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Linguistic competence, Communicative Competence and Interactional Competence

¹Nishad Chathamkulam Abdulrahman, ²Emad A. S. Abu-Ayyash

¹Al Wasl University, Dubai, UAE

²The British University in Dubai, Dubai, UAE

nish62@hotmail.com, emad.ayyash@buid.ac.ae

Abstract

Linguistic competence, communicative competence, and interactional competence have had a profound impact on second language teaching, learning, and testing. Although a substantial number of studies have been conducted on these three competences, they have not been conflated for discussion in a single study. Adding this piece to the jigsaw, the current paper explores these three competences in depth. This paper had a twin purpose of 1) providing a historical account of the linguistic, communicative and interactional competences, and 2) reviewing of the literature on them in order to identify gaps, if any, with the intention to propose new research ideas pertinent to the three types of competences. In order to achieve the study aims, an intensive literature survey was conducted. Based on the review of the related research on linguistic, communicative and interactional competences, this article offers recommendations for effective classroom practice and future research.

Keyword(s): Linguistic competence, Communicative Competence, Interactional Competence, Competence-Related Literature, Gaps in Competence-Related Literature, Classroom Practice

1.0 Introduction

Three types of competences, namely linguistic competence, communicative competence and interactional competence, have had significant influence on second language teaching, learning and testing research and practice (Thornbury 2006; Young 2011). The theory of linguistic competence was proposed by Noam Chomsky, one of the most prominent linguists of the 20th century, and his theory revolutionized the arena of theoretical linguistics (Barman 2014). In its simplest form, linguistic competence is defined as the native speakers' ability to formulate "well-formed sentences" (Thornbury 2006, p. 37).

However, Chomsky's theory of linguistic competence was, quite naturally, called into question on a number of counts that will be discussed later. Dell Hymes introduced the theory of communicative competence (Young 2008). In line with Hymes's ideas, Saville-Troike (2003) states that communicative competence involves not only the knowledge of a language, but also what message to communicate to whom, and how to communicate it appropriately in any particular context, and that it also involves the socio-cultural knowledge that enables speakers to use and understand different speech forms.

On the heels of communicative competence came the notion of interactional competence which was first introduced by Claire Kramsch (Walsh 2012). Interactional competence takes the position that "abilities, actions, and activities" are not owned by a single individual participating in the process of communication, but are cooperatively constructed by everyone involved in the talk (Young 2013, p.17).

A range of articles have already discussed the three types of competences mentioned above (e.g. Bagaric & Djigunovic 2007; Barman 2014; Fauziati 2015; Kamiya 2006; Saleh 2003; Sun 2014; Taha & Reishaan 2008; Yano 2003). However, they only dealt with either one or two of them. Taking these efforts one step forward, the present paper addresses the three types of competences with the aim of providing 1) a historical account of

linguistic, communicative and interactional competences and 2) a critical review of the literature in order to identify gaps, if any, in the research on these three competences.

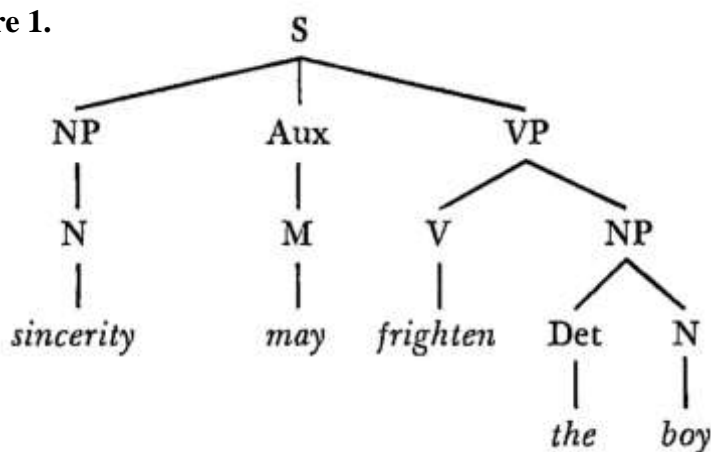
The current study espoused a literature survey method to review the studies done on linguistic, communicative and interactional competences. This paper will first discuss the three types of competences and related studies followed by a discussion on future research possibilities.

2.0. Linguistic, Communicative and Interactional Competences in Theory and Practice

2.1. Linguistic Competence

Noam Chomsky introduced his much-debated theory of generative grammar in 1957 (Taha & Reishaan 2008), and defined it as a set of rules that can be repeated to generate an indefinitely vast number of sentences with a clear structural description to each sentence (Tienson 1983). Figure 1 shows a tree diagram that represents Chomsky's structural description of sentences.

Figure 1.



(Chomsky 1965,

Few years later, Chomsky presented the notion of linguistic competence (Tienson 1983). Chomsky argued that "an ideal speaker-listener" has complete mastery of the language spoken in his or her speech community, and according to him, "every speaker of a language has mastered and internalized a generative grammar" that shows their knowledge of that particular language. (Chomsky 1965, pp. 3-8).

Chomsky makes a clear distinction between the notions of competence and performance. Competence refers to the native speakers' (ideal speaker-listeners') knowledge of the linguistic system (grammar) of their language (Canale & Swain 1980), while performance is seen as the actual language use (Chomsky 2006). However, he asserts that a number of different factors need to be taken into account in order to study the real language performance. One of these factors is the native speakers' competence (Chomsky 1965, p. 4). Therefore, Chomsky argues that the purpose of the linguistic theory is to explain the mental processes underlying the language use, and by this he means that the study of linguistics should be concerned with competence, not performance (Barman 2014).

As can be understood, Chomsky focuses solely on linguistic competence (Jordan 2004) that allows native speakers of a language to create well-formed sentence structures. However, linguistic competence cannot be seen as the only goal of language learning since the process of communication goes beyond the mere knowledge of creating well-structured sentences (Thornbury 2006).

2.1.1. Linguistic Competence: Related Studies

The studies done by Piyanto (2013) and Heidari and Alavi (2015) found moderate correlation between grammatical competence and the students' oral communication competence, while Wahyuni et al. (2015) observed a strong connection between linguistic (grammatical) competence and the participants' speaking ability. The study by Araki (2015) revealed that grammar does not hinder speaking performance.

Myhill et al.'s (2012) large scale mixed-methods study, Karimkhani's (2011) quantitative study, Jones et al.'s (2013) mixed-methods study, and Rajabi and Dezhkam's (2014) experimental study offer strong evidence of the potential advantages of teaching grammar in the context of writing. However, Huang's (2011) theoretical model research implied that there was no strong relationship between the grammatical knowledge and usage of this in writing.

Mokhtari and Thompson's quantitative (2006) and Akbari's (2014) qualitative studies found that the students' levels of syntactic awareness is significantly linked to their reading comprehension performance. Gascoigne's (2005) study also revealed that focus on form, grammar rules, spelling and punctuation is directly linked to the successful completion of gap-fill activities which are context-independent. However, López (2008), in her correlative study, came to the conclusion that grammatical competence alone is not enough to predict students' reading comprehension skills. Reader-related factors, the text, and the purpose of reading are key to successful reading comprehension. Murthy et al. (2017) found that the connection between the knowledge of syntax and reading comprehension may reflect the significance of memory and language, rather than a special connection between the two.

Liao's (2007) quantitative study recognized lexico-grammatical knowledge as an important predictor of L2 listening skill, whereas Oh (2016), in his quantitative research, suggests that a parsing ability may best predict listening as well as reading comprehension.

Effendi et al.'s (2017) mixed-methods study in Indonesia found that students are more comfortable with the deductive approach although they demand variety. However, Andrews et al.'s (2006) review claims that teaching of syntax has no effects on students' writing quality. Similarly, Yoon et al.'s (2004) qualitative case study revealed that students do not appreciate passive learning of grammar.

Pazaver and Wang's (2009) qualitative and Saaristo's (2015) quantitative findings revealed that all participants in their studies think that grammar is very important in language learning, while Tuan's (2017) quantitative study showed that linguistically competent students tend to speak or write confidently about a topic. Qualitative case studies done by Farrell and Lim (2005) and Phipps and Borg (2009) found that the teachers' principles of teaching grammar are not always aligned with their practices. Their instructional decisions are not only influenced by their beliefs but also by certain factors such as time.

2.2. Communicative Competence

2.2.1. Hymes's Model

Dell Hymes was one of the first linguists who criticized Chomsky's theory of competence (Kamiya 2006) arguing that Chomsky's perception of competence was insufficient to explain an individual's "language behavior as a whole" (Ohno 2006, p. 26). According to Hymes, someone's competence not only reflects their knowledge of language forms and structures, but also refers to the way they use language in real social situations (Young 2008). While maintaining Chomsky's notion of linguistic competence (Kamiya 2006), Hymes (1972) suggested four different ways of language use in social contexts, and they are:

1. What is formally possible with language

By formally possible, Hymes refers to the kind of social acts that will evoke a reply to someone's language use and cultural behavior. For example, someone might say "Oh you don't say it like that" as a response to a particular language use, and "Oh we don't do that sort of thing around here" as a reaction to a specific

cultural behavior. Formally impossible language use is considered ungrammatical, and a cultural behavior that is not formally possible is regarded as "uncultural" (Young 2008, p.95).

2. What is feasible

Hymes links what is feasible to psycholinguistic aspects of a speaker's ability, such as memory limitation and comprehension, to process the utterances that are formally possible either in the production or comprehension of language (Van Compernelle 2014). For example, in a pharmacy patient consultation context, due to memory limitation, it might not be feasible for a patient to repeat precisely the instructions the pharmacist has given to him or her. Likewise, the pharmacist may not find it feasible to diagnose the patient due to his lack of medical expertise to do so (Young 2008).

3. What is appropriate

Appropriateness can be seen as a relationship between a specific linguistic performance and its context perceived by participants in a communicative practice. Therefore, certain language use may or may not be appropriate for someone in a particular context. For example, many will not find it inappropriate when they hear a three-year-old scream "I Hate You Mommy!" at his mother when the mother refused to allow him to eat his candy (Young 2008, p. 96).

4. What is actually done

According to Hymes, there are probabilistic rules of language use that decide "which subset of formally possible, feasible and appropriate utterances" will be used by participants in a particular speech context (Van Compernelle 2014, p.34). For example, when participants consider certain linguistic actions to be "impossible, unfeasible, or inappropriate", those actions may actually be performed. Therefore, the notion of competence may comprise aspects participants might regard as prohibited (Young 2008, p. 96).

It is important to note that Hymes's primary focus was not language learning, but "language as social behavior" (Savignon 2002, p. 2). However, later on, the broader notion of communicative competence necessitated a reconsideration of existing goals of language teaching, which ultimately led to the development of communicative approach to language teaching (Thornbury 2006).

2.2.2. Canale and Swain's Model

Michael Canale and Merrill Swain built their version of communicative competence on Hymes's work, and their framework is useful to understand what knowledge and skills a person needs to acquire in order to communicate (Young 2011). Canale and Swain's (1980) framework includes three components: Grammatical Competence, socio linguistic competence and strategic competence. Grammatical competence consists of "knowledge of lexical items, rules of morphology, syntax, sentence grammar semantics, and phonology" (p. 29). Sociolinguistic competence is divided into two sets of rules: socio cultural rules of use and discourse rules. Sociocultural rules identify the ways in which utterances are produced and perceived appropriately in different sociocultural situations, whereas rules of discourse refer to "cohesion (grammatical link) and coherence, (appropriate combination of communicative functions)" of a combination of utterances (p. 30). The third one is strategic competence which contains both verbal and non-verbal strategies, such as paraphrase, repetition and guessing, employed by speakers in order to manage breakdowns in communication, and also "to enhance the effectiveness of communication" (Bagaric & Djigunovic 2007, p. 98).

With its simplicity and accessibility, Canale and Swain's framework has been popular in the field of English language teaching ever since it was introduced (Furkó 2016).

2.2.3. Bachman and Palmer's Model

Bachman suggested a new model of communicative competence called 'Communicative language ability'(CLA) in the late 1980s which was later slightly modified by Bachman and Palmer in the mid-1990s (Bagaric & Djigunovic 2007). CLA is made up of two important components: (1) language knowledge and (2) strategic competence. Language knowledge consists of two major parts: organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge. Organizational knowledge controls formal language structures in order to make or understand utterances or sentences that are grammatically acceptable (grammatical knowledge), and to organize these utterances or sentences into oral and written texts (textual knowledge). Bachman and Palmer's notion of grammatical knowledge matches well with Canale and Swain's grammatical competence (Kamiya 2006), whereas textual knowledge covers knowledge of cohesion and rhetorical organization. While knowledge of cohesion is involved in connecting sentences or utterances, knowledge of rhetorical organization helps with organizational development in written texts or talks (Bachman & Palmer 1996).

Bachman and Palmer (1996) divides pragmatic knowledge into two parts: Functional knowledge (illocutionary competence) and socio linguistic knowledge. Functional knowledge helps an individual to understand the discourse by connecting "utterances or sentences and texts to their meanings" and also to language users' intentions (p. 69). Functional knowledge comprises four types of language functions:

1. Ideational functions

These functions help language users to express or understand meanings based on their real world experience. Some examples of ideational functions include descriptions, classifications, explanations, and expressions of sorrow and anger.

2. Manipulative functions

These allow language users to use their language to affect the world around them. There are three types of manipulative functions: instrumental functions, regulatory function and interpersonal functions. Instrumental functions are used to have other people do things for the speaker, for example, requests and suggestions. Regulatory functions are performed to control the actions of others, for example, rules and regulations. Interpersonal relationships are for establishing, maintaining and changing interpersonal relationships, such as greetings, compliments and apologies.

3. Heuristic functions

These enable users of language to widen their knowledge of the world around them. Examples include language use for teaching and learning, solving problems and retaining information.

4. Imaginative functions

These functions allow language users "to create an imaginary world, or extend the world around them for humorous or esthetic purposes" (p. 70). Jokes and the use of figurative language and poetry are some of the examples of imaginative functions.

Sociolinguistic knowledge, on the other hand, enables language users to create or comprehend language suitable to a specific context. This requires the knowledge of conventions that determines proper use of "dialects, registers, idiomatic expressions, cultural references and figure of speech" (p. 70).

Bachman and Palmer sees strategic competence as a set of metacognitive strategies, and argues that apart from the language knowledge discussed above, language use also consists of "the user's topical knowledge and affective schemata" (p. 70). Three kinds of metacognitive strategies are identified by Bachman and Palmer (1996):

1. Goal setting

Goal setting involves recognizing a set of possible test tasks, selecting one or more of them, and deciding whether to complete them or not.

2. Assessment

Assessment is a method by which a language user relates his topical and language knowledge to “the language use setting and tasks” or to the testing environment and tasks (p. 71). Assessment also considers test takers’ affective reactions in the use of assessment strategies.

3. Planning

Planning includes taking decisions as to how to utilize both language and topical knowledge along with affective schemata to effectively complete the test task.

In summary, Bachman and Palmer’s model of communicative competence is multi-disciplinary and quite complex in nature. Moreover, it defines communicative competence in the contexts of language assessment rather than instruction (Furkó 2016).

2.2.4. Common European Framework for References’ (CEFR) Model

CEFR model of communicative competence is divided into three fundamental competences: (1) linguistic competence, (2) sociolinguistic competence and (3) pragmatic competence (North 2014). Each one of these competences is interpreted as knowledge of its content and the ability to use it. For example, Linguistic competence involves language users’ knowledge of and their ability to use different resources of language to develop well-structured messages, whereas sociolinguistic competence refers to knowledge and skills required for appropriate use of language in social situations (Bagaric & Djigunovic 2007). Pragmatic competence is subdivided into functional competence (e.g. production of language functions, speech acts) and discourse competence (cohesion and coherence).

Unlike the models discussed above, the CEFR model does not include strategic competence as a component of communicative competence. Instead, strategic competence focuses not only on compensating for breakdowns in communication, but also a wide variety of non-compensatory communication strategies. Other two differences are that the CEFR model separates sociolinguistics and pragmatics competences, and regards discourse competence as a part of pragmatic competence (Furkó 2016).

2.2.5. Communicative Competence: Related Studies

Al Alami’s (2014) experimental study suggests using literature as an effective way to improve the communicative competence of EFL students, whereas Buitrago Campo’s (2016) mixed-methods action research study recommends improving students’ communicative competence in English through the task-based learning approach. Similarly, Agbatogun’s (2013) Quasi experimental study found that ESL learners’ communicative competence can be improved by incorporating clickers into the classroom, and Pillar’s (2011) empirical study proposes video as an effective tool for teaching both receptive and productive skills, and recommends an integrative test to assess students’ communicative competence.

Ampatuan and Jose’s (2016) qualitative study suggests using role play as a communicative tool to assist students in developing their communicative competence, and Bang’s (2003) mixed-methods study found that drama activities can be used to create an interactive environment, in which students could experience how to use the target language naturally. Likewise, Catoto and San Jose’s (2016) qualitative phenomenal study found class reporting to be a beneficial strategy to enhance students’ communicative competence, self-confidence and soft skills. The findings of the quantitative research done by Sadeghi et al. (2017) highlight the importance of self-assessment and task based assessment in language learning to foster learner involvement.

Xue's (2013) qualitative study investigated Chinese international students' attitude to group work., and the results revealed that their involvement in group work had a positive impact on their communicative abilities. Safranji (2009) carried out a longitudinal study spanning over three years to investigate self-perceived communicative competence (SPCC) of Engineering students who were doing General English and English for specific purpose. The results revealed that the students were aware of their improved communicative competence.

Gómez Palacio's (2010) mixed-methods study suggests independent reading, storytelling, roleplaying, information gap activities and peer tutoring as effective strategies to improve ESL students' communicative competence, while Chesebro et al.'s (1992) large scale quantitative study found that academically at-risk students are more nervous about communicating with others, and the result of Nguyen and Le's (2012) qualitative study revealed that language tests do not always measure learners' communicative competence in the target language.

Alshwiah's (2015) compares two scoring scales, 'holistic' and 'correct sentence' and finds 'the 'correct sentence' scale is more appropriate when it comes to measuring students' grammatical competence, but it needs to be amended to score socio linguistic competence. While reviewing the teaching and assessment of oral language in western Australian secondary schools, Oliver et al. (2005) found that teachers did not have the skill to assess oral communication competence of their students, and therefore children did not feel that their future language needs were being met. The case study done by Furko and Monos (2013) found out that General Business English books in Hungary lacks sufficient examples of pragmatic markers. Therefore, they suggest teachers should be the sources of pragmatic markers for their students. Huang's (2010) study investigated different communicative strategies employed by university students in Taiwan. While message reduction and alternation were the most frequently used strategies, the least frequent one was the message abandonment strategy.

2.3. Interactional Competence

As discussed above, communicative competence provides a rich understanding of what an individual requires to know and do so as to establish an accurate, appropriate and effective communication in a second language. However, as opposed to the absolute focus of communicative competence theories on how one particular individual's knowledge and skills enable him or her to establish communication, some researchers, for example Kramsch (1986), put forward "a constructivist and practice-oriented" view of interaction and competence, known as interactional competence (Young 2013).

Interactional competence has been enunciated by different linguists under different terms. For example, Jacoby and Ochs in 1995 (cited in Young 2013) introduced the term "co-construction", while Hall named it "interactive practices" (Hall 1999). Tracy and Robles (2013) and Young (2011) used the term 'discursive practice' as an alternative to interactive practice. These co-constructed interactive or discursive practices are repeated episodes of interaction in social context, which are culturally and socially significant to "a community of speakers". Therefore, participants in a particular practice naturally have expectations about "what linguistic and nonverbal resources" (e.g. body language) their partners in communication use in the process of constructing the practice, and such expectations will help participants to understand different forms of talk in a practice with their conventional meanings. Misinterpretations will occur if "forms of talk do not meet" participants' expectations (Young 2011, p. 427).

When co-constructing interactive or discursive practices, participants not only add linguistic and pragmatic elements to the practice, but they also bring the following resources to it:

1. A knowledge of rhetorical scripts

This includes a sequence of speech acts used for specific communication purposes.

2. A knowledge of register

Participants in the talk may use specific lexis and structures of syntax appropriate for the context.

3. A knowledge of turn-taking

This involves how participants choose the next speaker, and take decisions to end one turn and begin the other.

4. A knowledge of topical organization

Since participants may prefer certain topics over others, and certain decision may need to be made as to who has the right to introduce and change a particular topic, and how long a topic continues to be discussed.

5. A knowledge of the appropriate participation framework

This includes ways in which participants in a practice assume roles and accept the roles of others.

6. A knowledge of different ways of signaling boundaries

This means how participants know when a practice begins and ends, and when they move from one practice to another.

7. A knowledge of repair

This refers to how speakers react to interactional issues in a particular practice (Young 2011 & 2013).

Other two additions to this list of interactional resources are alignment and multimodality. Alignment refers to "the set of conversational devices" that participants in a conversation use to establish a position in line with their conversation partners' message (Atkinson et al. 2007, cited in Tecedor 2016, p. 25). The major alignment moves speakers may produce are:

1. Acknowledgement

This indicates that interactants have received the message and are ready to continue.

2. Assessments

This refers to movements in which participants in a conversation assess the content of the previous turn and express their opinions or feelings.

3. Collaborative contributions

This involves speakers rephrasing the content of the previous turn to show that they are on the same page with their conversation partners, or to refocus the conversation.

4. Collaborative completions

This involves the listener adopting the interlocutors' point of view and predict his or her next move (Dings 2004; Ohta 2001, cited in Tecedor 2016, p.26).

Multimodality, on the other hand, is the coordinated use of nonverbal resources, such as gestures and gazes as well as "verbal and para-verbal channels, such as syntax and prosody" (Stivers and Sidness 2005, cited in Park 2017).

Interactional competence builds on the theories of linguistic and communicative competences. However, what clearly differentiates interactive competence from other two competences is Kramsch's (1986) view of inter-subjectivity. According to Kramsch, interactional competence "presupposes a shared internal context or sphere inter-subjectivity" (p. 367), which means that a participant in a talk is able to guess what is on his/her partner's mind. Establishing inter-subjectivity is essential for successful communication, and three conditions to establish inter-subjectivity are: (a) "the receiver should come to attend to the situation as intended by the sender, (b) the sender should know that the receiver is so doing, (c) the receiver should know that the sender knows that this is the case" (Young 2011, pp. 430-431). A basic difference between interactional competence and communicative competence is that while communicative competence focuses on an individual speaker's knowledge and skills to communicate in a social context, interactional competence is jointly constructed by all speakers involved in the communication process (Young 2013).

Almost all the studies done on interactional competence has focused entirely on spoken interaction. Written language does not play a significant role in contributing to interactional competence as spoken language does (Young 2011). However, interactional competence is regarded as an indispensable competence as this enables students to effectively participate in social interactions and perform well in their future work-life (Xiao 2016).

2.3.1. Interactional Competence: Related Studies

Barraja-Rohan's (2011) action research showed that the use of conversational analysis to teach interactional competence (IC) was effective for the participants of the study. May (2011) indicates a possibility of using nonlinguistic features of communication, e.g. body language, in IC assessment, and offer a basis for the development of a more accurate and thorough rating scale, while Sert and Walsh (2013) found that establishing acceptance through mutual gaze and turn allocation practices has interactional and pedagogical value.

Waring's (2013) conversational analytic study shows how to use unofficial lesson segments in order to socialize learners into the routine practices of everyday talk to optimize learning outcomes within the limited space of classroom. Another conversational analytic study by Can Daskin (2015) reveals that shaping learner contributions is an important indicator of classroom IC.

Butler and Zeng (2015) found that there were variations in patterns of interaction and characteristics as well as self-assessment behaviors in the fourth-and sixth-grade students' paired communication. Another study by Walsh (2003) provides a descriptive system that teachers can use to extend an understanding of the interactional processes taking place in their own classes. Theobald (2012) suggests that when viewed from an interactional perspective, video-simulated accounts are an effective method to provide the point of view of the children and further the competent child paradigm.

Pinnow and Chval's (2015) ethnographic study discovered that the positioning practices constituting the classroom interactional architecture are inseparably tangled with second language learner's access to classroom interactions, while Xiao's (2016) exploratory study informs that a large part of second language IC, especially relating to turn taking, repair and alignment, is not automatically transferred from first language IC.

Sert's (2009) study clearly shows that the use of TV series can be an invaluable resource for language teachers to develop their students' IC, whereas Kecskes et al.'s (2017) research indicates that non-native speakers' success in interacting with native speakers depends not only on their repertoire of socio-culturally appropriate practices and techniques but also on their knowledge of how interactions work.

Park's (2017) action research found that Multimodal behaviors such as gestures, gaze, postures, and facial expressions had critical impacts on learning, while Yagi's (2007) explorative study has shown that ESL students could learn through their frequent involvement in the same situated practice, even without any clear feedback from the researcher or the teacher.

All the studies reviewed above are qualitative in nature. However, the only quantitative study in this review (Tecedor's 2016) found that English native speakers who were in the initial phases of learning Spanish could express different degrees of alignment in conversations with a partner of a similar level of language proficiency.

3. Recommendations for classroom practice and future research

Based on the review of the studies done on linguistic, communicative and interactional competences, it can be understood that a number of studies (e.g. Mokhtari and Thompson 2006; Liao 2007; Myhill et al. 2012; Wahyuni et al. 2015) have found a strong correlation between linguistic (grammatical) competence and four important language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking skills. However, the empirical studies done on the impact of students' grammatical competence on their listening performance are very few. Therefore, more empirical studies need to be done in order to have a better understanding of how students' grammatical competence influences their listening skills. Furthermore, the effect of students' grammatical awareness on their performance in language proficiency tests, such as IELTS and TOEFL need to be investigated. Such studies may have implications for the classroom. For example, the findings of these studies may inform the teachers not only of specific grammatical knowledge their students require in order to successfully tackle both receptive (reading and listening) and productive (writing and speaking) skills assessed in a particular proficiency test, but also of different methods or approaches teachers need to teach grammar for this specific test.

Researchers may also need to investigate the possibility of using linguistic, communicative and interactional competences eclectically in the classroom. Each one of these competences has its own merits. For example, linguistic competence enables students to produce accurate spoken and written language (Hedge 2000), as well as helping them improve their receptive skills (Akbari's 2014; Liao 2007). Communicative competence, on the other hand, provides the knowledge and skills an individual speaker requires to communicate effectively (Young 2013), whereas interactional competence facilitates shared understanding and effective communication (Xiao 2016). Features of these three competences can be skillfully combined by teachers for better classroom instruction. For instance, in an intermediate English grammar lesson teaching 'past simple tense', a teacher can present the grammatical item deductively, in which the grammar rules are explained by the teacher (Thornbury 2006), and then to promote communication and interaction, he or she can employ an information gap activity in which students in pairs communicate with each other to find missing information (Hedge 2000) (see appendix 1). The teacher can also make use of unofficial lesson moments to socialize students into routine practices of everyday interaction (Waring 2013). A good example of such an activity is provided by Waring (2013), in which the teacher turns an informal inquiry (What's up?) into an official learning task of great interactional value (See appendix 2). It is worthwhile to investigate the effects of such an eclectic approach on students' communication skills as well.

4. Conclusion

Although Noam Chomsky revolutionized the linguistic world with his theory of linguistic competence, Hymes criticized Chomsky's theory arguing grammatical knowledge was not sufficient for effective communication, and introduced communicative competence. However, researchers such as Claire Kramsch proposed a constructivist and practice oriented view of interaction and competence called interactional competence which specified that abilities, actions and activities are not possessed by an individual, but co-constructed by all involved in the communication process. Based on the review of the related studies, the current descriptive study suggests that more research needs to be done to investigate the effects of students' grammatical knowledge on their listening skills and proficiency test performance. It also suggests that There is a need for research to understand the effect of an eclectic use of linguistic, communicative and interactional competences in the classroom on students' communication skills.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Taken from http://www.cal.org/caela/tools/program_development/elltoolkit/Part2-41Interaction&Communication.pdf

Sample II-27: Two-Way Information Gap Activity (Intermediate Level)

<p>Student A:</p> <p>Read the story to your partner. When you find a blank _____, ask your partner for help.</p> <p>The Pilgrims came from (1) _____. They came on the ship, the Mayflower, in the winter of (2) _____. Before these immigrants landed on shore at Plymouth Rock, they signed a document to form a simple government called the (3) _____.</p> <p>Listen to the story. Help your partner with words on the list.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Atlantic Ocean 2. Squanto 3. Massasoit <p>Now, take turns reading the entire story.</p>	<p>Student B:</p> <p>Listen to the story. Help your partner with words on the list.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. England 2. 1620 3. The Mayflower Compact <p>Read the story to your partner. When you find a blank _____, ask your partner for help.</p> <p>The Pilgrims had a difficult time because many were sick from crossing the (1) _____, the weather was very cold, and they had only a little food. Native Americans including (2) _____ and (3) _____ helped the immigrants by giving them food and advice.</p> <p>Now take turns reading the entire story.</p>
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(Adapted from the *REEP Adult ESL Curriculum*. Available from www.apsva.us/reep. Adapted with permission.)

Appendix 2

Taken from Waring, H. Z. (2013). 'How was your weekend?': developing the interactional competence in managing routine inquiries.

- 87 **T:** >let's see< Hir↑omi:.=
 88 **Hiromi:** =yes.-((raises hand))
 89 **T:** What's ↑u:p.-((checks in book))
 90 (1.0)-((H looks at T smiling))
 91 **Hiromi:** °what's up,°
 92 **T:** → What's ↑u:p.
 93 (0.2)
 94 **Hiromi:** °(syl syl)°?
 95 (0.2)
 96 **T:** .hhh what's ↑u:p.-((quick palm out and in))
 97 (1.0)-((T and H look at each other in smiles))
 98 **Hiromi:** °u:h°
 99 **T:** .hh EVERYone, here's a GOO:T QUESTIO:N.
 100 (0.2)
 101 LADIES AND GENTLEMEN, (0.5)
 102 >ladies and gentlemen,< everyone, good question.
 103 ((turns to write on BB))-right here.
 104 How do you answer this question. when
 105 someone asks it to y[ou.-((turns to class))]
 106 **Ana:** [Thank y]ou
 107 I'm fine.
 ((lines omitted where LL offer various guesses))
 148 **T:** So: >usually when someone says, what's up.<
 149 the u:sual > answer is< (.) ↑eh, not much,
 150 °not much,° O:R it could be (.) what's up.
 151 O↓::hhhhhh-((leans back and tilts body))
 152 [°I can tell you,°] [hahhehhehheh]
 153 **Sato:** [awh:::::::::::::] [>I can tell you.< hheh]
 154 **T:** Or-, {↑nothing special,-((scrunched up face
 155 and palm down shaking)) i:::s hhh (0.5)
 156 >some people< say it °but it's not as
 157 common a:s ((points to BB)) (syl syl syl).°
 158 → >So HIROMI, what's up.<
 159 (0.8)
 160 °↑u:h not much.°=
 161 =.hh PERFECT.>okay< and your intona:tion
 162 was perfect °(for that)° >it was perfect< .hhh
 163 how was your weekend.