétérinaire							
02. Enseignement Normal							
02.1. Enseignement Normal Primaire	–	3	2	1	1	2	9
02.2. Section Normal Technique	–	–	3	1	1	1	6
03. Enseignement des Sciences							
03.1. Section Mathamatique Physique	–	–	3	3	2	2	10
03.1.1. Option Statistique	–	–	3	3	2	2	10
03.2. Section Biologie-Chimie	–	–	3	3	2	2	10
03.4. Section Latin-Sciences	–	–	3	3	2	2	10
04. Enseignement des Lettres							
04.1. Section littéraire	–	5	5	5	4	4	23
04.1.1. Option Secrétariat	–	5	4	4	4	4	21
04.2. Section Latin Langues Modernes	5	5	5	5	5	4	23
05. Enseignement social							
05.1. Action sociale	–	–	2	2	2	2	8
05.2. Sciences du Travail	–	–	3	2	2	2	9
05.3. Communication Sociale	–	–	3	2	2	2	9
06. Enseignement d'Economie et Commerce							
06.1. Section Economique	–	5	5	4	3	3	20
06.2. Commerce et Comptabilité	–	5	4	4	2	2	17
07. Enseignement de Droit et d'Administration	–	3	3	2	2	2	12
08. Enseignement des Sciences de la santé							
08.1. Section des Assistants Médicaux	–	3	3	1	1	1	9

Anglais au Secondaire
(Grille d'Août 1983 continued)

	1ère	2ème	3ème	4ème	5ème	6ème	Total
08.2. Section des laborantins A2	-	3	3	2	1	1	9
09. Enseignement des Sciences Infirmieres							
09.1. Sestion des Infirmières A2	-	3	3	1	1	1	9
10. Enseignement de Nutrition et de Diététique	-	-	3	2	2	2	9
11. Enseignement Technique Enseignement d'Art							
11.1. Section Eléctronique A2	-	-	-	-	2	2	4

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