

Chapter 2

Literature Review

This chapter describes literature relevant to the research purposes of this thesis. It is categorised into the following sections, task-based learning approach, drama, communicative competence, and related research. Each section elaborates information relevant for the research.

Task-based approach

Task-based learning approach has become a widely used teaching theory in recent years and is a popular methodology for student centred learning. The methodology is said to improve learners' interaction skills, encourage intrinsic motivation and promote learners' academic progress amongst other qualities (In-Jae Joen, 2005). It was first popularised by Prabhu whilst he was working with schools in Bangalore. Prabhu assumed that students were just as probable to learn a language if they were thinking about non-linguistic problems as if they were focused on certain language forms (Prabhu, 1987). Although Prabhu was credited with the adaptation of task-based learning it is thought the concept was born from British applied linguist David Wilkins, eleven years prior. Wilkins suggested two approaches to syllabus design, these being, synthetic and analytical (Wilkins, 1976). There is a lot of support of this methodology from scholars such as Nunan, Harmer, and Willis, as the students are free from language control as opposed to a traditional presentation, practise and production method (PPP) (Nunan, 1989; Harmer 2001; Willis, 2007). Willis refers to task-based learning as a reversal procedure to PPP methods, because the teacher gives the tasks to perform to the students and only when the tasks are finalised does the language get analysed and amendments made. However, she adds it is slightly more complex than this (Willis, 1994). Giyoto states that task-based learning appears to contain a variety of features that are helpful in the development of language proficiency (Giyoto 2007).

Task-based learning can increase student groups' motivation and interest (Robison, 2011) as well as increasing communicative competence in second language learners (Al-Olaimat, 2012). This methodology goes in conjunction with 21st century

teaching skills and collaborative work from pupils. It is reported that this methodology can hold and develop student interest (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2009). Furthermore, this could be beneficial to Thai students in lower and higher educational institutions. Al-Olaimat from the British University in Dubai conducted a research at the Vocational Education Centre in Abu Dhabi, UAE to test the effectiveness of task-based learning approach in teaching English as a second language which reported a 66% increase in student's confidence since task-based learning was introduced and an 84% belief from their teachers that confidence had improved by their students using this methodology (Al-Olaimat, 2012). A further study in Japan using task-based approach helped improve second language interaction according to researchers Millington and Thompson (Millington & Thompson, 2012).

Tasks have been defined in a multitude of ways appertaining to task-based learning. Ellis described tasks as having four main characteristics. These characteristics were identified by firstly, meaning or pragmatics. Secondly, tasks that will have some form of gap such as reasoning, information or opinion. Thirdly, people select the linguistic resources needed to finish the task. Finally, a task also has a clearly defined non-linguistic outcome (Ellis, 2003). Nunan defined task-based learning as an activity where students are encouraged to finish something or find a solution to a problem using their language without any set way to accomplish their goal (Nunan, 1989). Nunan proceeded to place tasks into two separate categories with "real-world or target tasks, which are communicative acts that we achieve through language in the world outside the classroom, and pedagogical tasks, which are carried out in the classroom" (Nunan, 2001). In more simplified terms, some teachers state that tasks can be the core of the lesson or project.

The word "tasks" have brought numerous definitions in educational circles. Prabhu preferred the word "tasks" instead of activities and this path of thought was echoed by Nunan (Nunan, 1989). Long is quite undefined in his definition of task but merely expresses that it is the numerous things that one participates in during their daily lives at work, play or in between (Long, 1985). Skehan adds further detail by stating a task is an activity where the meaning is primary and relative to the real world. Furthermore, Skehan described that the completion of tasks has significant importance and the evaluation of task performance is in terms of task outcome (Skehan, 1996). Nunan speaks of tasks as having goals and roles for teachers and learners alike.

Additionally stating that nearly everything can be used on the basis of a task such as news articles or dialogues (Nunan, 1989). Moreover, Nunan gives a more detailed explanation to the term by quoting "A task is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilising their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, middle and an end" (Nunan, 2006) Skehan set out five key characteristics of what a task should consist of. These characteristics were drawn from Skehan's own perceptions and that of fellow scholars (Skehan, 1998). Firstly he identified meaning as being primary. Secondly, he states "learners are not given other people's meaning to regurgitate," in simplistic terms, to repeat another's idea or meaning without truly understanding it. Thirdly, he quotes that "there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities." Fourthly, Skehan reports that task completion has some significance. Finally, according to Skehan, the measurements of the tasks are the terms of the outcome. (Skehan, 1998).

It could be argued that tasks will create their own language and create an opportunity for language acquisition which is probably the main objective behind task based learning. There will of course always be ambiguity and debate about meanings and definitions particularly with educators and language scholars. For the purpose of this research, the focus will be on the components of task-based approach under Willis's framework (Willis, 1996), rather than the individuality and divided opinions that define tasks.

It is considered that task-based learning has been in operation since 1987 from Prabhu's discovery. During that period since its fruition, task-based learning has been adopted and adapted by teachers and scholars alike. Scholarly advocates of task-based learning include Nunan, Long, Skehan, Ellis, Willis, Norris and Van der Branden. Willis exhibits a sequence of six stages to the task-based framework. The first step is the 'pre-task', next is the 'task' stage, then the 'planning', followed by the 'report' step, the fifth stage is 'analysis' and the final part of the process is 'practise'.

In the pre-task stage of task-based learning, the teacher explores the topic that the students should undertake. They may also add a limited amount of scaffolding

to assist students with phrases or guidelines to prime them into undertaking the task. In more powerful forms of task-based approach, the priming words and phrases are removed although the teacher may give an example of the task in hand by using a video clip, demonstration or picture for instance. The teacher may use some form of elicitation techniques to prompt the students into action or for ideas. The pre-task stage should be clear in its output and description in order for the students to stay within the bounds of the objective that is to be undertaken, pre-task instruction that is undefined in its aims maybe problematic and allow students to stray off the teachers' objectives, communication and interaction should be implemented in the finale of this segment.

At the task level, the students will perform in pairs or small groups whilst the teacher takes an observatory role from the background. The students may call upon the resources they have available to hand during this process. This part of TBL allows students to interact with their peers and offer constructive thoughts and opinions on which way the task will be done.

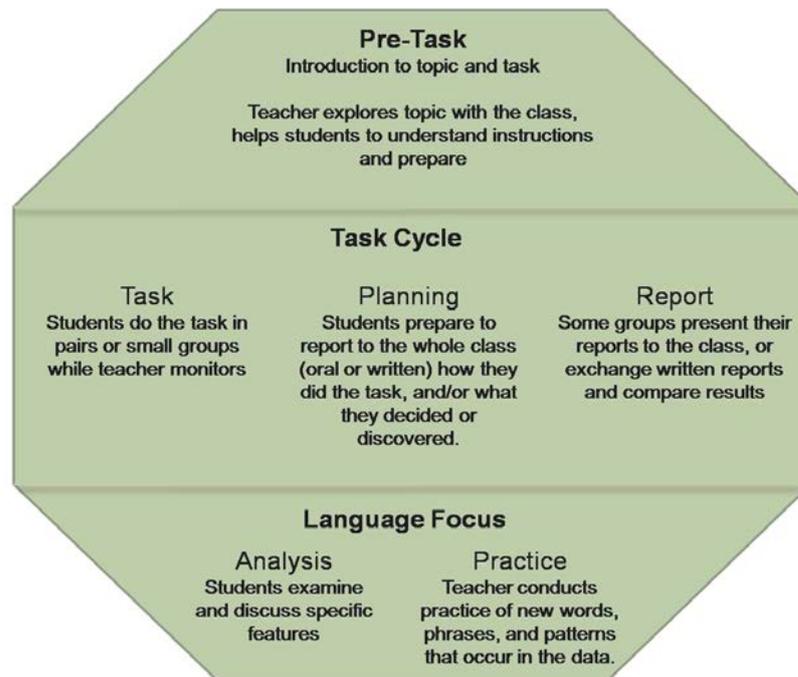
The planning cycle allows students to prepare how they will describe to the rest of the class what they did. This should be accomplished by using a productive skill such as speaking or via a written report but is only brief and is the layout of what they will say and not the actual process of saying or showing it. The planning process may bring a greater awareness to the students who participated in the task and the observers as to exactly what went on during the execution of the task. The teacher can be available in an advisory capacity should the students need any clarification on any questions they may have.

During the report stage the students present their prepared work from the planning stage to the class. The teacher may give a little input on the actual content of the task demonstrated and student report. Comparisons between other groups may also be included for analysis, observation or elicitation purposes.

Analysis is undertaken by the teacher to dissect the language used by the students in the process of the task. The teacher can highlight the language used during the report phase for analysis.

The final component of task based learning is practise, where the teacher selects areas of the language that conform to the student's needs and what is beneficial to them from the task and report phases. The students can then do practice activities to

enhance their confidence along with note making about certain beneficial language. There are many benefits to take from the final segment of TBL for both the teacher and students as it gives opportunities to construct and improve weak forms and develop the language they have gained to broader fields whilst the teachers can help identify and help certain needs of their students and give extra help and support.



Picture 2 Task based learning framework.

source : J.Willis, 1996.

The methodology of task-based learning has been used globally for some duration now with many scholars and educators supportive of the theory. Despite every learning theory being open to subjectivity, there is compelling evidence in research to support its usage in student centred classrooms such as those trying to be achieved within Thailand and other Asian countries. Such is the support for this methodology of teaching there is even a biennial international conference held purely on this theory which has been running since 2005. Martin East, speaker and author of task based pedagogy books expresses the dissemination and application of TBL around the world in places such as China, Thailand, France, Germany, Argentina and so forth but perhaps the most significant importance of the approach is that in New Zealand where it

has been included in the curriculum for learning languages. (Martin East, Task-Based Language Teaching from the Teachers' Perspective)

Giyoto states that task-based learning appears to contain a variety of features that are helpful in the development of language proficiency (Giyoto, 2007). The language may be presented in context through dialogues that can be relative to real life issues. Such texts could give students' models or patterns that can be used to develop utilitarian proficiency through role-taking and their interactive language practise activities.

Task-based learning can increase student groups' motivation and interest (Robison, 2011) as well as increasing communicative competence in second language learners (Al-Olaimat, 2012), this goes in conjunction with 21st century teaching skills and collaborative work from pupils. It is reported that this methodology can hold and develop student interest which could be beneficial to Thai students in lower and higher educational institutions (Dornyei, 2009; Ushioda . 2009). Al-Olaimat from the British University in Dubai conducted research at the Vocational Education Centre in Abu Dhabi, UAE to test the effectiveness of task- based learning approach in teaching English as a second language which reported a 66% increase in student's confidence since task-based learning was introduced and an 84% belief from their teachers that confidence had improved by their students using this methodology. A further study in Japan using task-based approach helped improve second language interaction according to researchers Millington and Thompson (Language Education in Asia, Volume 3, Issue 2, 2012). In conclusion, task-based learning is a six step procedure which is a particularly student centred methodology that is relatively new in language terms to Thai classrooms. TBL was chosen as a teaching methodology due to the freedom to create and generate language compared to some other methodologies that are more bound with restrictions for students to produce language in an EFL classroom. This research will follow Willis's concept of task-based learning for the lesson plans.

Drama

Drama in language terms can be a genre or a style of literature whereas role-play can be categorised to assume or act out a particular role. Role-play is a component of drama but drama consists of various other factors. Writer Alfred Hitchcock once said of drama that 'It is life with the dull parts left out.' Fellow writer and actor Ben

Kingsley famously spoke of drama being 'One of the greatest things drama can do, at its best, is to redefine the words we use every day such as love, home, family, loyalty and envy. Tragedy need not be a downer.' 'Drama in education is not either the school play or the improvisation workshop, it something far more central to development and social growth than entertainment, pastime or relaxation' according to Wilks (Wilks, 1973).

There are many benefits of using drama in English language teaching but perhaps even more so in EFL and ESL classrooms. Teaching English through drama sets a meaningful communicative context for listening and speaking and generates students to use their language resources necessary to foster their linguistic skills (Trivedi, 2013; Fabio, 2015). Drama creates opportunities for a student centred classroom which is fitting to the Thai government's stance in education. Experts believe that there are great benefits in using role-play and drama in foreign language classrooms (Dougill, 1987; Desiatova, 2009). However, it should not just be alienated to EFL and ESL classrooms, because there are benefits for native speakers too. The importance of drama in learning has been acknowledged and still remains as an integral part of the British curriculum. Drama may be channelled into certain sections; it can of course add pragmatic value that is reflective of real-life conversations although it can also be rhetorical and poetic that is more akin to an artistic form. The diversity of drama or role-play makes it a perfect tool for the language or second language teacher. Drama nurtures and sustains learners' motivation as it is fun and entertaining and because it engages feelings. It can provide a rich experience of language for the participants (Zafeiriadou, 2009). The use of drama can stimulate students' minds and imagination. Albert Einstein once stated the importance of imagination by saying it was more important than knowledge, as knowledge is limited but imagination encircles the world. The Arts Council in England has written extensively about drama and have identified aspects of drama from primary schools levels all the way through to post 16 year olds. Because of the significance of drama in England, many high schools employ a specialist drama teacher and it is one of the most popular art subjects with many students taking the subject to beyond GCSE levels. Drama makes a significant contribution to the development of thinking skills identified in the National Curriculum of the United Kingdom. Five skills were highlighted as follows (Drama in Schools, second edition)

- 1) Information-processing skills, e.g. sequencing and comparing.**
- 2) Reasoning skills, e.g. drawing inferences and making deductions.**
- 3) Enquiry skills, e.g. asking relevant questions and testing conclusions**
- 4) Creative thinking skills, e.g. generating and extending ideas, applying imagination and looking for alternative endings.**
- 5) Evaluation skills, e.g. judging the value of their own and others' work.**

All these five categories are employed and developed in the construction and execution of drama according to Baldwin (Baldwin, 2012).

There is an element of metacognition where students use reflection of their own thoughts. The National Curriculum in England identifies various parts that the compulsory subject of drama should include. The following text shows a contextualised version by the Arts Council appertaining to the national curriculum at the varying levels regarding speaking and listening. For Key Stage 1, the Arts Council expressed that for listening and speaking, pupils should have the ability to participate in a range of drama activities by having knowledge, skills and understanding in order to firstly, use language and actions to convey situations, characters and emotions. Secondly, create and sustain roles individually and when working with other pupils and thirdly, comment constructively on drama they have watched or in which they have participated. The array of activities should incorporate working in a role, presenting drama and stories to others such as narration and responding to performances. It could be argued that the framework installed by the Arts Council allows students to develop critical and analytical skills from a very early age while being engaged in drama tasks.

The Arts Council expands further in their Key Stage 2 framework for listening and speaking so pupils can participate in a wide range of drama activities and evaluate their own and others' contributions. Pupils should be taught the knowledge, skills and understanding to enable them to produce the tasks set for them. The council presents several components that pupils should be able to execute in drama. Firstly, the pupils can create, adapt and sustain roles, individually as well as in groups. Secondly, they should have the ability to use character, action and narrative skills to convey story themes as well as ideas in plays they concoct and script. Thirdly, pupils can

demonstrate dramatic techniques to explore character issues and finally, pupils can evaluate how well they and others have contributed to the overall effectiveness of performances. The council state that the range of drama activities should include improvisation and working in role, scripting and performing in plays and responding to performances.

Scholars have added favourable input as to why drama can be viewed as an alternative addition to learning a language. Maley and Duff stated “Much has changed in language teaching, but it is still true that the conviction that Vocabulary + Essential Structures =Language lies as the base of nearly every foreign language syllabus”, (Maley and Duff, 2006, page7). Hamilton and McLeod enthused about the benefits and relationship of drama and language teaching by stating “It is hard to imagine anything else that offers to language teachers such as wide variety of types of talks, for example monologues, paired speaking, role-plays, group discussions, reporting, talking in response to other stimuli, problem-solving, developing scenarios, acting out, etc.from explaining, complaining, praising, disagreeing to exhorting, apologising and requesting – there is no language function that drama is not capable of easily encompassing” (Hamilton and McLeod, 1993, page 2). There are still many teachers who dare not to use drama in the classroom as they may be afraid of losing respect by their directors or fellow colleagues (Krivkova, 2011). There is the probability that teachers fear variations to their methods and systems of teaching so they may not feel confident or experienced enough to incorporate drama into their lessons. Butterfield, though, encourages such teachers to attempt drama while presenting some of the undisputable benefits of drama. “Drama as a way of working is so unlike most other forms of learning that we must explore the nature of the concept itself. For a great many teachers, not to say students, it is an untried method of expression rarely used in education although extremely familiar through film, radio, television and theatre as it is through life itself. But those who have experienced good drama teaching can bear witness to its unique quality of integration, of holism, of communication and of a warm humanity which can elevate the learning of a language from a series of techniques to an understanding which embraces at once the language, its cultural setting and the emotions and values of the student,” (Butterfield, 1989, page 2). Wessels declares “Since the use of drama involves the formation of relationships and breaking down of barriers between teacher and students, less confident teachers are understandably

reluctant to use it,” (Wessels, 1987, page 14). However, from the researchers experience and observations as well as student feedback, there appears to be a very positive effect on learners who have experienced drama and role-play activities within the classroom.

Educator and educational author Harmer promotes the use of drama in teaching by stating drama gives students the chance to learn by doing “where students are involved in experimentation in order to arrive at knowledge,” (Harmer, 2007) which offers a refreshing change to traditional rote learning techniques that are widely practised across Thailand. Harmer additionally adds that teachers have observed that many quiet students speak more freely when they are playing a role and they do not have to be themselves, (Harmer, page 20) which is particularly relevant in Thai classrooms. Miccoli used drama as a key feature of her work with mature students and reported that drama was motivating and ‘provided transformative and emancipator learning experiences,’ (Miccoli, 2003,). Miccoli taught students numerous things in the process such as breathing and laughing and then by introducing emotions, action, gesture and physicalisation and finally the presentation stage with the inclusion of script writing. Drama has many benefits such as building student confidence, contextualising language, developing student’s empathy for characters, helping students to find solutions to problems as well as engaging them as whole people according to Almond (Almond, 2005). Maley and Duff favourably say that drama offers students the chance to be active rather than passive in the classroom thus reducing the chance of boredom that is frequently linked to teacher centred learning (Duff & Maley, 1982). Drama does not only promote active learning, but also the cognitive processes, such as memory development and better information retention according to Křivková from the Faculty of Education at Masaryk University in the Czech Republic (Křivková, 2011).

Drama of course is not limited to verbal utterances in people’s performances as the acts may appear in non-verbal forms too. Actions in any language can take numerous forms to highlight a thought or idea in order to project communication. Gregersen from the University of Northern Iowa reported that research implied that nonverbal communication plays an important role in second language communicative competence as well as bringing a multitude of activities to lessons (Gregerson, 2007). Such is the diversity of drama, it can assist in improving all aspects of English language

and the teacher can focus on one particular skill for further development. Drama is taught in the Faculty of Education at Cambridge University but the concentration of this course lies between the development of dramatic literature in its historical contexts and the practise of drama production, including theatre skills and dramatic writing. Ladousse said of drama and in particular role-play, "role play is one of a whole gamut of communicative techniques which develops fluency in language students, which promotes interaction in the classroom, and which increases motivation." He further stated it to be "perhaps the most flexible technique in the range" of communicative techniques (Ladousse, 2004). Whilst some teachers in Thailand may be brave about using fragments of drama such as role-play in their classroom, there appears to be some apprehension about using full-blown drama. To use a full lesson, series of lessons or in fact a course using drama appears to be a bridge too far for this moment in time despite the significance and importance it has in some other countries such as in England where it is part of the national curriculum. Drama can lead to classroom environments where student motivation and attitudes towards language learning can be enhanced (Charles and Kusanagi, 2006).

Not everyone is in agreement about the benefits of drama and role-play, some scholars argue about certain elements not being authentic. Richards observed that despite role-play is supposed to provide authentic situations for students to use language, the situations sometimes created were artificial and not relevant to the needs of the students. Furthermore, with so much activity both physical and verbal going on, it is sometimes difficult for the teacher to monitor a student's performance (Richards, 1985). There is the fear among teachers that the students are having too much fun, class disruption, and that no learning is taking place, a valid point in the classroom although it could be argued any student centred approach may be subjective in its assessment and control. A recent research by Fuentes reported scholars Richards and Roberts mention several disadvantages of using drama in the classroom, such as artificial language used whilst conducting drama, difficulties in the monitoring drama and possible frustrations from reserved students. However, these negativities maybe resolved by careful lesson planning, flexibility and teacher attitude according to Fuentes (Fuentes, 2010).

Drama has been recognised to a lesser degree in Thailand. At Pibulsongkram Rajabhat University and some other Rajabhat Universities it is part of the curriculum for English educational students. The course of language learning through drama has been running for several years with the optimism that students acquire various skills that can assist them in language learning and language teaching. The course description is as follows 'This course is designed to provide language training for students by having them act in dialogues, scenes, and plays. The course stresses the potential for using drama in language teaching; speech improvement is the purpose. Students will direct skits or scenes with their peers as well as games and activities with dramatic potential.' The students undergo a 16 week program with each weekly lesson set into four periods lasting fifty minutes per period. The students will learn and perform scripts and plays in both verbal and non-verbal forms.

To conclude, drama is a concoction of activities or deeds that allow students to produce verbal utterances and non verbal acts in a heterogeneous manner. For this research the students will write and perform acts under a task-based learning approach. The emphasis of drama is on the language and communication used during the process and not on the acting ability. The drama tasks will be performed by the students under a six step task-based framework and checked by the researcher using a rubric.

Communicative competence

It is clear that communication is an integral part of our daily lives and the power of speech is what distinguishes us from any other living thing. Communication can appear in various forms although speaking and listening are the first forms of language we learn. Communication in itself may be defined in a variety of ways with scholars adding their own perceptions as to its meaning. Hoben said "Communication is the verbal interchange of thought or idea," (Hoben, 1954). It was back in the 1970's when thoughts about the validity of testing language in relation to a person's communicative competence first came about. Losee wrote a full article in the Journal of Information, Communication and Library Science about communication with a defining title as "Communication Defined as Complementary Informative Processes" in order to give meaning to what communication is. Losee also argues that communication only takes place if information moves from the input to one process to the output from a

second process, the latter process being a reflection of the first process, (Losee, 1999). In this research, the focus remains on communication and the communicative competence of the population. Communicative competence is a way to measure a person's skills in language using four components in the process. The meaning of competence itself has been used in different ways by linguists and applied linguists. Stern defined competence in the same manner as proficiency (Stern, 1983), whilst in the same period Savignon perceived it as dynamic (Savignon, 1983). These thoughts differed greatly to that of generative-grammarian Chomsky who perceived competence as a state or product rather than an actual process, a view supported by Taylor (Chomsky, 1965, Taylor 1988). Krashen quotes as saying in a second language that there must be two distinct components of acquisition and learning for competence to happen (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). Those who can communicate successfully are considered as the ones who have communicative competence. Communicative competence has been defined in numerous ways by educational scholars from various fields which have led to differences in opinions. With changes of focus from grammar to communicative approach, second language teachers and researchers can see the notion of the communicative competence within language learning (Safriyani, 2009).

Communicative competence is a linguistic term accredited to Dell Hymes which was brought about by his opposition to Chomsky's linguistic competence. His notion was for speakers not only to form correct sentences but to use them at appropriate times. In simplistic terms it means competence to communicate. The emphasis of sociolinguist and ethnographer of communication Hymes was on but not solely sociolinguistic competence, (Byram, 1997) Chomsky was thought to of distinguished competence as the monolingual speaker-listener's knowledge of language and performance as the actual use of language in real situations. The debate as to which approach is superior in second language and foreign language learning still continues although most scholars agree Hymes model is preferable. Canale and Swaine originally defined communicative competence into three terms back in 1980 although Canale added a fourth component to its process three years later. Communicative competence defined by Canale included grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence and discourse competence (Canale, 1983). He created the model so people could use both knowledge and skill in using such knowledge when interacting in actual communication. All four components are essential

in measuring communicative competence and can not be measured independently according Savignon (Savignon, 1972, 1983, 1987). Spitzberg defined communication competence as "the ability to interact well with others" He expounded the term 'well' referring it to accuracy, clarity, comprehensibility, coherence, expertise, effectiveness and appropriateness," (Spitzberg, 1988). There are many perspectives from scholars as to what their interpretation of communicative competence is, Celce-Murcia et al adding input to Hymes original classification (Celce-Murcia, 1995), through to Bachman and Palmer having more language assessment in mind rather than language teaching (Bachman 1990, Palmer 1996). There will always be subjective viewpoints in defining terminology particularly in the fields of language teaching, learning and acquisition but for the purposes of this study the researcher used a segment of Canale's model appertaining to communicative competence which consists of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence and discourse competence.

Grammatical competence is of course more beneficial in the field of writing and has slightly less significance in the other productive task of speaking. Native speakers seldom speak in grammatically correct utterances all the time. Speaking is a natural process in real time situations as opposed to writing where the process is less instantaneous. Grammar in itself should not be just about rules; it should contain the three dimensions of form, meaning and use (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). Grammatical competence is not measured by merely stipulating a rule; it is about the usage of a rule in the interpretation, expression or negation of meaning (Savignon, 1972, 1983 & 1987).

Sociolinguistic competence in lay terms is the study of language in use. This component of communicative competence is an ideal tool in the measurement of speaking. People possess high levels of sociolinguistic competence in their own language but in ESL and EFL this is only attained in the higher levels. It is more difficult to know the appropriate language to use in each particular situation when the language is not our own native tongue due to cultural diversity and individuality. Schroeder simply states communicative competence is how to speak given the circumstances you are in, (Sociolinguistic Competence, Michael Canale & Merrill Swain).

Strategic competence is thought to be a necessary component for successful communication through language and makes up the third part of Canale's model for communicative competence. Canale and Swain identified that strategic

competence was a person's compensation for their lacking in some language area by verbal or non verbal means. (Canale & Swain, 1980) Firstly, Bachman and then later Bachman and Palmer refined strategic competence into three then four elements respectively (Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 1996). These four components consisted of assessment, goal setting, planning and execution.

This component of communicative competence is often neglected by educators in language teaching according to Dornyei and Thurrell. (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991). Strategic competence concerns the ability to express oneself in times of adversity or limited language knowledge. According to Thurrell, it is relative that students lack conversational skills or fluency due to the underdevelopment of strategic competence. Strategic competence is not just bound to EFL and ESL students; it is also used within native speakers. Certain occasions arise where a person using their own mother tongue can not find a word or phrase to use in a certain context so they will use their strategic competence to convey their message across. This substituted message could be in written, verbal or non verbal forms. For instance, a native speaker may forget the particular word they want to use during a speech act so they may use a synonym for verbal communication or a hand gestures for non verbal in order to complete the utterance. Gestations are a particularly effective example of how someone displays their strategic competence. Paribakht discovered that strategic competence in L1 is transferrable to L2 learning situations and implies that L2 learners have thus established a degree of strategic competence (Paribakht, 1985).

Discourse competence is the fourth part of communicative competence and is the use of words or utterances to exchange thoughts or ideas. There are alternative interpretations by scholars as to how they define discourse competence but the underlying notion is that of coherence and cohesion. Savignon explains that discourse competence is the concern of the interconnectedness of a group of utterances, written words or phrases to form a text that is meaningful in its entirety. Canale and Swain describe discourse competence as "the ability to use the spoken and written language in a meaningful way, to actually communicate ideas and understand what is being communicated in response," (Canale & Swain, 1980).

These four elements make up communicative competence in Canale's model for language assessment. This theory helps to measure a subject's knowledge and proficiency in their usage of a language. (Oxford Journal, volume 10, issue 2, 1989)

Despite all four components having an importance there is a general feeling among scholars and teachers of a second language that there is a shift towards sociolinguistics and discourse competence, in order to improve communication with less emphasis on grammatical competence. These thoughts are even echoed by grammarians such as Krashen in recent articles and presentations such as he voiced at the Language Acquisition Pagoda Academy. Nevertheless, there is support for teaching strategic competence (Paribakht, 1985). Communicative competence is a beneficial model for testing students within Asia due to the impact and popularisation of communicative language teaching. There are various notions as to what communicative competence is, but there appears to be an agreement that because of its complex nature not even some native speakers may achieve it (Furkó & Mónos, 2013). Testing and the measuring of a person's communicative competence may be open to controversy and some assessors may overlook paralinguistic behaviour despite its relevance in one being communicatively competent.

It is important to remember that learning words just alone in second language have no meaning unless they are constructed to be meaningful in the context. Only after this, can someone learn or obtain some degree of communicative competence. Nevertheless, it is possible to implement a meaningful conversation or dialogue using single word utterances by engaging a degree of strategic competence. In conclusion, a person's communicative competence may be adjudged in a multitude of ways depending on what particular aspect is to be focused on. In this study the participants will be tested on their drama production by using a component of Canale and Swain's definition of communicative competence, (Canale & Swain, 1980). The students for this research will be scrutinised and measured on their strategic competence.

Related researches

Ruso studied the influence of task based learning (TBL) on English foreign language classrooms. The researcher wanted to find solutions to certain problems within classrooms such as poor learner motivation by applying TBL. The participants for the study were 55 English foreign language students (EFL) and a Turkish teacher in the action research study. Ruso used varied data collection methods such as questionnaire, diaries and semi-structured interviews in order to conclude her findings. The results

from the study suggested that TBL approach in EFL classes creates variety for the students. It was reported that it enhanced their learning due to the activeness that TBL creates and it was said to have led to significant improvements to the student's language performance. The participants of the study further added that they disliked teacher centred lessons where they had little opportunities to express themselves in the English language (Ruso, 2007).

Krivkova wrote a diploma thesis on how to use drama in an English language class at Masaryk University in the faculty of education in Mexico. The participants were all teachers but had no previous experience about using drama in the classroom. The researcher's innovation was a workshop where the teachers took the role of being the students for the four day process. The 20 participants for the study endured 15 hours of activities over the 4 day period where discussion and analysis procedures were done after each activity. Krivkova had multiple objectives for the research such as awareness, analysis and discussion of drama education as well as the participants to be given a chance to express their imagination and develop their creativity and critical thinking while searching for solutions to given problems. The researcher used a pre- test questionnaire comprising of closed and semi closed ended questions for their research tool. The participants reported in the final questionnaire great benefits to the workshop, acquiring practical and useful knowledge that is beneficial to their teaching by the use of drama in their classrooms (Krivkova, 2011).

Savignon and Wang researched communicative language teaching in EFL contexts: Learner attitudes and perceptions. The research was carried out in Taiwan with 174 first year students from 2 universities in Taipei. The EFL participants for the research answered a questionnaire about their perceptions of the classroom practices they had experienced in secondary school as well as their beliefs about language learning in general. The researchers used a Lickert scale for the students to answer the 72 statements on the questionnaire. The data revealed overwhelmingly that communication, or meaning-based practice, was reportedly rare, with few, if any, interactive activities designed by teachers at their former high schools. In response to the measure of learner's attitudes the questionnaire highlighted that a majority of students expressing a dislike to form-focused instruction but a high regard for practices that engaged them in activities that were meaningful. The participants agreed with statements that learning English is to learn to use language but they disagreed with

statements such as 'learning English is learning its grammar rules' and 'I believe my English improves most quickly if I study and practice the grammar.' The researchers additionally say 'research has documented the difficulties in adopting a communication-based approach in many EFL contexts. Nonetheless, teaching for communicative competence appears to be the appropriate guiding principle of English pedagogy in settings such as Taiwan where learners and the society as a whole expect and value communicative skills,' (Savignon & Wang 2003).

Nakatani studied the effects of strategic competence by comparing 2 EFL groups. The first group received traditional communication training and the second group endured metacognitive training that incorporated communication strategy use. The research findings indicated that strategy training group had significantly higher oral communication test scores than those in the control group. Strategy training helped the EFL learners to negotiate meaning and sustain conversation flow (Nakatani, 2005). Canale's definition of strategic competence is the mastery of verbal and non verbal strategies to counterbalance breakdowns in communication as a consequence of inadequate competence or performance limitation and to enhance rhetorical effect of utterances (Canale, 1983).

To conclude, there appears to be great benefits to students and teachers who have undergone TBL lessons and drama. Drama appears to hold some important role for language development and may benefit Rajabhat students. Task-based learning and drama allows freedom for students to display communicative tasks and call upon their strategic competence when problems may arise. A development of strategic competence allows students to remain in conversation thus improving their confidence (Meenakshi, 2015).