Reasoning and Communicative Competence at University

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In this article, I consider Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell's (1995) seminal article on communicative competence from the perspective of a university teacher-researcher, examining it for strengths and weaknesses, and considering whether their five-competence model would benefit from the addition of further competences. The term used in the title of this paper is "reasoning". However, I do not consider reasoning as a competence in itself, but something that is spread across competences. Consequently the two new competences that I consider for the model are termed "critical competence" and "field competence".

The article is written from my perspective as a teacher-researcher, someone who is both involved in English language teaching and also in undertaking applied linguistics research. This creates the opportunity to consider frameworks and ideas developed in applied linguistics in light of the practice of English language teaching; one of the reasons for writing this article is to consider a useful framework of analysis that is both easily comprehensible by teachers in their everyday activities and sufficiently comprehensive to deal with the demands of English for both ESP and general language courses at university. The approach is similar to my article (Davies, 2011) described below.

BACKGROUND

In a previous article (Davies, 2011) on Widdowson's (1978) coherence and cohesion, I considered these ideas from the position of a teacher. In it, I argued that a focus on Austin's (1962) locutions and illocutions was different from a focus on Searle's (1969; 1979) propositions and illocutions. My argument was that searching for and defining Searle's "propositions" in discourse is difficult; although they can be used for setting up the idea of cohesion, it is much easier to look at what was actually said/written (Austin's "locution") and what the speaker/writer did or was trying to do when he/she produced the words (an illocution). For example, the locution "Can I open a window?" spoken by a student to a teacher in a classroom is a request for permission (illocution). Thinking about cohesion as the overt links in locutionary development is much simpler than looking for the links in propositional development. In a similar way to that article, I wish to consider communicative competence from the very practical perspective of teaching, and how it is and can be used.

Agonism

As I have noted in previous articles, my position is agonistic (Davies 2011; 2012), a belief that concepts and ideas do not necessarily fit into harmonious wholes, but may be rival and incompatible; the way we structure and conceptualize problems, and the decisions we take in doing this often emphasize particular values and processes, so that others are either overridden or ignored. This is in contrast to the classical Platonic view of a harmonious realm of forms, in which problems and errors occur due to our lack of ability to discern the objective structure of knowledge. However, if all we can hope for is a mass of conflicting and rival systems and models, why not just ignore them all and go with intuition, trial and error?

In answer to this, I would use a similar argument to that of the usefulness of maps. A map and what it represents are not the same thing. The map is made for a purpose, highlighting the features of the land, sea, air, or body that are most useful for that purpose. In this article, the focus is on Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell's model of communicative competence. This is a model, and the question to ask is whether it is useful, and if so, how is it useful? Also, what do we mean when we talk about a model?

Models of Language Use

In terms of purposes, Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell wrote their paper "to inform work currently being done in language teaching curriculum design, materials development and communicative language testing" (p. 7). It is important to note that there are three purposes here, but an important omission in relation to pedagogy – teacher decision-making, which has a major effect on what happens in classrooms. Consequently, I wish to consider the model mainly in relation to this purpose. A further point is that the model is an analysis or reflection on language. Steiner (1998) notes "there is an inescapable ontological autism, a proceeding inside a circle of mirrors, in any conscious reflection on (reflection of) language" (p.110). We are using language to reflect on language, so that I would argue that there is an unavoidable incompleteness in such models.

"Model" is the term that Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell specifically use, so that I also use it in the article. However, if they had not done so, my preferred term would be "framework", the term used by Kumaravadivelu (2009). Another term, used by Widdowson (2003), is "scheme". The reason for my wariness is that "model" is often used in relation to calculations and predictions that can be made from computer programs. For example, physicists and economists often use models in this way. I am analysing the article from the point of view of a teacher, who has to make decisions on what to teach and how to teach. In considering the complexity of language used in communication, how do the main categories, the five competences, aid in this process? In what way is the model strong for such a purpose and where is it weak?

Towards an Approach rather than a Method

A further point to note is that the argument in this article is made more from the perspective of an approach rather than a method. The issue of methods and approaches is a complex one, which deserves an article in its own right; a variety of writers have explored it (Antony, 1963; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Kumaravadivelu, 2009). Given the limitations of space in this article, working definitions are needed, and I define approaches and methods in the following paragraphs.

I define an approach as one in which conceptual understandings of language and language learning are used to analyse and put together classroom techniques and procedures for the purposes of language learning in a wide variety of ways, an example being Communicative Language Teaching. In contrast, followers of a method are likely to regard conceptualizations and values as more settled, prioritize certain classroom techniques and procedures, and organise them in a particular way in classroom practice, so that there is a communal judgement of what should be done in the classroom. Examples of methods are the Bangalore Project (Prabhu, 1987) with its "pre-task" and "task" classroom procedures, and Structural-Oral-Situational

language teaching (Prabhu, 1987), with its stages of presentation, practice, and production. As I have noted, my position is agonistic, so that I do not accept that conceptual understandings are fixed or settled. Rather areas of debate about language and language learning emerge, and are defined and discussed, creating a range of ideas that establish the area. Different teachers may place different emphasis on educational values and pedagogic conceptualizations emerging in this process, leading them to select and organize classroom techniques and procedures in particular ways. Those who follow an approach can identify which techniques they use, and justify why they use them with reference to the values and conceptualizations which they hold, knowing why they hold them. There is no reason to expect that colleagues will create the same type of classes, but it is reasonable to expect them to be able to explain and justify what they do in light of the more overarching principles that they hold.

Research Questions

This background informs the structure of the article. Prior to the discussion section, I outline the model and some of the main criticisms of it. In the discussion section, I consider the following questions:

- 1. Are the relationships between the components of the model adequately represented?
- 2. What is its relevance to teacher decision-making?
- 3. Is the model sufficient for the purposes of English language teachers working at universities?

CELCE-MURCIA, DORNYEI AND THURRELL'S FIVE COMPETENCE MODEL

In their article, Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell (1995) build primarily on the work of Canale and Swain (1980), which they note was further elaborated by Canale (1983). Canale and Swain's model contained three components: grammatical competence, strategic competence, and sociocultural competence. This was then extended into a four-component model with a narrowing of the definition of sociocultural competence and the addition of discourse competence. Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell also redefine sociocultural competence to accommodate a new component in the model: actional competence. Their definitions of the five components are listed in Table 1. Having established their categories, they define the relationship between the competences diagrammatically, and go on to list some of the components of each competence.

TABLE 1. Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell's Definitions of the Components

Discourse competence

... concerns the selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures, sentences and utterances to achieve a unified or spoken written text. (p. 13)

Linguistic competence

... comprises the basic elements of communication: the sentence patterns and types, the constituent structure, the morphological inflections, and the lexical resources, as well as the phonological systems needed to realize communication as speech or writing. (p.2)

Actional competence

... is defined as competence in conveying and understanding communicative intent, that is, matching actional intent with linguistic form based on the knowledge of an inventory of verbal schemata that carry illocutionary force. (p.17)

Sociocultural competence

... refers to the speaker's knowledge of how to express messages appropriately within the overall social and cultural context of communication in accordance with the pragmatic factors related to variation in language use. (p.23)

Strategic competence

... (is) competence as knowledge of communication strategies and how to use them. (p.26)

Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell consider the relationship between the components, illustrating it diagrammatically and describing it as a pyramid enclosing a circle and surrounded by another circle (Figure 1). There appears to be a hierarchical relationship between discourse competence and three other competences: linguistic, sociocultural, and actional. It also appears to be dialectical, with discourse competence influencing and being influenced by the other three.



FIGURE 1. Schematic Representation of Communicative Competence (Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrell, 1995)

While visually powerful, the diagram seems ambiguous. Discourse competence is at the centre of things, but is also contained within a triangle, which contains sociocultural, actional and linguistic competence at its points. The triangle appears to be sitting on the larger, slowly rotating circle of strategic competence. However, the authors explain this in the following way:

Thus our construct places the discourse component in a position where the lexico-grammatical building blocks, the actional organizing skills of communicative intent, and the sociocultural context come together to shape the discourse, which in turn also shapes each of the other three components. The circle surrounding the pyramid represents *strategic competence*, an ever-present, potentially usable inventory of skills that allows a strategically competent speaker to negotiate messages and resolve problems or to compensate for deficiencies in any of the underlying competencies. (p.9).

Criticisms of the Model

Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell's model is built on the foundations of the Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) models and is open to the same criticisms as these, which are summarised by Kumaravadivelu (2009), who cites Skehan and Widdowson as language teaching experts, with Bachman and Shohamy as testing experts. Kumaravadivelu consolidates the criticisms in the following way: "The major drawback of the framework is that the four competencies conceptually overlap and that the interdependencies among them are not at all apparent" (p.18). He also cites Taylor's (1988) comment that, in relation to strategic competence, the authors fail "to distinguish between knowledge and ability, or rather they incorporate both, and on the other hand they do not distinguish between those strategies which all speakers have, both native and non-native, and those which are peculiar to non-native speakers" (p.18).

DISCUSSION

Some of the strongest criticisms of the model are on the basis of discrete categories, so that there is no overlap between the five competences. In relation to discourse, the problem can be illustrated in terms of Widdowson's (1978) ideas on coherence and cohesion. Widdowson uses Austin's and Searle's concepts to consider longer stretches of language than the individual sentences that Austin favoured. Widdowson examines what he describes as links between propositional content and links between illocutions. However, in the Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell model, illocutions, which appear in the form of functions (suggesting, requesting, apologising, etc), are allocated to actional competence, and so separated from propositions which are allocated to discourse competence. Given that Widdowson's ideas on discourse focus on illocutionary links in the form of coherence and propositional links in the form of cohesion, there are clearly problems in making this demarcation. The way the model is presented makes it seem atomistic, with a set of elements listed for respective competences. This problem may be due to the use of the term "model". If there are discrete categories, in theory perhaps we could "model" the sentences using some form of linguistic calculus: Identify the action/function, apply a sociocultural process, whereby the correct language form is selected, and choose the right discourse schemata. The result should be an example of communicative competence.

One response to the powerful criticism of demarcated competences above is to accept that the competences are not discrete categories but do overlap, with the model accommodating the overlap. In this case, terms such as *both/and* would replace *either/or*. For example, an item may be both relevant to discourse competence and actional competence rather than relevant to either discourse competence or actional competence. One of the key problems then concerns the conception of discourse.

Discourse

As noted in the previous section, it is very difficult to separate illocutions from discourse. Kumaravadivelu (2009) cites Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), who argue that discourse competence forms "the core" of the Canale and Swain framework because it "is where everything else comes together: It is in discourse and through discourse that all of the other competencies are realized" (Kumaravadivelu, 2009, p. 18). One problem with the model is the ambiguity of the term "discourse", because from an intuitive point of view discourse competence sounds remarkably close to communicative competence itself, and this may be one reason why Widdowson is critical of the model. Although discourse can be short, discourse competence is generally about being able to produce long stretches of language appropriately. In this sense discourse competence embraces the other competencies. This is made clear in the quotation above, but is not clear in the schematic representation. Rather than being at the centre of things as some kind of nodal point, discourse competence is more of an all-embracing competence. However, in their schematic representation, Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell place strategic competence at the outer circle. What exactly is this competence?

Strategic Competence

Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell conceptualize "strategic competence" as knowledge of communication strategies and how to use them. However, it is worth considering whether the term "strategy" in applied linguistics connects with a general English understanding of the term. From a general usage point of view, the items listed as strategies might best be described less grandly as tactics. Strategic competence, as defined in the model appears to be a range of tactics designed to overcome some basic breakdowns in understanding or conveying messages. Examples given include approximation, all-purpose words, and restructuring. Conceptually, these strategies seem to be a sub-set of actional competence. They are about taking action in the event of a communicative breakdown. While they are an important part of actional competence and from a language learning perspective, seem to deserve a competence of their own, they are simply actions oriented towards making messages clear. Consequently they are more likely to fall within discourse competence.

An Alternative Schematic Representation of Communicative Competence

If discourse is given a more all-embracing quality rather than some specific higher function, communicative competence might be represented in Figure 2 below. In this case the other competences are contained within it, but some of discourse competence falls outside the other competences, and is represented in the list of items for the suggested components of discourse competence in the article; actional competence forms part of discourse competence, so that illocutions are part of the more overarching concept of discourse.

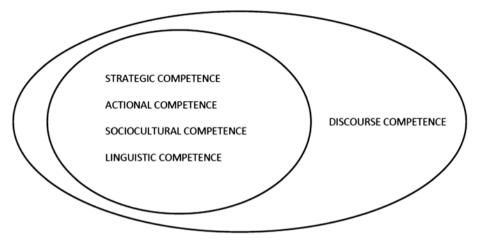


FIGURE 2. Overlapping Representation of Communicative Competence

The Model from a Teacher's Perspective

As noted earlier, my main interests is the use of the model in teacher decision-making. This relates to decisions taken both inside and outside the classroom, linking to Schon's (1983) reflection in action and reflection on action. Consider the following imaginary conversation:

Student: Excuse me, Mr Davies.
Teacher: Yes, what is it?
Student: It's very hot and humid in here.
Teacher: OK, I'll sort it out.
Student: Pardon?
Teacher: I guess I can open some windows.
Student: Actually, it's very hot and humid outside, too.
Teacher: Oh, OK. I'll turn on the air-conditioner.
Student : Thank you.
Teacher: No problem.

If we examine the student's utterances in relation to the five competences, we can see that from a linguistic point of view, the dialogue takes place in accurate standard English; from a sociocultural point of view the language is appropriate; the student demonstrates actional competence by getting the teacher to make a decision to switch on the air-conditioner. The student also demonstrates discourse competence in the form of turn-taking, cohesion and coherence, and strategic competence by getting the teacher to clarify his intentions. This could be contrasted with the following dialogue, in which the student lacks sociocultural competence:

Student: Hey!
Teacher: Yes, what is it?
Student: It's very hot and humid.
Teacher: OK, I'll sort it out.
Student: What?
Teacher: I guess I can open some windows.
Student: No, it's very hot and humid outside.
Teacher: Oh, OK. I'll turn on the air-conditioner.
Student : Do that.

From a teacher decision-making perspective, the value of the model lies in the lenses with which we can view a stretch of language: From a discourse perspective, is it coherent and cohesive? From an actional perspective, what is happening? Is it socioculturally appropriate? Is it grammatically and lexically accurate? Consequently, consideration can be given to identifying and teaching functions (actional competence), opportunities can be created that allow for the negotiation of meaning, requiring strategic competence, stretches of discourse can be included and used to aid the development of discourse competence; consideration can be given to cultural factors (sociocultural competence), and there may also be a need to focus on areas such as key grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation (linguistic competence). While the interrelationships between the competences are complex, the framework can act as an aid in making judgements on the difficulty of a text for a student, and what areas it might be important to highlight or focus on during a class.

English Language Content at University

While the five-competence model can be used as a practical framework by teachers, a question that remains for English teaching is the role of reasoning, and part of my purpose in this paper is to explore to what extent reasoning skills at university fit within the five-competence framework and to what extent they lie outside. Is reasoning subsumed within the five competences or is there a need for additional competences? The issue emerges because, from a university perspective, it seems possible for someone demonstrating very good communicative competence to produce highly questionable discourse. The example below is an extract from a presentation on YouTube by a male presenter, which I have tidied up and altered to convey the meaning without the visual content (www.youtube.com/watch?v=eE9lu89Bny8,2010; for a close transcription of the original more colourful presentation, see appendix):

Extract 1

... My belief is that the human body has an energy field and I've spent 15 years proving it. Here, I have a picture of two rats. We've been giving these rats food. The small rat on the left ate cornflakes. However, the larger rat on the right has eaten seeds and nuts. This illustrates the effect that diet can have. Now in the next picture, you can see an orange in four different ways. Look at the picture of the orange on the bottom right. It shows the energy inside the orange, and healthy people eat energy. What I mean by that is that our food needs to have life force in it – a good bio-field, and that's why I'm interested in companies that develop products with the safety of EMFs. In the next picture, the white

bread on the left does not have as much life force as the wholemeal bread on the right. Also, in the next slide, you can see that medical diseases show up well in advance of normal medical screening. For example, this slide of the body is showing us early warnings of diabetes. From it, I can tell whether someone is going to get diabetes. In this picture we have signs of nerve damage, and this one we have signs of breast cancer before even a mammogram will identify it. We can use this medical thermal imaging....

From the point of view of the five competences, the speaker has very good communicative competence in English, but the content of his presentation is questionable. It is likely that readers of the text above or listeners at the presentation would want to ask the following questions: Who is the speaker? What are his qualifications? Where has he published his research? Have his claims been tested scientifically?

Similar questions might be raised in examining a written rather than a spoken text. Extract 2 is a written text taken from the Institute of Creation Research's Webpage (http://www.icr.org/men-dinosaurs/):

Extract 2

Dinosaurs are often portrayed as having lived in a time before man. However, the available evidence shows that man and dinosaur coexisted.

Legends of dragons are found among most people groups. For example, there are the stories of Bel and the dragon, the Kulta of Australian aborigines, St. George and the dragon, and of course many Chinese legends. Often, the anatomical descriptions given are consistent, even though they come from separate continents and various times. These depictions match what we know from the fossil evidence of certain dinosaurs.

Again, from a communicative competence perspective, this is a good text. From a discourse competence perspective, it is well organized and argued, but from a university teaching perspective, it is highly questionable for reasons other than the five competences. In both extracts above, the speaker and the writer clearly have excellent communicative competence in English, but are making claims that would be fiercely challenged by university science faculties that cover such areas.

The Content of English Language Classes

The difficulty for English language teaching in many respects is that the content of English language teaching is the language under study. However, given the legitimate emphasis on discourse, what should that discourse be about? The five-competence model involves reasoning skills connected to language, particularly in understanding and conveying messages. However, it does not appear to cover key reasoning skills which we would expect university students to develop over the course of their studies. Students require what I am going to term "critical competence", so that although extracts 1 and 2 above demonstrate discourse competence, they are likely to fail on the basis of critical competence. This, like discourse competence, is a higher level skill, and could be added to the competences (Figure 3 below). However, what are the components of critical competence?

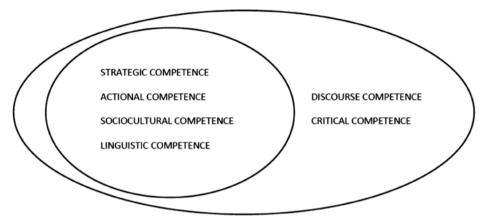


FIGURE 3. Six-Category Model of Communicative Competence at University

A tentative answer to this is that a large number of them are contained within the fields that students study at university in the arts and sciences. They are critical skills used within those fields, although they are not identical for each field, so that a piece of historical research requires a somewhat different set of critical skills from research in a natural science such as physics.

I would argue that by their very nature the fields under study at university have rigorous ways of evaluating what is acceptable research. For example, following the idea of "A school of Comparative Irrelevance" in Eco's (1989) <u>Foucault's Pendulum</u>, it is possible to construct departments of comparative irrelevance: a Department of Lycanthropy as part of a Faculty of Biology, A Department of Astrology as part of the Faculty of Geography, or a Department of Extra-Terrestrial Civilization Studies as part of the Faculty of History. Nor would the following titles seem likely as publications: The Influence of Taurus on the Frequency of Earthquakes in the Pacific Ocean (Geography), An Analysis of Extra-Terrestrial Technologies as Drivers for Development in Early Mayan Culture (History), The Industrial Threats to Werewolf Habitats in Southeast Asia (Biology).

The key point here is that within each field there are a set of critical processes which form part of the definition of that field. Consequently, the fields are important in defining what critical competence is, and should be incorporated into the model. However, in an article of this length, it is not possible to explore the relationship between field competence, critical competence, and discourse competence. As I have noted, reasoning processes may differ across fields, but there may also be a shared core. This core would form at least part of critical competence. Whether there are forms of practical reasoning that are independent of university fields and constitute an important part of critical competence is another issue. Given these uncertainties, the most practical option for expanding the model is to divide the competences into two types: basic (strategic competence, actional competence, sociocultural competence, and linguistic competence), and higher level (discourse competence, critical competence, field competence).

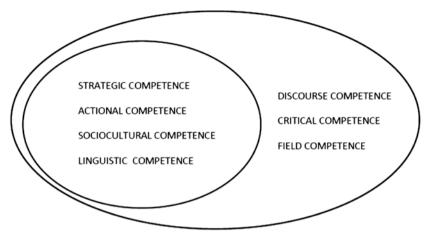


FIGURE 4. Seven-Category Model of Communicative Competence at University

English as a Means for International Participation

So far, I have argued for the inclusion of two more competences at university: critical competence and field competence. A possible criticism might be "Why complicate the original model?" Is it really necessary for an English language teacher at university to be concerned about critical competence and field competence? Isn't our job just to make sure that students can become reasonably fluent in English, and leave the rest to others?

In answer to this criticism, I would argue that the investment made in English language teaching at university is increasingly oriented towards international participation in a great variety of international fields ranging from business to scientific research, so that there may be a move towards more specialised English courses that dovetail with specialised university fields. For example, one of the reasons for the close examination of the five-competence model was due to the creation of a course in medical English for third-year university students, and finding the model insufficient. The overarching organising principles for setting up the course came from drawing on the field competence of medical specialists, and as English language teachers, we had to develop sufficient field competence to teach the course using materials and tasks that address both the five competences of the Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell model and other reasoning skills that medical students need.

What then of general English courses? What is the field competence for these? This is the more complicated question because, if discourse competence is important, what field does that discourse connect to? Here university English teachers are faced with a very wide set of options which include a wide variety of texts, discourse, and situations including daily-life conversations, short stories, email messages amongst others. Many of these can be dealt with within the five competence model. However, even in terms of more general courses, there may be some useful critical skills, such as checking sources, that could be considered by practising teachers of English, as well as connections to the specialist fields that students study. Consequently, ideas can be drawn for articles and books on English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP).

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, there are several areas in which some qualifying remarks should be made. The most important of these is that this is a broad sketch of ideas for creating a more comprehensive framework of communicative competence. In an article of this length, I have not been able to go into examples of field competence or critical competence in the way that Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell have listed items under their five competences. I hope that in a subsequent article that I can achieve this. The purpose would not be to create a taxonomy, but to give sufficient illustration to give clarity to the concepts.

Following from the first point, there is the important relationship between field competence and critical competence. My conception is that within a field there are key reasoning processes that partly define it. Also, there may be a set of reasoning processes that are common to all university fields. For example, referencing and evaluating sources may be part of any academic enquiry. For more general English courses, critical competence items shared by all fields of enquiry may be the best ones to consider.

I have tentatively used the term "critical competence" in this article. However, this label carries with it certain risks. I am not a "critical theorist", but I am pointing out, in a more conservative way, that the communicative competence model does not incorporate some key reasoning skills that are important at university, and that there are only some acceptable modes of discourse, and these are embedded within certain fields of enquiry. For example, a careful well-referenced scientific study on the effects of a drug carries weight, but a careful well-referenced astrological study on the effects of a drug does not.

Finally, it is worth noting that this article represents a small boat setting out on a vast ocean. However, the key point is not that it is not necessary to know the entire ocean, but that there is sufficient equipment to navigate it. In extending the framework of communicative competence for university teaching, it is my hope that it acts as a piece of equipment – an analytical tool for framing issues for language teachers and researchers working at universities. I hope that in subsequent articles, I can explore the idea of a seven-competence model by considering reasoning skills and how they fit into the higher competences (field, critical, discourse) at university.

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APPENDIX

Transcription of a Presentation on YouTube

... My belief is that the human body has an energy field and I've spent 15 year proving it. Next slide. Now I've got a picture here of two rats. As a scientist - many times they use rats in research. Well, we've just been giving these rats food. We've not done anything else. We didn't give them cancer and kill them. So, the rat on the left – he ate Kellogg's cornflakes; Kellogg's – It's an American company – cereal. But the rat on the right – he's eaten seeds and nuts. In other words we are what we eat. Next slide. Now when you see this picture, you see an orange in four different ways. We have modern medical diagnostic tools like CT scanning, but I don't like CT scanning because it uses radiation. You need 600 X-rays for one body CT scan. Now this picture on the bottom right is the light inside the orange, and healthy people eat light. What I mean to say is that our food needs to have life force in it – a good bio-field, and that's why I'm interested in companies that develop with the safety of EMFs. See here the white bread on the left does not have as much life force as the wholemeal bread on the right, and you can see all the medical diseases show up well in advance of normal medical screening, so for example, this is early warning of diabetes. I can tell whether someone is going to get diabetes. The same way – nerve damage, and here is breast cancer before even a mammogram will identify it. We can use this medical thermal imaging.

要 約

大学における論理的思考力とコミュニケーション能力

デービス・ウォルター

広島大学外国語教育研究センター

本研究では、大学外国語教師の意思決定との関連で、Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell (1995) が主張したコミュニケーション能力モデルの分析を試みる。まず最初に、このモデルを解説し、 それに対する批判をまとめてみる。考察の部分では、5つの下位構成能力(言語的能力、社会文 化的能力、発話行為能力、談話能力、方略的能力)に分けることの問題点を、とりわけ発話行為 能力と談話能力との関わりで考えてみる。

Widdowson の唱える一貫性と結束性は,発語内行為と命題のそれぞれに関わっているので,談話能力は他の構成能力を司っていると考えるべきである。また,方略的能力はある特種な類の発話行為能力と位置づけることも可能であると主張したい。このような理解に基づき,これらの5つの下位構成概念の再構築を提案したい。

さらに、大学生には Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrel ではカバーしきれない、「論理的思考力」 が必要であると考える。これを批判的思考力や基盤専門領域能力と名付けることとしたい。この 枠組みに基づいて、筆者が提案する大学におけるコミュニケーション能力モデルは、「談話能力」 「論理的思考力」「基盤専門領域能力」という3つの上位概念と、「言語的能力」「社会文化的能力」 「発話行為能力」「方略的能力」などの4つの下位概念で構成される。