

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.0 Introduction

This introductory chapter will provide a description of the theoretical framework of the study with special focus on the definition of the research problem, the study questions and hypotheses as well as the research methodology.

### 1.1 Background and Overview

One of our weaknesses as human beings is the imperfect linguistic repertoire we have and that all of us have to put up with the trouble of finding the appropriate expression or grammatical construction when attempting to communicate with our fellow ones. The attempts made by language learners in order to improve or augment the effectiveness of their communication are known as *communication strategies* (Littlemore, 2003). Though this area remains to a great extent a disputed one, communication strategies have generally been defined as the tools that speakers use to solve their communicative problems. According to Dörnyei and Scott (1997), the notion of second language (L2) communication strategies was raised with the recognition that the disparity between L2 speakers' linguistic resources and communicative intentions leads to systematic language phenomenon whose main function is to prevent the occurrence of difficulties or breakdowns in the process of communication.

Cultural notes such as these may also influence the choice and use of CSs. Other researchers (Tarone & Yule 1989; Oxford 1990; O'Malley and Chamot 1990) recognize these aspects too and support the idea of teaching CSs to help develop EFL students' communication skills either by raising learners' consciousness or training them. Therefore, learning CSs is undeniably useful for EFL learners.

Rubin (1981, 1987) defines communication strategies as the ways different interlocutors employ to proceed with the task of communication rather than abandoning it. They are strategies used by speakers when they come across a difficulty in their communication because of lack of adequate knowledge of the language.

The present research seeks to explore those strategies to which Sudanese undergraduate students resort to keep to the line of communication without feeling upset and withdraw. Some undergraduate are short of the strategies themselves, and they need to develop these to be adequately equipped with a host of these strategies to continue the task of communication. The area of strategies has actually been exhaustively researched that almost all linguists across the globe have conducted research on their respective environments. However, the situation in our context (Sudan) remains virgin for more studies to be carried out. For the past three decades, there have been a number of studies conducted to examine the various aspects of communication strategies. Regarding the use of communication strategies, a number of studies have investigated the relationship between various factors and communication strategies. Research across the world showed that learners decide on a certain strategy is linked with the specific task they intend to perform.

Communication strategies (CS), broadly studied in the fields of linguistics and second language acquisition, have been defined in a variety of ways, but most definitions are based on the concept of “problematicity” (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997, p. 2). According to Tarone (1977), CS are “...used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual’s thought” (p. 195). Færch and Kasper (1983) defined CS as “...potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal” (p. 36). This concept of problematicity leads to problem-solving strategies that a speaker uses when

lacking morphological, lexical, or syntactic knowledge. However, CS research has primarily focused on lexical deficiencies within the speaker's knowledge, since lexical CSs are easy to identify (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997).

In close connection with the issue of lexical problem solving some researches were conducted on referential strategies. Referential communication is described as any information exchange between two speakers that is "typically dependent on successful acts of reference, whereby entities (human and nonhuman) are identified (by naming or describing), are located or moved relative to other entities (by giving instructions or directions), or are followed through sequences of locations and events (by recounting an incident or a narrative)" (Yule, 1997, p. 1). Different perspectives taken towards CS have led to several methodologies in CS studies in terms of the various referents used.

In order to draw out CS from speech production, many kinds of reference tasks have been used in CS studies. First described here are some of those tasks are the ones taken from psycholinguistic perspectives where the focus is placed on a speaker's utterances without an interlocutor's interactions. Concrete picture description tasks have been widely used in both first and second language acquisition research. In L2 studies, pictures of real-world objects are shown to a language learner who has to describe them for a native speaker to either identify the objects or reconstruct the picture.

Communication is simply defined as a process in which a message is sent from senders to receivers. Technically, it is said that the sender encodes a message and the receiver decodes it (Thao, 2005). The term communication strategy was coined by Selinker (1972); it refers to the approach that a learner employs for communication with a native speaker. According to Surapa and Channarong (2011), CS typologies and classifications have been classified differently following the principles of terminology and categorization of different researchers. To date, there is no agreement on these classifications.

Some studies reflected that there were significant differences in strategy categories or choice and individual strategies between proficient and less proficient learners. The findings indicate the crucial role of language proficiency in the use of communication strategies. However, in the present research, with Sudanese undergraduate students, such categorization is not adhered to. According to Rost and Ross (1991), proficiency is the weightiest predictor of strategy. They found that the use of certain strategies is correlated with L2 proficiency. Chen's (1990) study with Chinese EFL learners also found a positive relationship between the learners' target language proficiency and their strategic competence. Furthermore, the more proficient EFL learners in the study had significantly higher use of such communication strategy categories as fluency-oriented strategies and negotiation for meaning while speaking and less proficient learners used significantly more less-active listener strategies.

## **1.2 Statement of the problem**

Basically, we use language to communicate. Hence, without good grasp of this very important tool, communication will never take place. Amongst the vital things undergraduate students suffer from quite drastically when it comes to oral communication is the lack of adequate vocabulary as well as the type of communication strategies essential to help them outflank their poor vocabulary knowledge in order to continue the process of communication. In addition to the other factors which should augment vocabulary, knowledge of the right type of communication strategies is of very paramount importance to undergraduate students.

One more salient factor so powerfully connected with oral communication is the development of oral skills. Oral skills at university level have regrettably not received the sufficient attention they deserve to be learned effectively. On the other hand, much time is dedicated to strengthening the other learning skills at the expense of the oral one. Almost all tutors at the lower preparatory programs

spend quite plenty of time in reading and writing in a way that hardly touches upon the enhancement of the oral skills.

For all these reasons, training students to identify the relevant type of communication strategies can remarkably help undergraduate students overcome their oral communicative hurdles. Moreover, teaching materials at reparatory programs should see that enough time and space is given to oral practice, not to mention removal of all impediments that obstruct the teaching of oral skills namely oversized classrooms that allow practitioners scanty time to marshal their classes effectively

### **1.3 Significance of The Study**

Much of the relevant research, over the past two or three decades on the strategies of L2 learning, has been done the effects of selecting the right type of the communication strategies to overcome oral communicative difficulties. All these studies paid special attention to the question of communication as one of the crucial skills that challenge different learners to varying degrees. The main reason why communication has attracted such attention across linguistic studies is mainly attributable to the fact that it practically spreads over all human activities. To make communication possible, learners must find the strategic linguistic or sociolinguistic competence in language. The efforts of arriving at the right communication strategy will eliminate the gap of communication as Bialystok (1990) puts it, the familiar ease and fluency with which we sail from one idea to the next in our first language is constantly shattered by some gap in our knowledge of a second language. Although it is hard, both native and non-native speakers manage to take resort to certain expressions or grammatical structures to make themselves understood (Faucette, 2001).

Therefore, the present research derives its significance from the fact of exploring the areas of difficulties encountered by undergraduate students upon deciding to communicate orally. Students need to be made aware of the use of communication strategies depending on their level of proficiency. Opting for

the right type of strategy to overcome oral hurdles has been of central importance which this study seeks to investigate. The main argument of the present research is to pave the path for a better understanding of the communicative abilities of undergraduate students to help them maximize the use of the different strategies they will have at their disposal. Making special reference to the communicative language courses to be used at the preparatory levels to strengthen oral skills as well as giving enough time to teaching spoken language is another salient point.

Much research has been done on the various problems learners of English are bound to encounter, but there has been very little attention paid to the ways of solving these problems or tackling the importance of the development of EFL learners' strategic competence to solve their communication problems. The significance of the issue can be seen in the great number of erroneous utterances that Sudanese learners of English produce in oral performance and their recourse to CSs. So making the learners aware of their weaknesses in relation to the use of the right communication strategies through teaching and training is an important step towards solving the problem of oral communication in EFL.

#### **1.4 Research Questions**

The present study seeks to find answers for the following questions:

1. What are the types and frequency of communication strategies used by Sudanese undergraduate learners?
2. To what extent can learners be taught and trained to use these strategies effectively to achieve oral communicative goals.
3. What kind of courses to be used at the preparatory levels at university to help raise students' oral abilities and enhance their mastery of the communication strategies?
4. To what extent are Sudanese universities teachers aware of the communicative language teaching techniques that could help their

students have a better grasp of communication strategies and hence improve their oral interaction?

## **1.5 Research Hypotheses**

The present research aims to test the following hypotheses

**H1.** Sudanese undergraduate students are not well aware of communication strategies as effective tools for solving communicative hurdles. Hence, teaching communication strategies will help students improve their communicative abilities.

**H2.** As far as the data collection techniques suggest, the experiment group will perform better than the control group as their exposure to the teaching of communication strategies will help them achieve their communicative goals.

**H3.** Teachers' performance in relation to the teaching of oral skills will accordingly be improved after they have noticed the difference on their students' oral abilities after and before the experiment.

## **1.6. Objectives of The Study**

The primary goal of this study is to find evidence to support the idea that teaching of communication strategies to undergraduate learners can be effective in helping them find tools to surmount their communicative hurdles. Undergraduate students have difficulty in oral communication arising from a number of factors foremost of which is their unawareness of the communication strategies as essential tools to outflank their inadequacies. The following are objectives:

1. To examine the quantity of communication strategies used by Sudanese undergraduate students in both spoken and written performance.
2. To investigate the impact of strategy-training on the use of communication strategies by Sudanese students in both spoken and written productions.
3. To scrutinize the interaction that comes into play between the training and the learner's fluency in writing and speech.

4. To explore the effect of the training on the students' self-confidence in spoken and written forms.
5. To examine the effect of the medium of communication (written vs.spoken) on the frequency of CSs used by the subjects to overcome their communicative problems.
6. To study the effect of the level of proficiency on the types and frequency distribution of CSs that the subjects use in oral and spoken communication.

### **1.7 Methodology of The Study**

The present study adopts both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis techniques. Triggered by the communicative strategies proposed by Tarone (1980), Tarone (1977), Faerch and Kasper (1984), and Willems (1987), the present research is designed to elicit and describe the CSs to be used by Sudanese undergraduate students after they have been exposed to the teaching of the different strategies.

### **1.8 Limitations of The Study**

This study limited to Khartoum State- Sudan University of Science and Technology, fourth year: 2015-2017



# CHAPTER TWO

## LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

### 2.0 Part (1) Theoretical Framework

This chapter provides the theoretical framework of the study as well as exploring some previous related works. The study shall take as a descriptive step the investigation of the history of Communication strategies studies in general and those conducted in other parts of the world namely Arab world as they similar realities to the population of the present study. The crucial importance of Communication strategies in providing solution for communicative hurdles and help learners proceed with the act of communication will be dealt with in depth.

### 2.1 Introduction

This section addresses some of the most important theoretical concepts and empirical findings that developed over the years leading to what is currently known as communication strategies. As there have been lots of developments in the discipline, the researcher will focus on the most immediate ones to the field of investigation.

### 2.2 Communicative Competence

Communicative competence can be defined as the ability to interact effectively using verbal and non-verbal means of negotiation. Spitzberg (1988) defined communicative competence as "the ability to interact well with others" (p.68). He added, ". . . the term 'well' refers to accuracy, clarity, comprehensibility, coherence, expertise, effectiveness and appropriateness" (p. 68). Communicative competence, then, includes linguistic and sociocultural knowledge that are interdependent and essential for the language users to build or exchange meaning since "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (Hymes, 1972: 278), and "there are rules of

language use that would be useless without rules of grammar” (Canale and Swain, 1980: 89).

However, there is a shared belief in many societies that good communication has many constraints and that one of the most important constraints is the underlying ability of the interlocutors. As Steven Wilson and Christina Sabee (2003: 3–4) put it:

Why have so many scholars, from so many fields, studied communicative competence within so many relational, institutional and cultural contexts? Our hunch is that scholars, as well as the contemporary Western societies in which most live and work, widely accept the following tacit beliefs: (a) within any situation, not all things that can be said and done are equally competent; (b) success in personal and professional relationships depends, in no small part, on communicative competence; and (c) most people display incompetence in at least a few situations, and a smaller number are judged incompetent across many situations.

This is not the case in Chomsky’s generative-transformational theory (1965) of competence/performance that describes competence as the shared knowledge of the ideal speaker-listener set in a completely homogenous speech community. This enables the language user to produce and understand an infinite set of sentences out of a finite set of rules. This view was criticized by Hymes (1972) as being limited to linguistic knowledge in production and understanding, since according to him it “carries to its perfection the desire to deal in practice only with what is internal to language, yet to find in that internality that in theory is of the widest or deepest human significant’ (Hymes, 1972: 269). For Hymes, Chomsky’s theory is a “Garden of Eden” description of language behavior that neglects the role of sociocultural factors and personal variables in the use of language, because according to Hymes, who based his theory on Labov’s investigations, the social factors interfere not only in the external performance but also in the inner competence. That is, the sociocultural rules affect the use of the whole linguistic system and oblige language users to opt for certain

grammatical, semantic or syntactic rules rather than others in a determined communicative situation.

Hymes' communicative competence (1972) defined as sociocultural knowledge and Chomsky's dichotomy are both interrelated parts of the communicative competence that involves "knowing not only the language code, but also what to say, to whom and how to say it appropriately in a given situation" (Saville-Troike, 1982:22) which means that communicative competence is a combination of cognitive and behavioral perspectives to achieve a communicative goal.

Like most central concepts in empirical sciences, the notion of communicative competence comprises theoretical, methodological, and practical aspects. With respect to theory, the internal and external structure of the concept should be well defined and contribute to an embedding theory, together with other concepts. In methodological terms, the concept should be based on objective, reliable, and valid measurements, which are connected to successful intervention procedures. Finally, the concept should support the application of the theory to practice in real life.

A more detailed model of defining communicative competence is that of Canale and Swain (1980) in which they stress the interaction of social context, grammar and meaning. They consider that Hymes' sociolinguistic model of communicative competence is interesting, but it cannot stand alone to define the communicative competence. Therefore; as previously mentioned, Canale and Swain claim that both the grammatical competence and the sociolinguistic competence are complementary and compulsory in the study of communicative competence.

Moreover, integrative theories like the one by Widdowson (1978); Canale and Swain (1980) believe that the role of the sociolinguistic factors is overemphasized in the use and selection of the grammatical forms. It also gives a consideration to the importance of the level of complexity of those

grammatical forms in the decision of the speaker in using some forms rather than the others. Eventually, according to them what should occur at some point prior to the selection of the semantic, grammatical and social behavior varieties is the analysis of the grammatical forms for the fulfillment of the following criteria: grammatical complexity; transparency with respect to the communicative function of the sentence; generalizability to other communicative functions; the role of a given form in facilitating acquisition of another form; acceptability in terms of perceptual strategies; and the degree of markedness in terms of social geographical dialects (Canale and Swain, 1980).

Finally, Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) introduced a more detailed definition of communicative competence and suggested a framework that includes the strategic competence, which they consider that no theory had mentioned before. So, for them, communicative competence involves four essential parts which are:

- ◆ grammatical competence (knowledge of lexical items, rules of morphology, syntax, semantics, and phonology);
- ◆ sociolinguistic competence (appropriateness that includes knowledge of sociolinguistic rules of use and rules of discourse including the use of speech markers; address forms, and the appropriate use of vocabulary in a specific communicative situation);
- ◆ discourse competence (knowing how to use and respond to speech acts, and how to organize or recognize the unity of an oral or written message); and;
- ◆ strategic competence (verbal or non-verbal) strategies the speakers use to avoid communicative breakdowns that may be the result of performance variables or limited proficiency level (including false starts, hesitations and other performance factors, avoiding grammatical forms that have not been fully mastered, and keeping the communicative channel open).

When Bachman (1990) took his turn, he developed the new component of communicative competence introduced by Canale and Swain (1980) and

Canale(1983). He presented a different model of communicative competence that he divided into language competence and pragmatic competence:

1. *Language competence*: a set of specific knowledge components that are utilized in communication via language and that include:
  - ◆ Organizational competence: vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology and graphology.
  - ◆ Textual competence: cohesion and rhetorical organization.

Bachman based his definition of pragmatic competence on Van Dijk's (1977) description of pragmatics to explain the relationship between language users and the context of communication:

The pragmatics must be assigned an empirical domain consisting of conventional rules of language and manifestation of these in the production and the interpretation of utterances. In particular, it should make an independent contribution to the analysis of the conditions that make utterances acceptable in some situation for speakers of the language (Van Dijk, 1977: 189-90).

### **2.3 Pragmatic Competence**

- ◆ Illocutionary competence: ideational, manipulative, heuristic and imaginative functions.
- ◆ Sociolinguistic competence: sensitivity to differences in dialect or variety, differences in register, naturalness, and the ability to interpret cultural differences and figures of speech.

In his communicative language framework Bachman divided Canale and Swain's 'discourse competence, into 'illocutionary competence' and 'sociolinguistic Competence' which he relates to each other through 'strategic competence' defined as:

the capacity that relates language competence or knowledge of language, to the language user's knowledge structures and the features of the context in which communication takes place. Strategic competence performs assessment, planning and execution functions in determining the most effective means of achieving a communicative goal (Bachman, 1990: 108).

Although the aforementioned theoretical models of communicative competence define the strategic competence in different ways, they all agree on the importance of this competence for language users.

All the previous communicative language theories are useful in guiding and forming empirical research in language teaching. The teaching of languages has seen a shift of focus from a model that considered language as structure to a new model that teaches language as a functional context embedded with meaning. As Bachman (1990) concluded that:

What has emerged from these ideas is an expanded conception of language proficiency whose distinguishing characteristic is its recognition of the importance of context beyond the sentence to the appropriate use of language. This context includes both the discourse, of which individual utterances and sentences are part, and the sociolinguistic situation which governs, to a large extent, the nature of that discourse, in both form and function (1990: 82-83).

Communicative language teaching is, then, a model that approaches language learning objectively and analytically through the teaching of structural, functional and sociocultural aspects of the language. It is an approach that offers the learners the opportunities to live the language as a personal experience through direct exposure to a real contextualized target language (Stern, 1981). All these rules of communicative language teaching were contemplated in Rivers (1972) communicative theoretical framework in which

she distinguished between “skill getting” and “skill using” activities that the teachers should offer to language learners. These activities guide them first to the skills that form the communicative ability, and then provide them with the opportunities to practice these skills separately. That is, the learners are offered the possibility to improve their communicative competence in stages, focusing on each skill at a time. As Rivers pointed out, “the students must learn to articulate acceptably and construct comprehensible language sequences by rapid associations of learned elements” (1972: 71).

To conclude, communicative language teaching should provide interactive practice through spontaneous and genuine use of the target language. Rivers’ (1973) previously mentioned framework was later on expanded by the researcher to explain that the contact and use of language in its natural context should be organized and presented taking into consideration the learners personality and cultural background. This ensures that the teaching act gives them the freedom to perform creatively and to be themselves at all times with the object of weaning “Our students early from dependence on direction . . . , thus preparing them psychologically for the uninhibited autonomy of the confident language-users” (Rivers, 1973: 34).

The anchor of communicative language teaching should be the belief that the major aim is to enable the student to evaluate his/her ability to understand and express him/herself using the target language appropriately in his own way without getting absorbed by the target language culture.

## **2.4 Interpersonal Communication Research**

Further important milestones in the development of a comprehensive notion of communicative competence were, among others, the contributions by John Wiemann (1977), and Spitzberg and Cupach (1984/1989). Research in interpersonal communication has been directed at understanding how communication is used in forming relationships and what factors play a role in social interactions. A central factor of John M. Wiemann’s (1977) model of

communicative competence is *interaction management*. His aim was to develop a theory of communication competence that was robust and that could be used to understand communication behavior in a particular situation. In this attempt, the importance of individual and relational goals, strategies and motivations for achieving these goals, planning routines, emotions, and cognitive abilities became evident. He developed a model composed of the following five dimensions: “(1) affiliation/ support, (2) social relaxation, (3) empathy, (4) behavioral flexibility, and (5) interaction management skills” (Wiemann 1977: 197). His model is based on earlier approaches to the study of competence, such as Goffman’s (1959) self-presentation approach, in which human is described as an actor who plays various roles to various audiences. According to Goffman, the competent. The concept of communicative competence 19 communicator is one who is aware of the quality of encounters as demonstrated by her or his presentation of appropriate faces and lines and the support of the faces and lines presented by others. The second basis of Wiemann’s model was the human-relation or T-group approach (Argyris 1962, 1965; Bochner and Kelly 1974). They mentioned five skills of communicative competence: (1) empathy, (2) descriptiveness, i.e., the manner in which feedback is given and received, (3) owning feelings and thoughts, (4) self-disclosure, and (5) behavioral flexibility. The social-skill approach by Argyle (1969) was the most important example for Wiemann’s model. Argyle defined “skill” as an “organized, coordinated activity in relation to an object or a situation, which involves a whole chain of sensory, central and motor mechanisms” (p. 180). Argyle developed the following specific dimensions of communicative competence: (1) extroversion and affiliation, (2) dominance-submission, (3) poise-social anxiety, (4) rewardingness, (5) interaction skills, (6) perceptual sensitivity, and (7) role-taking ability. Because of their centrality to communicative competence, Argyle (1969) mentioned two general interaction management skills (1) “the ability to establish and sustain a smooth and easy pattern of interaction” and (2) the



ability to maintain control of the interaction without dominating (pp. 327–328). Based on these three approaches to communicative competence, Wiemann (1977) developed his own model, which was tested in an experiment. Results indicated a strong, positive, linear relationship between interaction management and communicative competence. The conclusion from his study was that “the competent communicator is one who is other-oriented, while at the same time maintaining the ability to accomplish his own interpersonal goals. This other-orientation is demonstrated by the communicator being empathic, affiliative and supportive, and relaxed while interacting with others. It is this communicative competence which enables a person, in a very real and practical way, to establish a social identity” (p. 211).

Similarly, Spitzberg and colleagues (Spitzberg and Cupach 1984; Spitzberg and Hurt 1987) identify four global constructs: interaction management, altercentrism, expressiveness, and composure, which are each represented by overt molecular behaviors. *Interaction management* is represented by such behaviors as questions, interruptions, and talk time, while *altercentrism* is indicated by head nods, body lean, and smiling. Vocal variety, appropriate use of humor, and appropriate facial expression are indicants of *expressiveness*, while vocal tension, object manipulation, and postural rigidity are associated with *composure*. Spitzberg and Cupach (1984) discuss the question whether competence should be defined as a trait or a state. Traits are viewed as dispositions while states are situational events or occurrences (Fridhandler 1986). They argue that: “competence *as a trait* ultimately must boil down to an individual effectively communicating across contexts – with different environments, with diverse goals and topics. This consistency of performance is really tantamount to 20 GertRickheit, Hans Strohner, and ConstanzeVorwerg general communicative adaptability and behavioral flexibility” (Spitzberg and Cupach 1984: 92).

## 2.5 Interpersonal Competence Research

In their “Handbook of Interpersonal Competence Research”, Spitzberg and Cupach (1989) gave a well structured overview of the state of the art in this complex field. Their book “is a research book. As such, it is designed to present and assess approaches and techniques for studying and measuring interpersonal competence” (p. 4). They chose the term “interpersonal competence”, because the term “refers to the process whereby people effectively deal with each other, as the most general term” whereas “the term *communicative competence* often implies a focus on appropriate symbolic behavior manifested in social and interpersonal contexts” (p. 6). The aim of their handbook was “to review existing measures of interpersonal communication and cognate constructs, in order to facilitate further research” (Spitzberg and Cupach 1989: 234).

## 2.6 Communication Situations

In most communication situations, we have two or more communication partners with some internal knowledge who are connected to each other by the following five links (see Fig. 1):

- Information transmission and feedback
- Informational medium
- Referential knowledge
- Partner knowledge and mindreading
- Physical and social situation.

Most researchers would certainly agree to this rough scheme of the underlying structure of communication. However, the concrete models of communication and communicative competence differ considerably (see, e.g., Wilson and The concept of communicative competence 21 Sabee 2003; Berger 2005). In them, the integrated scheme is divided into many tiny parts, processes, and functions. Research projects are carried out, many of which yield empirically based, yet specific results. One question to ask is how to describe

the overall structure of communication by integrating the obtained results of the different special projects. So, the problem is: How can a comprehensive and integrated theory of communicative competence be developed combining the various results in the broad area of communicative competence and how does this development relate to the basic notion of communication?

We suppose that in the field of communication the distinction of the following dimensions will be helpful:

- Communication as information exchange,
- Communication as mental-state reading and influencing,
- Communication as interaction,
- Communication as situation management.

In every communicative event, information processing is a basic part. At least two independent information-processing systems are involved, which intentionally exchange messages using an informational medium. However, the wide-spread conception of communication as consisting of a sender encoding a message and sending it via an information channel to a receiver, who decodes it (based on Shannon and Weaver's information theory), grasps only part of the relevant processes in human communication.

In contrast to a code-based approach, there is wide agreement between cognitive approaches to communication that information processing includes very different activities such as knowledge and attitude activation, expectancies, evaluations, and goal-directed action planning. Theories within this *mental statesframework* (Bara, Cutica and Tirassa 2001) usually assume that communication is intentional and directed at affecting the other's mental states. Message production can be regarded as a goal-directed action including such processes as representing multiple goals, constructing hierarchical plans and executing behavioral programs. Message production processes are focused in *goals-plansactiontheories* (e.g., Wilson 1990; Berger 1997; Waldron 1997) and *hierarchicaltheories* (e.g., Greene 1997). Relevant cognitive processes

investigated are goal forming, planning, and anticipatory processes (see Section 4.1).

As far as message reception is concerned, the inferring of others' desires and intents is central. So, relevant cognitive processes include knowledge activation, the rational and emotional evaluation of the message contents, and the management of related attributions and expectations. Expectancies for other people's behavior and the recognition and interpretation of strategic violations are processes related to others' mental states in expectancy violations theories (e.g., Burgoon 1995). Causal judgments about the own communicative competence and about factors of communicative success are assumed to affect the setting of realistic goals and expectations in attribution theories (e.g., Weiner 1996). More generally, understanding a message may involve the recognition of others' feelings, intentions, and other mental states, based on inferential, empathetic, and executive abilities (see Section 4.2).

However, not even the understanding of the literal message can be explained solely in terms of information exchange. The cognitive basis of many mental activities involved in message understanding and production is the construction of *mental models* (Johnson-Laird 1983). A mental model is an internal representation with analogical relations to its referential object, so that local and temporal aspects of the object are preserved. It comes somewhat close to the mental images people report having in their minds whilst processing information. The great advantage of the notion of mental models, however, is its ability to include the notion of a *partner model* and the notion of a *situation model*.

## **2.7 Communication Modes**

Although there is great interest in the notion of communicative competence in science and real-life application, the concept is not easy to define in a general way. The reasons lie in the complexity of communication, the wide variety of related cognitive and social abilities, and also the huge situational

variability. What we need in the field of communication, similar to the field of intelligence, is the specification of domain specific abilities. A recent handbook devoted to communication and social interaction skills edited by John Greene and Brant Burleson (2003) specifies a number of fundamental interaction skills, such as nonverbal communication skills, discourse and conversation skills, message production and reception skills, and impression management skills. The volume also discusses functional skills such as informing, explaining, arguing and persuasion, as well as specific skills in personal relationships and in public and professional contexts.

Specifying communication skills for a rather narrow range of particular behaviors and situations makes it easier to define them and to analyze methods for assessment and intervention. A certain skill is related to specific knowledge, emotion and, of course, sensory-motor behavior. In accordance with this conception, Brian Spitzberg (2003: 95) proposes the following definition of skills: “Skills, therefore, are generally thought to be manifestations of some underlying ability, which is a capacity for action. This capacity is typically conceptualized as a function of numerous motivation (e.g., confidence, goals, reinforcement potential, etc.) and knowledge (e.g., content and procedural knowledge, familiarity, etc.) components.”

As any social behavior, communication skills are not independent of functional and situational influences. It often occurs that people manifest very different skill qualities in different situations, be it self-presentation, empathy or conflict management.

### **2.7.1 Effectiveness**

Given that communication is enacted to reach a certain goal, a central criterion for communicative competence is effectiveness. This is a functional attribute, which may relate to the ability to achieve or to infer a speaker’s meaning (e.g. that an utterance is meant ironic), or to the achievement of the goal behind this intent (e.g., that this irony is meant as a critique or as a joke;

see 4.1). As Spitzberg and Cupach (1989) pointed out that “effectiveness derives from control and is defined as successful goal achievement or task accomplishment” (p. 7). In cases where functions and goals of communicative actions are not clear, or if there are multiple functions, the analysis of effectiveness is problematic (see Chapter 2 in this volume).

In some situations, it is important to know not only that a certain action is accomplished, but also, how much time and energy consumption this has taken. The notion of efficiency refers to such a higher level of effectiveness.

### **2.7.2 Appropriateness**

As already proposed by Dell Hymes (1972), a competent communication should be judged as appropriate according to the social factors in a given situation. Yet, here we should be very careful in not equating social factors with norms or 26 GertRichtigkeit, Hans Strohner, and ConstanzeVorwerg rules, because in some situations it may be very appropriate to alter existing norms and rules or to establish new rules. Thus, the criterion of appropriateness is flexible enough to cover a vast variety of relations between communicative actions and their social environments. Following Spitzberg and Cupach (1989: 7), “appropriateness reflects tact or politeness and is defined as the avoidance of violating social or interpersonal norms, rules, or expectations”.

After having reviewed several other criteria of communicative competence proposed in the scientific literature, Brian Spitzberg (2003: 98) concludes: “However, combining appropriateness and effectiveness provides a framework that most competence theorists accept as generally viable. Competence, according to the dual criteria of appropriateness and effectiveness, is the extent to which an interactant achieves preferred outcomes in a manner that upholds the emergent standards of legitimacy of those judging the interaction”.

## **2.8 Processes Implying Communicative Competence**

Communication is social interaction and can therefore be described and studied in terms of collective action and cooperation. The primary unit of analysis in this type of studies is the dyad or the social group – an approach allowing for analyzing mutuality (e.g., Clark and Brennan 1993), group processes (e.g., Straus 1996) and the dialectics involved (e.g., Montgomery and Baxter 1998).

At the same time, communication is happening in terms of the cognitive processes involved, such as those underlying the production of messages to accomplish goals, the understanding of others' intentions, as well as the generation and interpretation of nonverbal behaviors. These cognitive processes have implications for the communicative competence of an individual; they determine largely the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately. Importantly, these cognitive processes are intertwined with emotional and motivational processing. Research fields devoted to the internal mental states and processes associated with communicative competence include the psycholinguistics of dialogue (e.g., Clark 1996; Pickering and Garrod 2004), psychological approaches to communication theory (e.g., Burgoon 1993; Schrader and Dillard 1999), social cognition (e.g., Tomasello (2003a) and cognitive pragmatics (e.g., Tirassa 1999; Sperber and Wilson 2002).

### **2.8.1 Message Production: Conveying Intentions and Accomplishing Goals**

Speakers (as well as writers and signers) produce language in order to convey certain ideas to their interlocutors. They mean something by their utterance and want their communication partners to understand their intentions. A typical way to express this concern is the very frequent phrase “know what I mean” (with over one million occurrences on the internet). Accordingly, communicative meaning or speaker intention is conceptualized as the effect that

the language producer intends to have on the addressee's mind. So for example, the sentence "I am trying to concentrate" may mean a desire for quietness and be intended to make someone stop talking or turn down the radio. The addressee's recognition of this speaker-meaning is the intended effect on the addressee's mind defining the basic criterion for a successful communication.

Ideas about communication as conveying and inferring communicative meaning have been strongly influenced by the "theorists of communication-intention" – Wittgenstein (1953), Austin (1962), Searle (1969) and the later Strawson (1971) and Grice (1975) – who regard intention or speaker-meaning as the central concept of communication. The proposed distinction between speaker-meaning (or communicative intent) and (literal) sentence meaning has been widely accepted in the field of communication and dialogue research, even though assumptions about the precise nature of the relation between them may differ. According to Sperber and Wilson (2002: 3), it is the objective of pragmatics to "explain how the gap between sentence meaning and speaker's meaning is bridged".

Intentionality lies at the heart of several cognitive approaches to human communication and language. Hrmann (1983: 233) emphasizes that "the listener does not understand the utterance; he understands the speaker. More precisely, he understands what the speaker, in this situation, wants the listener to think." Tomasello (2003b) argues that language is shared intentionality (see also Tomasello, Carpenter, Call, Behne and Moll 2005; Tomasello and Rakoczy 2003). According to Tirassa (1999: 419), "cognitive pragmatics is concerned with the mental processes involved in intentional communication". Canary and Cody (1993) emphasize the importance of interpersonal goals for communication, specifically self-representation goals, relational goals, and instrumental goals.



## 2.8.2 Cognitive Models of Message Production

One task of cognitive models of message production is to describe how speakers (or writers etc.) manage to convey the communicative meaning intended. What cognitive processes are involved in producing literal or non-literal language in a way that enables the auditory to understand what is meant – the basic criterion for a successful communication? And what means (such as nonverbal behaviors, intonation, explicit clarification, etc.) are used to signal the intended meaning? What processes are involved in judging its appropriateness in a situation? All those processes contribute to producing the message in a way that allows inferring whether it is meant as let's say a joke, or a reproach, or an offer to help.

As the intended meaning itself is determined in turn by the goals the language producer is pursuing, one might as well ask whether the communicative strategy chosen (e.g. irony, hyperbole, indirect request) is suitable to accomplish that goal. Even though the addressee might understand what was intended by an utterance, he or she doesn't necessarily act according to this intention. A request or an offer may be rejected; the child may be leaving the house without taking the jacket suggested by a caretaker, etc. Therefore, goal accomplishment (communicatively achieved) can be regarded as another possible criterion to judge how successful communication has been.

The relation between goal and intention has been discussed by Tomasello and colleagues, who propose following Bratman (1989, cited in Tomasello et al) that “an intention is a plan of action the organism chooses and commits itself to in pursuit of a goal” (2005: 676). Concerning intentional communication, an utterance meant to be ironic may serve the goal to criticize the hearer (e.g., Haverkate 1990), or just to be humorous or to tease the addressee (e.g., Pexman, Glenwright, Krol and James 2005). The ironic intention has to be recognized on the one hand, the goal behind it is another aspect of intentional communication. To give another example, the remark “there's a draught” may be understood as

an indirect request to close the window (successful communication in terms of conveying intentions); another question is whether the addressee will be fulfilling this request (successful communication in terms of goal accomplishment).

Cognitive models of message production describe several distinct stages of the process, such as (1) situation-dependent goal setting, (2) planning or “action assembly”, and (3) enactment (Berger 2007; Burleson and Planalp 2000; Dillard and Solomon 2000; Wilson 2002). A number of cognitive processes associated with them have been proposed and partially supported by empirical evidence.

Speakers often pursue multiple goals simultaneously (see Wilson and Sabeo 2003, for a review). On the one hand, goals are embedded in hierarchies: moving down the hierarchy, goals are subdivided into sub-goals – moving up the hierarchy, higher-order goals and motives explain *why* somebody attempts to achieve a particular goal in a certain situation. On the other hand, the main goals underlying an utterance (e.g., eliminating annoying noise) are often accompanied by secondary goals (e.g., being polite, setting a good example, maintaining good relations with neighbors or colleagues). Some goals may be regarded as metagoals, such as social appropriateness or efficiency (Berger 1997).

According to Wilson’s (1990) Cognitive-Rules (CR) model, associations (or “cognitive rules”) between situational features and interaction goals are represented in long-term memory. Cognitive rules are assumed to have the form of implicit if-then rules. Spreading activation within this associative network may – after reaching a certain threshold level – trigger a cognitive rule, which in turn forms a goal. In that way, multiple goals can be formed simultaneously without substantial demands on processing capacity. Goal-forming processes may account for variations in communicative competence between speakers in a number of ways: Different speakers may vary with respect to their ability to

form appropriate goals, which are accepted and recognized by other people (see Wilson and Sabee 2003, for a review), the level of specificity at which communication goals are represented in working memory (Meyer 2000), the accessibility of secondary goals (Meyer 2000, 2002), the sensitivity to a partner's goals (Berger 2000; Lakey and Canary 2002), and the flexibility to alter goals across situations (see Wilson and Sabee 2003). A review of the literature suggests that cognitive processes involved in goal-setting include the activation of goals depending on the representation of the current situation and by activating structures in long-term memory, a maintenance of goals in working memory, the representation of other people's goals based on theory of mind (see next section), the evaluation and coordination of divergent goals.

## **2.9 Communication Strategies Classified**

In second language acquisition, defining CSs is similar to defining the strategic use of IL system for communication. The FL learner resorts to CSs only when he finds difficulties in attaining a specific communicative goal through his IL system.

Tarone, Cohen and Dumas, following the psycholinguistic approach to defining CSs, referred to this phenomenon as production strategies that do not include IL comprehension, and defined it as a “. . . systematic attempt by the learner to express meaning in the target language, in situations where the appropriate target language rules have not been formed”.(1983: 5). Second language communication strategies have been regarded by CSs researchers as the procedures used because of IL deficiencies (Bialystok, 1990; Connor, 2002; Dornyei and Scott, 1997; Lewis, 2011; Nakatani 2010; Tarone, 1977). CSs were mostly described as a non-native behavior or incorrect linguistic performance to overcome the obstacles or crises that occur either when their communicative ends outrun their communicative means (Corder, 1983; Faerch and Kasper, 1983; Lewis, 2011; Paribakht, 1985), or when they have difficulties in verbalizing a mental plan as a result of a linguistic deficiency (Ataollah, 2010;

Cook, 1993; Faerch and Kasper, 1984; Mariani, 2007; Tarone, 1981; Vajradi, 1973). Following the same stream, Dornyei and Scott defined CSs as “the mismatch between L2speakers’ linguistic resources and communicative intentions (which) leads to a number of systematic language phenomenon whose main function is to handle difficulties or breakdowns in communication” (1997: 174). A wider definition which includes all types of CSs, and the one that will be adopted throughout this study, was suggested by the interactionalists Tarone, Cohen, and Dumas who defined CSs as both the production and the comprehension of the TL. They state that “Communication strategies . . . a systematic attempt by the learner to express or decode meaning in the target language, in situations where the appropriate systematic target language rules have not been formed” (1983: 5).

However, there is still controversy surrounding the definition or identification of CSs as opposed to certain types of strategies like learning and production strategies. From this background of different definitions and approaches we can conclude that no conclusive definition of this term can be provided due to the various terminologies. (For a clear comparison of the most important definitions of CSs including the ones cited above.

## **2.10 What are The Most Common Types of CSs?**

Language learners readily shift to use their hands to put their ideas across having failed to express themselves in English. They may resort to imitating sounds or simply invent new words to describe what they seek to convey. These ways of communicating are communication strategies (CSs). Classroom practitioners are often not fully informed of the merits of teaching communication strategies to their students, or if even they know the value of these strategies in communication processes they hardly train their students explicitly to use them to overcome their communicative hurdles. Teachers themselves do not employ these strategies to serve as a model to their students.

Teachers, quite frequently in classroom settings, code switch to mother tongue to explain things having experienced communicative obstruction.

When learners attempt to communicate, they may need to resort to communication strategies – hereafter CSs – in order to get their meaning across. In this paper we set out to describe and understand how learners and their interlocutors manage to achieve successful communication of their messages when a CS needs to be used in a face-to-face oral interactional context.

With the term CSs we make reference to all those techniques language learners use when, in their attempt to communicate in the foreign language with a reduced interlanguage system, they find that the target language items or structures desired to convey their messages are not available. In order to keep communication steady, learners may circumvent linguistic difficulties by changing or reducing the content of their messages. In other words, they may avoid reference to a concept or topic in order to overcome the lack of the target language term or expression needed to convey this meaning. These strategies are usually known in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) research as “avoidance” (Tarone 1981) or “reduction” (Færch and Kasper 1983; Dörnyei and Kormos 1998) CSs. More often, however, learners are able to keep their communicative goals and convey the original content of their messages by developing an alternative means of expression. For this purpose they resort to “achievement” (Færch and Kasper 1983) or “compensatory” (Poulisse et al. 1990) CSs, such as the use of an approximate term, a descriptive circumlocution, a word coinage, a native language transfer, a gesture or an appeal for assistance. These different kinds of techniques can be used to compensate for or avoid all sorts of interlanguage deficits: lexical, grammatical, pragmatic or sociolinguistic. In this study, however, attention is focused on the use of CSs to compensate for lexical difficulties, i. e. on lexical compensatory strategies.

Most research into CSs so far has focused almost exclusively on the strategies in isolation. This paper, however, will look at how the strategies operate in the context of the ongoing interaction. We approach the study of foreign language strategic interaction building on the belief that communication of meaning, whether strategic or not, is always a collaborative activity between participants (Clark and Wilkes-Gibbs 1986). For communication to succeed, speakers and addressees need to work together and coordinate their individual actions and beliefs in order to build a mutual agreement on the content of their messages. From this perspective, we consider that communicative problems arising in foreign language interaction are mutually shared problems, in the sense that their solution is the responsibility of all the interactional participants and that, subsequently, CSs need to be considered in relation to “a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared” (Tarone 1981: 288).

The study of CSs has received quite a lot of attention in the field of SLA and, as a result, a considerable amount of both theoretical and empirical research has been accumulated in this area. This work has been conducted from two main theoretical perspectives: the psycholinguistic and the interactional. Psycholinguistic researchers, interested in the cognitive processes the learner engages in when becoming aware of a linguistic difficulty, have defined CSs as internal and individual mental plans, and tried to explain CSs use by drawing on cognitive models of speech production (Færch and Kasper 1980, 1983, 1984; Bialystok 1990; Poulisse et al. 1990; Poulisse 1993, 1997; Kellerman and Bialystok 1997). Interactionist scholars, however, following Váradi (1973), Tarone (1977, 1981) and Corder (1978), have treated CSs as elements of discourse and focused their attention on the linguistic realization of CSs.

In this light, CSs have been traditionally agreed on the taxonomy presented in table 1 below, which is, in fact, a reworking of the list of strategies

proposed among others by Tarone (1977, 1980, 1981) and Poulisse (1993, 1997).

### **2.10.1 Avoidance Strategies**

- a) Topic avoidance: The speaker, lacking the necessary vocabulary to refer to an object or action, avoids any mention to it. E.g. wears a ... pair of enormous trousers' (brace)
- b) Message abandonment: The speaker begins to talk about a concept but, feeling unable to continue, stops before reaching their communicative goal. Eg. „a shirt with ... eh ... umm ... ... I don't know“(tie)
- c) Semantic avoidance: The speaker says something different from what was originally intended. Eg. „an eye mm ... very damaged“ (black eye)
- d) Message reduction: The learner reduces their original message, reports the same idea but with less precision and detail. E.g. "some kind of ... uniform" (school uniform)

### **2.10.2 Achievement Strategies**

#### **1. Paraphrase**

- a) Approximation The speaker substitutes the desired unknown target language item for a new one, which is assumed to share enough semantic features with it to be correctly interpreted. E.g. "you can see aaa ... a pigeon hole" (letterbox)
- b) Word coinage: The learner makes up a new word following the target language rules of derivation and composition. Eg. "houseshoes" (slippers)
- c) Circumlocution: The learner describes an object or action instead of using the appropriate target language item. Eg. „it's like ja- jacket without the arms?“ (waistcoat)

#### **2. Conscious Transfer**

- a) **Borrowing** The learner uses an L1 item or structure modified in accordance with the features of the target language. Eg. „a bit more ... a bit more debilish no well“ (weak)
- b) **Language switch** The speaker uses an L1 item with no modification at all. Eg. „and he has mm... umm ... unhapucha“ (cap)

### **3. Appeal for Assistance**

The learner asks the interlocutor for lexical help. E.g. „how do you call this? (chin)

### **4. Mime**

The learner uses a gesture or any other paralinguistic form. E. g. „(learner mimics knocking)“ (doorknocker)

From both perspectives, the analysis of CSs has been approached as a study of learner language. Interactionist and psycholinguistic scholars have relied on corpora of interlanguage data for the purposes of their research.

The main concerns of this kind of corpus-based research have been to identify the different types of CSs available (Tarone 1977, 1981; Færch and Kasper 1980, 1983; Poullisse et al. 1990; Poullisse 1993; Dörnyei and Kormos 1998); the factors affecting the learner's choice of specific CSs types, such as proficiency level (Tarone 1977; Bialystok 1983; Paribakht 1985; Poullisse et al. 1990; Jourdain 2000; FernándezDobao 2002, 2001 native language (Palmberg 1979; Si-Qing 1990), personality and learning style (Haastrup and Phillipson 1983; Luján-Ortega and Clark 2000; Littlemore 2001), or task-demands (Galván and Campbell 1979; Bialystok 1983; Poullisse et al. 1990; Luján- Ortega 1997; FernándezDobao 2001); the potential communicative effectiveness of the different types of strategic utterances produced by the learner (Ervin 1979; Palmberg 1982; Bialystok 1983; Poullisse et al. 1990); and finally, the possibility of instructing the foreign language learner on the effective use of CSs (Færch and Kasper 1986; Dörnyei and Thurrell 1991; Dörnyei 1995; Scullen and Jourdain 2000; Faucette 2001; Jourdain and Scullen 2000).



With these objectives in mind, researchers from both approaches have focused on the language produced by the learner. They have treated CSs as independent and isolated units of analysis, paying little or no attention at all to the interactional context in which they are used or to the possible collaboration of the interlocutor in the strategic communication of the meaning process. CSs have thus been generally studied as part of the learner's use of the language and not as the product of the interaction taking place between a learner and, at least, one other interlocutor.

In the last few years, however, new studies have appeared adopting what can be considered as a strict interactional approach to the description of CSs use. Following Yule and Tarone's (1991) claim that for a comprehensive understanding of strategic communication, attention needs to be paid to "both sides of the page", i.e. to the actions of both learners and interlocutors, scholars, such as Wagner and Firth (1997), or Anderson (1998), have tried to describe strategic communication as an interactive activity. In these studies CSs are analyzed as elements of the ongoing and co-constructed context of the interaction and their communicative function is established taking into account the actions of all the conversational participants. As already explained, like the previous authors, that strategic communication is a collaborative activity involving the joint and coordinated actions of learners and their interlocutors. We therefore adopt this same approach for the purposes of our research.

The work conducted from this perspective is still limited in scope and has not yet offered a model of analysis able to describe in a systematic way how learners and their interlocutors manage "to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (Tarone 1981: 288). However, studies carried out on L1 communication within the framework of the collaborative theory have been able to outline a theoretical framework that accounts for communication of meaning as a collaborative activity, co-constructed by the speaker and the interlocutor: the collaborative model of

communication (Clark and Wilkes-Gibbs 1986; Clark and Schaefer 1987, 1989; Wilkes-Gibbs 1997).

The starting point of the collaborative model is the assumption that communication of meaning is a “common ground” building activity (Clark and Wilkes-Gibbs 1986: 7; Clark and Schaefer 1989: 260). This mutual agreement on meaning is achieved through a “grounding process” (Wilkes-Gibbs 1997: 239), in which the addressee accepts the speaker's presentation providing some kind of evidence of their understanding, and the speaker recognizes and accepts this evidence. If addressees believe they have not been able to understand the speaker's presentation, i.e. what meaning they are trying to contribute with their utterance, they are expected to show their difficulty and initiate a “side sequence” (Clark and Wilkes-Gibbs 1986: 7; Clark and Schaefer 1989: 278). The initial presentation is then refashioned until a new version is achieved that can be correctly understood and accepted by all the interlocutors. In this view, any communicative act involves the specification and understanding of content, plus its grounding, i.e. the speaker and the addressee building the mutual belief that the content contributed to the discourse has been correctly understood and satisfactorily added to their shared common ground (Clark and Schaefer 1987: 20; 1989: 262).

In the present research which will be conducted in Sudan University-reparatory year, the researcher will draw on the collaborative model, originally designed to account for L1 non-strategic communication, to analyze foreign language strategic interaction. CSs are here described as interactional tools used by the learner and their interlocutor in order to establish a mutual agreement on a meaning when the target language lexical items desired to convey this meaning are not available. It is intended thus to explain strategic communication as a collaborative creation of meaning process involving the joint action and effort of all the conversational participants.

## 2.11 Communication Strategies Analyzed

Several definitions of communication strategies (CS) have been given by some writers. The concept was first introduced by Selinker (1972). One of the definitions most often referred to is by Tarone (1980) who considers CS to be an interactional phenomenon: "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures are not shared".

Faerch and Kasper (1983) have adopted a psycholinguistic approach that recognizes CS as a part of the planning process. communication strategies are used when the learner has problems with the original plan and cannot execute it. They recognize CS as a specialized problem-solving activity employed by an individual when faced with insufficient knowledge of the target language. Kasper and Kellerman (1997) also share the same view with regard to CS. To them, CS are conceived as mental plans by L2 learners in response to an internal signal of an imminent problem and hence they are regarded as a specialized problem-solving activity. Therefore, when L2 learners face problems in communication, they will resort to CS. However, according to Bialystok (1990), communication strategies may be used equally well in situations where no problems have arisen, as is the case when a native speaker gives a road description to a stranger using a long definition instead of the actual word.

Recent work on the approach and analysis of CS differs markedly from the research done in the past decade. Research in the past was firmly rooted in the tradition of error analysis (Selinker, 1972 and Varadi, 1973). Gradually, however, that structural, descriptive approach gave way to an increasingly more interactional one, shifting the focus to discourse analysis (Tarone, 1980; Faerch and Kasper, 1983; Bialystok, 1990). More recent work has adopted a more comprehensive analysis of discourse analysis which requires research methodology and procedures through which interactional data can be adequately elicited, collected, recorded and examined.

Faerch and Kasper (1983) see communication strategies as a self-help module within the learner, located within a model of speech production. The model has two phases: a planning phase where the plan is developed, and an execution phase where the plan is executed. If there are problems with the plan it cannot be executed. The learner in this case either avoids the problem which leads to a change of the communicative goal and this "reduction strategies", or faces the problem and develops an alternative plan which leads to "achievement strategies". Reduction strategies can be further subdivided into two types: formal reduction strategies and functional reduction strategies. The first type is used by the learner to avoid producing non-fluent or incorrect utterances which may result from insufficiently automatized hypothetical rules or items. The learner tries to avoid the communication problem by first limiting the number of words he has to speak this reducing the mistakes he might make. The functional reduction strategies are used by the learner when he experiences considerable problems in performing communicative tasks which demand speech acts such as argumentative or directive functions. He may either avoid engaging in such situations which are likely to necessitate the use of such functions or abstain from using them in communication. Other strategies employed by the learner include "topic avoidance", "message abandonment" and "meaning replacement". Achievement strategies can be seen as two types : "compensatory strategies", that is, to solve problems in the planning phase and "retrievalstrategies", that is, to get hold of the missing term. The subtypes of compensatory strategies are based on a different code ("code-switching" and "interlingual transfer"), a different code and interlanguage (IL) code ("inter-/intralingual transfer"), only the IL code ("generalization", "paraphrase", "word coinage" and "restructuring"), discourse phenomena ("cooperative strategies") or non-linguistic communication ("mime"and, "gestures").

Another researcher on CS, Bialystok (1990) looks at communication strategies within general models of cognitive organization and processing.

Bialystok expressed her theory based on the distinction between "analysis" (or knowledge) and "control". Bialystok's analysis-based strategy is "an attempt to convey the structure of the intended concept by making explicit the relational defining features". The speaker modifies the content of the message by using his knowledge about the concept, for example, to give information about it. A control-based strategy is "the manipulation of form of expression through attention to different sources of information".

Yule and Tarone (1997), from a more interactional perspective, present a classification of lexical communication strategies. and refined the list of strategies that learners use. the communication strategies into They have expanded They have classified three types "achievement/compensatory" , "reduction" and "interactive". Achievement strategies include "approximation", "semantic contiguity", "circumlocution", "explication", "over explicitness", "repetition", "exemplification", "restructuring", "borrowing", "foreignizing", "literal translation" and "word coinage". The second type, reduction strategies, can be subdivided into 4 types: "message abandonment", "message replacement", "topic avoidance" and "formal reduction". The last type isinteractive which includes "appeal for assistance", "mime" and "gesture".

In order to elicit CS from speech production, many kinds of reference tasks have been used in CS studies. To name a few, concrete picture description tasks (real-world objects) have been widely used in both first and second language acquisition research (Bialystok, 1983; Tarone and Yule, 1987 and Poulisse, 1990). The real-world objects are shown to a language learner who has to describe them to another interlocutor. Concept-identification tasks were used to stimulate a wider range of CS. Not only are concrete lexical items used as referents, but abstract concepts also are included as well. Other tasks are story-telling (Dechert, 1983; Poulisse, 1990), and direction-giving (Lloyd, 1997). The most naturalistic CS elicitation methods are oral interviews and conversations (Haastrup and Phillipson, 1983; Poulisse, 1990).

## 2.12 Speaking Skills

Of all the basic four skills, speaking seems intuitively the most important people who know the language are referred as speakers ' of that language as if speaking included all other skills ; and may , if not , foreign language learner are primarily interested in learning to speak.

In this regard Swan (1996: 1) referred to all those who are interested in English at the globe as speakers of English: People learn English in different parts of the world, under different conditions and for different purpose.... However, most people who speak English have learned this a long side another language as a second language or as a mother tongue.

Perhaps human beings have a natural tendency to look at speaking as a major index of language proficiency. Indeed by our common inquiry, do you speak English? we don't mean to exclude other kinds of knowing but when we think of a child acquiring his MT, speaking comes as the first productive activity followed by listening as a passive activity. This natural order seems to be applicable in EFL learning context.

Moreover, it is one of the primary principles of modern linguistics that spoken language is more basic than the written language. This does not mean, however, that language is to be identified with speaking alone. A distinction must be drawn between language signals and the medium in which these signals are expressed. Thus what is written can be read aloud orally and what is spoken can be written down.

Many linguists are inclined to make vocal signals as the defining feature of natural language, for they see it as their responsibility to correct the bias of traditional grammar and traditional language teaching.

Until recently grammarians have been concerned almost exclusively with literary style and usage as the norm and have taken little account of or condemned colloquial usage as ungrammatical.

In fact the origins of the great literary languages are derived from the spoken languages of particular communities. Therefore, Lyons (1981: 11) considers the primacy of speech over writing in the following terms:

- 1- **Historical Priority:** There is no human society known to have managed without the capacity of speech.
- 2- **Structural Priority:** In terms of correspondence of phonology to graphology, spoken language is structurally more basic.
- 3- **Biological Priority:** Human beings are genetically predisposed not only to acquire language but also as a part of the programme, to produce and perceive speech sounds.

Despite the priority of spoken language, according to Brown and Yule (1983 b: 1), for the most of its history language teaching has been based mainly, on the analysis of the written language and its features. This has influenced the models of acquisition learners were exposed to. Most of the texts selected to study were nearly all written in the late nineteenth and earlier twentieth centuries and were selected from writers who wrote Standard English.

Spoken language as a subject for teaching EL began to be considered decisively after the end of the Second World War. Initially, major attention was devoted to the teaching of pronunciation, first in isolation, then in short isolated sentences. Later on, stress patterns were added and eventually practice of intonation patterns. During the last three decades, however, teaching of spoken skill has improved relatively on a world wide scale. Students are not only taught to pronounce, but they are given practice in listening to examples of carefully spoken English with practice on identification of selected features. Moreover, many courses have begun to use extracts from texts of authentic conversation; radio broad casts, lectures etc. instead of using written texts read aloud. Rather than basing their oral production on the written mode, learners are encouraged to use the spoken language forms spontaneously. This dramatic development provides many learners with the ability to communicate naturally with speakers

of the FL practically. However, teachers face many hurdles due to lack of a tried — and ---- tested teaching tradition to depend upon, for example:

- 1- What is the appropriate variety of spoken English to give learners to practice in?
- 2- How important is pronunciation? Is it more important than teaching appropriate handwriting in the FL?
- 4- Is it possible to give learners any sort of meaningful practice in producing the spoken language?
- 5- 4- How are the materials for listening comprehension to be selected? Can they be graded?
- 6- What is to be done about the frequent redundancy and ungrammaticality of spontaneous native speech? Bends the rules by the native speakers? Talk about performance variability? The list of potential problems in teaching speaking is limitless, for there is no influential description of spoken English comparable in status to the grammars of written English. In addition, speech variability is due to dialectal diversity (geographical or social dialects). For example , the speech of Scots is different from ' RP ' in many aspects .The speech of different age groups is also different ; the speech of highly educated adults who spend their lives immersed in written language may frequently have a great deal in common with the written language . It is not surprising since they spend so much of their time reading and writing it. If one only listen to speech produced by these people as they are speaking fluently and confidently on matters they have expressed themselves on many times before, it would not be unreasonable to assume that teaching speaking skill, does indeed only mean teaching the learners to speak the written language with a few features of spoken phrases.

However, the normally every day speech of most people in the native language context dose not strongly resemble written language. It is clearly the



case that the vast majority of speakers of English are not written language immersed therefore they produce speech which includes the features of spoken language.

## 2.13 Features of Spoken English

According to Brown, G. and G. Yule (1983) Geddes (1988), Debska (1983), Thornbury (1999), Brown, (1994 b), spoken English has special idiosyncrasies which it different from the written English and which in turn make listening somewhat difficult to acquire. Some of these basic differences are listed below:

**1- The Sounds:** In English as with other languages, there are sounds which do not exist in EFL learner's languages. Therefore they fail to distinguish them from other familiar sounds or even fail to hear them at all. Learners may have difficulty with the vowel sounds of English and need more practice in distinguishing between them for example, sit /seat; foot / food. Fortunately, context helps in making out such distinctions.

**2- Stress, Rhythm, Intonation and Paralinguistic Features:** These are some of the most important features of English pronunciation. The English language derives much of its rhythm from the use of stressed syllables, with purpose of highlighting words which carry the main information the speaker wishes to convey, and changing the stress can alter the meaning of an utterance even where the words remain the same.

**3- Organization:** Speaking is a creative process. When people speak naturally they know what they want to say but often they intuitively improvised how they are going to say it. Therefore they are, almost always, in the position of formulating and adjusting their speech in midstream against the feedback they receive from their listeners, or as a result of added thoughts of their own.

**4- Hesitations, Pauses and Fillers:** When people are thinking of what they want to say they use expression such as " er / um/ " actually " etc. Simply

to avoid long silence, which is generally thought to be rather embarrassing in English speech? Silent pauses, voice — filled pauses and fillers also give listeners time to think about what has just been said and relate it to what has gone before.

**5- Reduced Forms:** Contractions, elision, ellipsis etc are some of the grammatical features of spoken English.

**6- Colloquialism:** It is a good idea to acquaint EFL learners with words, idioms and phrases of colloquial English and that they get practice in producing these forms.

**7- Formality / Informality:** Normally a distinction is made between the language spoken in ' formal ' situations and the language used in 'informal' situations, for example, a lecture and chat between friends.

A lecture is expected to consist of a well organized speech using more structural language than would be heard in ordinary conversation, because most public speakers plan in advance. Therefore the language they use pertains more to written language that is used in every day talk and is often described as ' formal ' contrasted with ' informal ' language.

Formality / informality can be viewed as a continuum with ranges of levels , the usage of which is determined by nuances of variables such as the social setting , the relative ages , sexes , and status of the speaker and listener , their attitudes to each other and the topic , their shared background knowledge , and the physical context .

Many EFL learners have limited exposure to the English in informal contexts .In the classroom they tend to use formal language because this is what is expected when teachers and students talk to each other, and so they face difficulty in the production and perception of informal spoken discourse. Particularly they have particularly difficulty when switching from one level of

usage to another. Similarly, for the FL listener judging the importance of these informal utterances is a problem.

## **2.14 Types of Spoken English**

Conventionally, many course books when attempting to teach speaking focus mainly on the analysis of the mechanism of conversation. However other types are also important. For example, monologues, either planned (as speeches, lectures and news broad casts) or unplanned (as improvised speech), where by hearers must process long stretches of speech without interruption. Dialogues may be classified into interpersonal familiar / unfamiliar, with the purpose of promoting social relations or transactional familiar / unfamiliar, to convey propositional and factual information; Brown (1994 a: 238). In each case interlocutors may have a good deal of shared knowledge, background information and cultural schemata and information. Therefore, the familiarity of the interlocutors will produce speeches with more assumptions, implication of hidden meanings. However, speeches among unfamiliar participants call for more explicitness of reference and meanings in order for effective oral communication to take place. Brown, G. and Yule (1983 a), distinguish between two types of spoken discourse:

### **a. Interactional**

The emphasis is mainly on creating aphetic communion between the participants rather than on communicating information. The goal for the participants is to establish social relations and make interaction comfortable and non-threatening.

**b. Transactional** It involves message oriented language usage fundamentally common to most uses of written language. In order to prepare pupils to cope with these wider social and functional needs, teachers must also look for ways of extending the possibilities for communicative interaction in the classroom. Pupils might be asked to imagine themselves in real life situations,

from simple occurrence like meeting a friend in the street to much more complex events such as business negotiations.

## **2.15 Phases of Spoken English**

Speaking activities are to be carefully planned in systematic gradation, right from the mechanical phonological level up to conversation classes. According to Littewood ( 1981 : 50 ), Gower et al ( 1995 : 100 ), Broughton et al ( 1994 : 65 ) , oral production can be divided into three phases : controlled , guided and free . Practice should always be seen in relation to the functional and communicative use to which the learners will have to put their spoken English . The speech produced by the learners should be tightly controlled at first by the teacher then as progress is made there should be lesser rigorous teacher intervention until a situation is reached where the learners are free to use appropriate language creatively :

### **1- The Controlled Phase of Oral Production**

Repetitive practice of phonological, lexical and grammatical items prompted by picture or word cues to improve accuracy and to foster confidence are examples of controlled activities . One of the important techniques for controlled practice at both presentation and practice stage is the dialogue. Dipietro (1986: 70) points to its importance as an effective tool for teaching the lexical, grammatical and even stylistic levels of language, in the attempt to improve speaking. He argues that: "The dialogue is a pedagogic device or tool which might be used in a number of ways with the aim of improving communicative competence".

Dialogue has farther advantages in that it can be used whether guided or free, and by its nature it is a language interaction between people which fulfills communicative criteria. Activities in dialogues can be graded from controlled, less controlled to free creative language production, (Little wood, 1981: 50). Communicative oral practice applies not only to substitution dialogues but also

to other purely manipulative exercises. They become more valuable when directed to talking about real events and potential language needs of the learners. For example, when they are practicing talking about likes and dislikes they can be chosen from a number of activities (going to the theatre, playing football, etc), things they really like doing rather than mechanically repeating.

**2-The Guided Phase of Oral Production:** It aims at giving the learners a limited freedom to use and practice what they have learned , yet still be subjected to some restrains . For example, model dialogues which the learners can change to talk about themselves and to communicate their own needs and ideas; tasks which the learners carry out using language structures and / or vocabulary which has been taught beforehand. The level of the learners usually determines the nature of language control. Indeed it is very helpful to provide the general situation and context of what is to be said and allow some freedom in the mode of expression. Learners can be asked to perform the dialogue in different ways and in different moods: for example, sad, happy, bored, etc. Then the actual words and ideas of the text can be substituted. For less confident learners guided oral practice through dialogue is an effective means to get them saying utterances within a wide variety of contexts.

**3- The Free Phase of Oral Production:** It is the final phase in language production stages. It involves the activities designed to make the learners produce naturally the language which has been presented to them and which they have practiced in various, more or less controlled situations. These activities usually cater for providing either creative practice opportunities for practical language items, or general fluency practice where accuracy is less relevant. At more advanced levels learners feel they have the basic machinery to say what they want rather than what they are channeled into saying, and therefore they insist on moving rapidly to free production. Usually the teacher plays a vital role in planning a free stage to follow the introduction and more

controlled practice of language items. For example, a discussion about favorite television programs can follow the presentation and practice of vocabulary items such as comedy, soap opera, documentary, etc. Group work is an effective tool for minimizing introversion and visual stimuli (such as maps, photographs, pictures, cartoons, even slides and films) are useful initiators of free oral production.

The most important point, however, is that learners must have a reason for communicating in order for the activity to be truly communicative. Gower et al (1995: 101) contend that there must be either an opinion or information gap: (I don't know what do you think about this topic) and / or (you have some information I need to know). This gap should be carefully planned for successful O.C.

Moreover, other types of stimulus include authentic written texts, for example, magazines, popular news papers etc., and aural stimuli, from sample of spoken English in form of dialogues. Materials with English culture and some aspects of the native culture can be exploited by the teacher in any achievable way in the classroom.

Visually attractive magazines and materials from media are some examples for excellent stimuli to animate O.C. Freer activities, however, need careful planning, by carefully setting up tasks (role — play, picture description, debate, etc) and providing the reasons, purpose and guidelines within which the learners can speak more freely Gower et al (1995: 103) advocate that the teachers should plan and monitor creating speaking activities at three stages: before, during and after the activity as follows : A)

### **A. Before The Activity**

I — Decide on your aims .....

II — Try to predict what the students will bring to the activity .

III — Prepare the materials.

IV — Work out your instructions.

## **B. During the Activity**

- 1- Arouse the students' interest through visuals, a short lead — in talk, a newspaper headline, etc. Try to relate the topic to the students own interest and experience.
- 2- Remind students of any structures or vocabulary that might be useful. 3- Monitor the activity: don't interrupt except to provide help and encouragement if necessary.
- 4- Evaluate the activity and the students' performance in order to provide feedback later but don't jump in with instant corrections .

## **C. After the Activity**

- 1- Indicate how each person communicated, comment on how fluent each was, how well they argued, as a group.
- 2- If possible, record the activity on audio or video cassette and play it back for discussion.
- 3- Note down recurrent errors in grammar, pronunciation, use of vocabulary, and appropriateness. Individual mistakes might be discussed ( in private ) with the students concerned . Mistakes which are common to the class can be mentioned and then practiced another day when there is a chance to prepare a suitable remedial lesson.

The guidelines at the three stages are by no means exhaustive lists. Teachers may manage their speaking class creatively according to the level of the learners and availability of teaching materials. More serious speaking activities, such as discussions, role plays, simulations and information gap activities can be used. Boredom can be avoided by including less serious tasks such as games, songs and puzzles.

## **2.16 Affective Factors in Oral Production**

One of the major obstacles learners have to overcome in learning to speak is the anxiety generated by the risks of producing utterances that are wrong,

stupid or incomprehensible. Because of the language ego that informs people that **(you are what you speak)**. Learners are reluctant to be judged by hearer using poor language. Therefore it is not surprising that they assume that **"it is better to keep your mouth closed and let others think you are ignorant"** than to open it and remove all doubt. When we look at typical language learning classroom, it is no wonder that we find so many learners suffering from what Stervick calls lathophobi aphasia. According to Altis( 1976 ) ( cited in Roger , 1979 : 22 ) , it is defined as the " Unwillingness to speak for fear of making mistakes ". The experience of being called upon to stand up and speak is psychologically threatening for many foreign language learners.

In this regard, Rivers, (1983: 22) contends that sensitive teachers always recognize the vital role tension, anxiety and emotion play in communicating orally in a FL. Unless the teacher establishes a friendly atmosphere and provides a kind of warm embracing climate that encourages the learners to feel at ease with him / her and their fellow learners, and be relaxed within themselves, they withdraw from expressing what they really think in a FL.

## **2.17 Correction of Speech Errors**

To encourage learners to express themselves orally in an FL, the teacher has to restrain any urge to intervene at every slip of the tongue, hesitation or false start. It is inhibiting, hampering and frustrating beyond belief to be consistently checked and corrected when the learner is struggling with ideas in an FL. In fact, some learners are afraid of the criticism or losing face or are simply shy of the attention their speech attracts when they speak in long turns. It is during the controlled and guided phases of oral production, that immediate correction should be made. It is then that learners are made conscious of possible errors and can be familiarized with acceptable sequences. Then they are enabled to monitor their own production and work towards its refinement in spontaneous interaction.



## **2.18 Mother Tongue Use**

In classes where all or a number of the learners share the same MT , they may tend to use it because it is easier and it feels unnatural to speak to one another in a FL. However, the teacher can persuade the learners to use the FL as an effective means for satisfying their communicative needs if he uses it himself in and outside the classroom to satisfy communicative needs.

### **1. Visual Stimuli and Oral Production**

Visuals represent a very useful source for the stimulation of speech production in the EFL classroom. A stimulus is something that is intended to encourage the learners to speak, usually by providing a subject, an object or a picture to talk about .After all, verbal language is only a part of the way, we usually get meaning from contexts. Things we see play an enormous part in affecting our feeling and thought and giving us information. We predict, deduce and infer not only from the reservoir of what we remember having seen. Visuals are not just an aspect of method, but through their representation of the social and physical contexts - places, objects and people - they motivate the learners to get involved in O.C. and create a specific reference point of stimulus and interest. Many types of visual stimuli can contribute to a sense of language context, for example, pictures, photographs, doodles, symbols and maps, etc.

## **2.19 Pictures and Photographs**

Pictures are important stimuli of speaking activities. Wright (1989: 17)

Outlines some roles for pictures when the emphasis is on the stimulation of the speaking skill:

- 1- Pictures can motivate the student and make him or her want to pay attention and want to take part.
- 2- Pictures contribute to the context in which the language is being used. They bring the world into the classroom for instance, (a street scene, a train).

3- Pictures can cue response to questions or cue substitutions through controlled practice.

4- Pictures can stimulate and provide information to be referred to in conversation, discussion and storytelling.

The English language teacher can, with little effort, build up a rich picture library. Learners themselves can be asked to bring pictures for the picture library from different sources.

Pictures provide challenging opportunities for the learners to use language communicatively and authentically as they try to describe, identify, compare, match, order and memorize the components. Subjectively, pictures can provide opportunities for the expression of experiences, feelings and personal opinion. Wright (ibid: 109) suggests non finality and mystery of speculative pictures, if enthusiastic speech production to gather momentum:

" . . . . . picture chosen for speculation must be ambiguous, and most importantly, the teacher must not have a fixed interpretation of the picture This would restrict the imagination of the students . . . . ."

Different interpretations give strong impetus for speaking and listening. Photographs or painting from color magazines are rich source of such materials~ or the teacher may make his own. For instance, pictures for one person simulate conjecture as to what sort of person he is pictures of famous people can be used to talk, for instance, about their identities: reasons for their fame, achievement, evaluation of what they have done/ are doing.

## **2.20 Symbols and Maps**

Pictures of symbols and maps can be found in road traffic booklets, geography books, and journals, etc. They are very helpful aids for stimulation of speech production. For example, general things to talk about may include: what does a certain symbol mean? How do you think? How can you get there?. All these questions coupled with pictures are likely to stimulate students to produce speech.

## 2.21 Stick Drawings and Cartoons

Many actions can be portrayed by simple stick drawing of people, animals and objects. For instance, a simple country scene involving the drawing of cows, trees, rivers or and indoor scene involving the positions of furniture and simple objects might form a useful basis for speaking activity.

It is useful to build up an interesting story instead of limiting the oral production stimuli to unrelated drawings. On the other hand, humorous cartoon strips cut out of magazines, newspapers and old books are potentially useful sources for stimulating speech. First of all, the teacher can ask questions to help the learner grasp the meaning of a cartoon strip. Advanced students can discuss the technique of the cartoonist in his / her representation of the people and the setting and the relationship between drawings and words. The teacher and / or the learner can draw their own cartoons and stick figures on the board without preparation, and images on it are immediately visible to the whole class. Wright (ibid: 206) contends that the greatest advantage of the board is that "pictures can grow before one's eyes and parts can be erased and substituted" This flexibility makes it possible to cue for varied types of practice and provides a creative stimulus for more open speaking.

Cundale (1999: 37) outlines the usefulness of visuals in stimulating learners to communicate orally whether they are working as a class , in groups or in pairs Firstly, they provide accessible input and contextualization for the learners. Secondly, visuals are very economical stimuli in that the teacher is able to greatly reduce his / her talking when introduction or developing a topic. Thirdly, in animated oral involvement; learners usually focus on the content of what they say, not on language per se. It has been argued that in such conditions, language acquisition takes place, Krashen (1982 b). Fourthly, it is known that students learn in different ways and obviously pictures help those who are visually oriented Finally , visuals are effective means for bringing the outside world into the classroom and generating the desire to speak , even on

reading the newspapers in our first language , they are the first thing that attract our attention The importance of visual stimuli led Wright (1989:212) to advocate formation of picture files, as part of the teachers' visual resources for later use.

The use of visuals in the EFL classroom is, therefore, not only innovatory but also an indispensable for motivating the learners and promoting practice in O. C.

## **2.22 Interaction**

Through decades the role of the students has been changing from a receptive agent (Behaviorism) to more active one (Interactionism). This is why cognitive approaches emphasize the importance of what the learner brings to any learning situation as an active meaning-maker and problem-solver. Thus, the learner plays a central role in this model. Examination of humanistic approaches emphasizes also the development of the whole person in educational settings and to suggest that language teaching/learning can and should be seen in this light. Social interactionism emphasizes the dynamic nature of the interplay between teachers, learners and tasks, and provides a view of learning as arising from interactions with others. Since learning never takes place in isolation, it is also recognized the importance of the learning environment or context within which the learning takes place.

Williams and Burden (1997) have identified four key sets of factors which influence the learning process Teachers, learners, and tasks and contexts. However, none of these factors exists in isolation. They all interact as part of a dynamic, ongoing process.

Teachers choose tasks which reflect their beliefs about teaching and learning. Learners interpret tasks in ways that are meaningful and personal to them as individuals. The task is therefore, the interface between the teacher and the learners. Teachers and learners also interact with each other. Besides that,

the context plays an important role here since according to it, the tasks have special characteristics and parameters to be developed.

The way that teachers behave while teaching reflects their values and beliefs and the way in which learners react to teachers will be affected by the individual characteristics of the learners and the feelings that the teacher conveys to them. These three elements: teacher, task and learner are in this way in dynamic equilibrium (Williams and Burden, 1997).

## **2.23 Defining Classroom Interaction**

Learning a foreign language, like the learning of anything else, is essentially an individual achievement, and exploitation of the capacities of the brain to make sense of the environment. But typically this private process takes place in the public context of the classroom, the individualism of one of a group, a member of the class, and the activities which are to set the process are determined by the teacher. The assumption is that this internal process of learning will come about as a consequence of the external interaction which takes place between the two kinds of participants: the teacher on the one hand and the learners on the other. To be in agreement with the preceding views; subsequently, it is necessary then to talk about different aspects such as: Classroom action, Action and actual reaction, Classroom interaction and Cooperation and conflict.

### **2.23.1 Classroom Action**

This aspect refers to the plans teachers have in order to develop their classes, so as to establish what they want to do in their lessons by means of having a clear idea of the aim of the lesson. Therefore a good plan for classroom action is a first step to succeed in the teaching goals.

### **2.23.2 Action-Reaction**

After having a plan of action, the next step is to put this plan into action, from which the students are expected to evoke some sort of reaction. Teaching is undertaken so that learning can occur. Hence the success of any

lesson can be best judged in terms of the learning that results from it and in terms of the kind of interaction learners and teacher have.

### **2.23.3 Actual Classroom Interaction**

The first two above-mentioned aspects do not constitute quality interaction. On the contrary, they need to be implemented in order to have quality interaction. Interaction is more than action followed by reaction, it is acting reciprocally, acting upon each other; that is to say, the teacher acts upon the students, but the class reaction subsequently modifies his next action and so on. The learners' reaction becomes in itself an action evoking a reaction in the teacher, which influences his/her subsequent action. There is a constant pattern of mutual influence and adjustment (Malamah-Thomas, 1988).

### **2.24 Communication Strategies vs. language learning Strategies**

One of the principle confusions in the field of SLA research is the distinction between CSs and LLSs. Some authors regard them as synonymous as a result of the identical data used in investigating both terms (utterances of IL speakers). The degree of difficulty to distinguish those two interrelated terms is reflected in Corder's explanation:

This is particularly the case with features of an utterance which bears a resemblance to features of the speaker's mother tongue. They may be regular characteristics of his language at the time of study, in which case they could be supposed to result from the Interlanguage grammar which he has created himself, and are therefore the product of a strategy of learning (1983: 19).

On one hand, CSs are considered as the product of a strategy of learning, and one might argue that CSs may hurdle acquisition and help the learner develop skills to compensate for his/her linguistic deficiencies (Ellis, 2000). Others like Tarone propose a contrasting point of view and conclude that

“Learning may result from the use of a communication strategy . . .” (1980: 420).

On the other hand, LLSs that were first described and defined in the 1979s in studies on good learners by (Rubin, 1987; Wong-Fillmore, 1979). These studies presented LLSs as an act of processing input to develop linguistic knowledge, and as techniques or devices that learners may use to acquire language (Rubin, 1987). Hardly ever contrasted with communication strategies, learning strategies were introduced to the field of language learning and teaching as the conscious, intentional individual behaviors or skills that distinguish learners and which can be learnt and improved since as Weinstein, Husman and Dierking explained “learning strategies include any thoughts, behaviors, beliefs or emotions that facilitate the acquisition, understanding or later transfer of new knowledge and skills” (2000: 727). Other researchers (Tarone, 1977; Vradi, 1973) looked upon CSs from a different perspective, defining them as conscious attempts to convey the learner’s ideas when his interlanguage fails to do so. This explains that the only way to distinguish CSs from LLSs is to describe them in terms of function. That is, language learning strategies are those used to achieve learning, and communication strategies are the ones that aim at avoiding communicative breakdowns (Tarone, 1984). Still, the distinction between the two terms is not clear; the difference cannot be explained adequately; and there is little consensus in the literature concerning the relationship between CSs and LLSs. As Littlewood holds “(One issue) about which we have no precise knowledge is the nature of the relationship between CSs and learning” (1984: 40) because of the complexity and the ambiguity of the learning process.

It follows from that all these competing definitions we can conclude that the identification of CSs, as opposed to LLSs, may be speculative since no empirical investigation has proved to get to the clear-cut criteria that define CSs with respect to LLSs.

## **2.25 Plans for Accomplishing Communicative Goals**

In the process stage of planning, the communicative goal is transformed into the plan of action chosen to achieve that goal. Plans for accomplishing communicative goals may vary widely in complexity. They may consist of a large number of hierarchically organized subgoals and steps involved in the preparation of a speech or in the arrangement of an appointment. They may also consist in the simple planning of a short sarcastic answer to a request. Planning complexity varies not only in dependence on situational demands, but also between speakers (Berger 1997). A higher level of plan complexity may be related to higher communicative competence if required by situational contingencies; however, it may also have debilitating effects on communication effectiveness, if plans for communication are so complex that they cannot be executed efficiently (see Berger 1997). The complexity of plans is also dependent on cognitive resource limitations and therefore affected by cognitive loads through too many goals or ambiguous situations (Waldron 1990).

## **2.26 Requirements of Planning**

Planning entails also the aspect of selecting parts of the activated pieces of knowledge for explicit verbalization. In Herrmann's (1983; see also Herrmann and Grabowski 1994) socially situated speech production model, selection, linearization and elaboration processes operate on the activated conceptual structures (for a distinction between speech production and message production, see Greene and Graves 2007). For example, to convey a request, the speaker might choose to express the own need, or the addressee's ability. An elaboration of activated knowledge structures might lead to a negation, or to a hyperbolic or an ironic expression. According to Action Assembly Theory (AAT), the conceptual structures underlying message planning consist of huge hierarchical networks in long-term memory, the "procedural records", which represent features of actions linked with situational conditions (Greene 1997).



The subset of records that undererlies the speaker's meaning to be conveyed (such as promising, or giving directions) is selected by receiving activation from already activated situational nodes and other feature-of-action nodes. A second process, "assembly" or "coalition formation" (see also Greene, Kirch and Grady 2000), integrates activated features of action into larger complexes of action specifications (a string of words, a syntactic frame linked with a particular noun and a particular verb, or specific activated words linked with the according motor programs). Greene (2006) assumes that the generation of utterance plans using the processes of activation and assembly can be based on either a complete retrieval from long-term memory (called "selection") or a novel construction (called "creation"), or a mixture of both. (Note that the term "selection" is used here for different processes than in Herrmann's account).

Further cognitive processes involved in the planning of messages include anticipatory processes concerning the implications of actions and potential obstacles (Berger 1997; Waldron 1997; Wilson 1990) as well as executive control processes needed for planning, specifically those involved in monitoring, editing, and rehearsal (Jordan 1998). Therefore, problems with executive control hinder a speaker's ability to control planning processes in message production. In accordance with these considerations, research in neuropragmatics and neuropsychology has provided evidence for communicative consequences of executive dysfunction (such as impairments in goal setting, planning, inhibition of response and self-monitoring; Ylvisaker and Szekeres 1989). Similarly, executive function skills have proven important for the acquisition of alternative modes of communication in people with severe aphasia (Nicholas, Sinotte and Helm-Estabrooks2005).

Action assembly theory also deals with the enactment of communicative plans. The hierarchical networks assumed in that theory extend to the very lowlevel nodes representing the configuration of concrete muscle movements (for facial expression, vocal articulation, or gestures). Sophisticated models of

enactment based on a huge amount of empirical results concerning grammatical encoding, lexical access, phonological encoding, and phonetic encoding have been developed within speech production research (e.g., Bock 1982; Dell, Chang and Griffin 1999; Dell, Schwartz, Martin, Saffran and Gagnon 1997; Herrmann 1983; Levelt 1989; Levelt, Roelofs and Meyer 1999). Linguistic aspects of utterance production affecting intention understanding include pronunciation (e.g., Rosin and Swift 1999) and intonation (e.g., Chung 1988).

Several other – mainly motivational and emotional – factors have been shown to influence message production, including collaborative engagement (Tomasello et al. 2005), the ability to establish co-membership with the interlocutor by making the interaction more personalized (Kerekes 2006), stresscoping and self-esteem (Cegala and Waldron 1992), as well as transient mood (Forgas and Tehani 2005).

## **2.27 Speech Acts Production**

People typically use their words to do things, to perform certain actions. Conversational turns are used to criticize and compliment, to thank and apologize, and so on. Moreover, speakers usually intend to have their intentions to perform these actions recognized by the listeners. Although there may be times when we want to be deliberately ambiguous (see below), we generally want our addressees to know that they are being thanked, complimented or criticized. This is what Grice (1957) referred to as a reflexive intention, or an intention that is intended to be recognized.

## **2.28 Locution and Illocutionary**

The approach to language that captures this dimension most clearly is speech act theory (Austin 1962; Searle 1969). Although speech act theorists differ on certain points, there is general agreement that speakers are typically performing multiple acts when they use language. At one level they are performing a locutionary act – the uttering of a string of words that constitutes a

well-formed utterance with a specifiable sense and reference. The performance of a locutionary act involves the traditional domains of syntax and semantics. At a second level a speaker, by producing a locutionary act, is also performing a specifiable illocutionary act. That is, she is performing a particular action (or speech act) that she intends to have the recipient recognize by virtue of his understanding of the locutionary act. Finally, the performance of an illocutionary act will typically elicit a particular effect in the recipient – this is referred to as a perlocutionary act. A request, for example, may elicit compliance, complaints or crying. Note that although illocutionary and perlocutionary acts are clearly related (i.e., speakers generally intend to bring about a certain perlocutionary effect in their interlocutors), perlocutionary effects can extend far beyond what was intended by the speaker.

The ability to produce and comprehend illocutionary force (or speech acts) is critical for successful language use. This entails, of course, the ability to construct a well-formed, sensible, utterance (the illocutionary act). Although necessary, this capability is not sufficient for successful language use. For example, a computer can be programmed to produce and comprehend grammatical utterances (locutionary acts) but its ability to use these acts in any meaningful way (as illocutionary acts) can still be nil (e.g., Dreyfus 1992). For speakers, the problem is to construct an utterance that will successfully perform a particular speech act, with success being defined as the recipient recognizing the speaker's intention to have that speech act recognized.

To perform speech acts, then, interlocutors must also possess some type of action grammar, a set of rules specifying what actions are allowable in various contexts and how those actions can be performed with language. Thus, one needs to know that language can be used to convey one's commitment to a future course of action (commissives such as threat and promise) and that such commitments are helpful when one's interlocutor is unsure of one's future course of action (e.g., reassure). And one must know that the utterance

performing such an action needs to be in the first person future tense. And one should know that directives can be used in an attempt to alter the behavior of the recipient. And so on.

Language use is intentional behavior. Speakers formulate their utterances with the goal of having their intentions recognized and recipients process a speaker's remarks with the goal of recognizing those intentions. To do this successfully requires a variety of skills. There is basic linguistic competence, of course – the phonological, morphological, and syntactic competencies that are required to use language. However, to use language to communicate successfully requires much more than linguistic competence (Hymes 1972). One must be able to translate intentions into words and do so in such a way that those intentions will be recognized by the recipient. And recipients must be able to engage in reasoning processes in order to recognize the speaker's intention. And all interactants must be able to do this in such a way so as to avoid offending each other. It is these skills – what is often referred to as pragmatic competence (Bachman 1990) – I assume that language is goal-directed behavior, with the goals existing at varying levels of abstraction. There are high level goals such as face management (Goffman 1967) that are almost always operative, as well as lower level goals (speech acts) that are associated with a single turn or set of turns. I will use the concept of goals as a means of organizing this chapter. I first take the speaker's perspective and consider lower level goals. After a brief review of relevant concepts (illocutionary force) from speech act theory (Searle 1969), I discuss the linguistic mechanisms by which speakers can convey their intentions (and perform speech acts). I then consider high level goals, focusing particularly on the concepts of face management and politeness (Brown and Levinson 1987). I discuss the role played by face management in the construction of conversation turns and how this can affect – and sometimes hinder – the performance of lower level (speech act) goals. I then turn to the listener and discuss the cognitive processes involved in the

recognition of the speaker's lower-level goals (speech acts). This is followed by a discussion of the role of high-level goals such as face management in the recognition of the speaker's intention. Finally, in a conclusion section I consider some of the obstacles that speakers and listeners must overcome to use language successfully.

## **2.29 Implicit vs. Explicit Speech Acts**

Speech act performance is complicated by the fact that there is no one-to-one mapping between illocutionary force and a specific utterance. For example, "Shut the door," "Is it possible to have the door shut?" and "It's noisy in here" are all acceptable utterances (in the appropriate contexts) for performing a request that the listener shut a door. One important distinction can be made between explicit and implicit speech acts. Explicit speech acts are relatively clear and direct and include the relevant performative verb, the verb that names the speech act that it performs. Hence, one can perform the act of promising to do the dishes by saying "I promise to do the dishes." Language use would be far less complicated if speech acts could be performed only with performative verbs. However, people often perform speech acts indirectly, with implicit speech acts. These are speech acts that do not contain the relevant performative verb. For example, explicit speech acts such as "I promise to do it" and "I forbid you to do it" could also be performed implicitly with "I guarantee that I'll have it finished tomorrow" and "You are not allowed to do that again," neither of which contain the performative verbs "promise" and "forbid."

What do speakers need to know in order to perform implicit speech acts? Implicit performatives (and explicit performatives as well) typically trade on the felicity conditions that underlie the speech act one is intending to perform. In a series of studies I assessed how speakers of English typically generate implicit performatives (Holtgraves 2005a). Participants were asked to imagine themselves in various situations and to then indicate how they would perform a particular speech act (request, warn, apologize, etc.) with the stipulation that

they could not use the performative verb. For example, if they were to apologize they could not use “apologize” in their utterance. These utterances were then shown to a different group of participants who were asked to indicate what speech act was being performed. Those speech acts that were correctly recognized at a rate exceeding 38 % were then analyzed in terms of their underlying linguistic structure. As expected, most of these implicit performatives were performed by referencing the felicity conditions that underlied the intended speech act. For example, directives (ask, invite, etc.) were typically performed by questioning the recipient’s ability to perform a future action (e.g., Do you know the time?; Can you come over for dinner tomorrow night?). These mechanisms have long been studied in terms of indirect requests (Gordon and Lakoff 1975). Expressives (e.g., apologies, thanks) and commissives (e.g., threats, warnings) frequently referenced the speaker’s intention to express an internal psychological state or perform a future course of action, respectively.

It is not enough to know the felicity conditions that underlie the performance of a particular illocutionary point (e.g., assertive, directive, commissive, expressive, declarative). This is because many of the speech acts performing the same illocutionary point will have different felicity conditions, with the differing felicity conditions constituting the performance of the different speech acts. For example, some commissives such as “threat” are conditional (e.g., If you x, then I’ll y); others such as “promise” are unconditional. Some assertives such as “deny” presuppose the existence of a prior assertion; other assertives such as “guess” do not.

### **2.30 Higher Level Goals-Politeness and Face Management**

In general, there is a strong tendency for interactants to perform implicit rather than explicit speech acts. Why is this? Clearly, factors other than maximally efficient communication must be at work. Interactants are also attending to an interpersonal dimension, a dimension that is captured well with

Ervin Goffman's (1967) concept of face and face-work. According to Goffman (1967), face is the "positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact". Roughly, face is one's public identity, an identity that must be actively managed. Importantly, face can only be given by others (one might claim a particular identity, but it must be ratified by others) and so it is in everyone's best interest to maintain each other's face. This is accomplished by engaging in face-work (Goffman 1971). For example, people generally avoid creating threats to one another's face (termed avoidance strategies): they avoid threatening topics, violating another's territory, calling attention to another's faults, and so on. People also engage in approach-based face-work (e.g., greetings, compliments, salutations, etc.) undertaken as a means of affirming and supporting the social relationship.

### **2.31 Face Management Strategies**

To be a successful language user, then, a speaker must possess knowledge regarding face management strategies. The specific manifestation of these strategies is captured quite clearly in Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. This theory is a direct extension of Goffman's analysis of face and face-work; politeness is essentially the linguistic means by which face-work is accomplished. Like Goffman, Brown and Levinson assume face to be quite fragile and subject to continued threat during social interaction. Roughly paralleling Goffman's (1967) avoidance and approach strategies, Brown and Levinson suggested that there are two universal types of face: negative face – or the want to be unrestricted by others – and positive face – or the want to be connected with others<sup>1</sup>. The act of merely addressing a remark to someone imposes on that person at some minimal level by requiring a response (hence negative face – or freedom from imposition – is threatened). Disagreements, criticisms, and refusals all threaten (primarily) the recipient's positive face (the desire for closeness with the other). Importantly, the speaker's own face may be

threatened by the performance of certain acts. Promises threaten the speaker's negative face (by restricting subsequent freedom) and apologies threaten the speaker's positive face (via an admission of harming the other). Social interaction thus presents a dilemma for interactants. On the one hand, they are motivated to maintain each other's positive and negative face. On the other hand, they are motivated to perform certain speech acts that threaten those very desires. There is thus a fundamental conflict between the lower-level goal of performing certain speech acts and the higher-level goal of managing positive and negative face. This conflict is solved (to varying degrees) by engaging in face-work, or more precisely, by being polite.

### **2.32 Conveying Politeness (Brown and Levinson model)**

So, how exactly do people convey politeness? In the Brown and Levinson model it is deviation from maximally efficient communication (i.e., communication adhering to Grice's (1975) maxims of relation, quantity, quality, and manner) that communicates a polite attitude. There are, of course, many ways this can be accomplished, and Brown and Levinson (1987) organized politeness into five superstrategies. These superstrategies are assumed to be ordered on a continuum of overall politeness, or extent to which face concerns are encoded in the communication. Consider the act of making a request. The least polite strategy is to perform the act without any politeness. To do so is to perform the act bald-on-record, as for example with an imperative ("Shut the door"). These are explicit speech acts that are maximally efficient; they are entirely in accord with Grice's maxims.

The most polite strategy is simply to not perform the act at all. But if the act is performed, then the most polite strategy is to do so with an off-record form. An off-record form (e.g., a negative state remark) can be performed by violating one of Grice's (1975) maxims. Hence, they are particularized implicatures. For example, uttering "It's cold in here" in an obviously cold room violates the quantity maxim (it states the obvious) and hence often functions as a polite



request (e.g., to turn up the thermostat). The defining feature of off-record forms is their ambiguity and hence deniability.

### **2.33 Positive Face vs. Negative Face**

Falling between these two extremes are on-record acts with redress emphasizing either positive face or negative face. The former, termed positive politeness, functions via an exaggerated emphasis on closeness or solidarity with the hearer. It is an approach-based politeness. For example, the use of in-group identity markers (e.g., familiar address forms, slang), jokes, presumptuous optimism (“You’ll loan me your car, won’t you?”) all implicate a view of a relatively close relationship. The latter, termed negative politeness, functions via attention to the recipient’s autonomy. It is an avoidance-based politeness. For example, conventionalized indirect forms (e.g., “Could you shut the door?”) symbolically give the recipient an “out” and hence are less imposing than a bald on-record form.

Both positively and negatively polite forms are on-record, meaning that the act performed is relatively clear. Still, these strategies represent deviations from maximum communication efficiency. They are, in effect, implicit performatives. For example, although the directive force of “Could you shut the door?” is usually clear, it is performed indirectly (it is an implicit performative) rather than with the imperative. The intent of positively polite strategies is even more clear; many times these forms will include the imperative (and hence be very direct), but the imperative will be embedded within verbal markers of closeness, an embedding that is not necessary and hence violates the quantity maxim (do not say more than is necessary). Research examining this ordering in terms of politeness has received partial support (Holtgraves and Yang 1990; Clark and Schunk 1980). That is, people perceive bald on-record requests to be less polite than positively polite requests, and positively polite requests to be less polite than negatively polite requests.

Towards the end of the theoretical part of this research and before handling the previous studies a little has to be said on empirical studies carried out on L2 strategies. This will be done with reference to classification and research methods and factors affecting the choices of CSs.

### **2.34 Empirical Studies on L2 CSs over Four Decades**

Studies on CSs have contributed a lot to the development of such fields as applied linguistics and second language acquisition. The theoretical discussion of CSs used to dominate empirical research, but empirical research into CSs has been accompanying theoretical studies and is rapidly developing (Ellis, 1985: 183). Based on a systematic review and analysis of the previous studies on CSs, this paper will mainly classify and summarize the empirical studies on L2 CSs over the four decades in the following respects: CS classifications and research methods, factors affecting the choices of CSs, teachability and teaching of CSs, and effectiveness of CSs.

### **2.35 CS Classifications and Research Methods**

Empirical studies have been conducted to classify CSs and to explore the methods for CS research. It is Vradi (1973) who first conducted a study on CSs. Vradi employed the method of a picture story description task which has subsequently been adopted in varied versions by many other researchers (Pollisse, 1990: 36). In this study, Vradi made a classification of CSs and his work was influential in the development of Tarone's ideas (Bialystock, 1990: 42). Tarone (1977) conducted a study on CSs by taking an interactional approach and observing how different second language learners solve specific communication problems. The subjects of her study were nine adult EFL students from three language backgrounds, Spanish, Turkish and Mandarin (with three subjects from each native language background). The subjects were shown two series of simple drawings and an illustration and then asked to describe the illustrations in both their native language and English. By dealing

with and analyzing the real data produced by the subjects, Tarone reorganized the Tarone et al. (1976) and Vradi (1973) classifications of CSs and categorized CSs into avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance and mime. “This methodology was an important contribution to the field and modifications it has provided the basis for most of the research subsequently conducted in this area” (Bialystok, 1990: 39). Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) and Paribakht (1985) also conducted a study and developed a detailed taxonomy of CSs essentially based on the new data. So far, there have been various classifications of CSs, but those of Tarone (1977), the Nijmegen group (Poullisse, 1990), and Farch and Kasper (1983) are considered the most typical (Liu, 2006). Farch and Kasper (1983) took a psychological approach and classified CSs into two kinds: reduction strategies and achievement strategies, each of which has some subcategories of CSs. The Nijmegen group held that L2 learners have three choices to avoid the breaking down of communication process when confronted with communication problems. The first is to give up or revise their original communication intention by resorting to the strategies of avoidance or reduction. The second is to ask their interlocutor for help. The third is to try to find the alternative of encoding their original message. They referred to the process leading to alternative encodings as compensatory strategies consisting of conceptual strategies and linguistic strategies. The former include analytic strategies and holistic strategies; the latter consist of morphological creativity and Transfer.

Two Chinese researchers, Zhang and Wang (2005), conducted a study on reliability and validity of CS questionnaires. The subjects in their study were 30 PhD students involved in a test-retest procedure, which provided the quantitative data for correlation and matching analysis. Eight of the subjects participated in the think-aloud and retrospective studies designed for obtaining the qualitative data for the analysis of acceptability of each item and the validity of the scale in the questionnaire. Their study concluded that the questionnaire is,

to a certain extent, acceptable in measuring a speaker's communication strategies.

Nakatani (2006) conducted a study to examine how valid information about learner perception of strategy use during communicative tasks can be gathered systematically from EFL learners. First, in order to develop a questionnaire for statistical analysis and name the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI), Nakatani conducted a three-stage research project: an open-ended questionnaire to identify learners' general perceptions of strategies for oral interaction, a pilot factor analysis for selecting test items and a final factor analysis to obtain a stable self-reported instrument. The resulting OCSI includes 8 categories of strategies for coping with speaking problems and 7 categories for coping with listening problems during communication. Second, Nakatani examined the applicability of the survey instrument in a simulated communicative test for EFL students. The results of the study showed that the inventory was reliable and valid.

In truth, each strategy assessment method has its weaknesses and strengths (Cohen, 1998: 24). Therefore, it is necessary to employ several assessment methods in a study in order to compensate for problems inherent in the questionnaire method (Nakatani, 2006).

### **2.36 Communication Strategies Teachability**

Savignon (1983) reported on a pioneer language teaching experiment involving communicative approach, which, for the first time, included student training in what she called *coping strategies*. Since then, much research has been conducted to identify and classify CSs yet less attention has been paid to the possibility of exploiting CSs inside the classroom.

The teach ability of CSs has always been a controversial subject in the literature. Viewpoints differ greatly due to pros that defend the teaching of CSs, and cons that reject it. Arguments against the teaching of CSs are based on the notion that strategic competence develops in the speaker's L1 and is freely

transferable to target language use (Bongaerts, Kellerman and Bentlage, 1987; Poullisse, 1993, 1990). That is, language learners have their applicable CSs repertoire already the learners have their applicable CSs repertoire already developed regardless of their L2 proficiency level (Ataollah, 2010; Kellerman and Bialystok, 1997; Lewis, 2011). So, rather than teaching CSs, it may be more useful to provide the learners with more linguistic baggage as Kellerman concluded that “there is no justification for providing training in compensatory strategies in the classroom . . . teach the learners more language and let the strategies look after themselves (1991: 158).

Following this stream of thought, Bialystok (1990) argues that CSs are the reflection of the underlying cognitive processes, and therefore, it would be useless to focus on surface structures to improve strategy use or communicative competence. She points out that “the more language the learner knows; the more possibilities exist for the system to be flexible and to adjust itself to meet the demands of the learner. What one must teach students of a language is not the strategy, but language” (Bialystok, 1990: 147). Canale and Swain (1980) also supported the same idea since according to them CSs are to be acquired in real-life interaction and not to be learned in classroom tasks.

Other researchers, notwithstanding, believe in the effectiveness of strategy training (Brooks, 1992; Chen, 1990; Faerch and kasper, 1983, 1986; Haastrup and Philipson, 1983; Lewis, 2011; Paribakht, 1986; Rost and Ross, 1991; Tarone and Yule, 1989; Willems, 1987). However, very little research on strategy training has been conducted to investigate the teachability of CSs. As Bialystok pointed out, “there is little empirical research investigating the pedagogy of CSs, so descriptions and evaluations of any procedure are somewhat speculative” (1990: 149); Still, there are some studies that confirm the validity of strategy training like the ones reported on by Faerch and Kasper (1986) and Tarone and Yule (1989) who all gave evidence of the teachability of CSs, and supported the idea of strategy training as a means “to allow the

learner to operate with a small vocabulary, and permit speech to remain fluent” (Nation, 1990: 97). Others go further to stress the fact that teaching CSs may be useful if it is implemented with the objective of raising the learner’s *metacognitive awareness* (Kellerman, 1998:98). This concept was elaborated by Faerch and Kasper who provoked a theoretical shift in defining the act of teaching:

If by teaching we also mean making learners conscious about aspects of their (already existing) behavior, it is obvious that we should teach them about strategies, in particular, how to use communication strategies most appropriately (1980: 98).

From the aforementioned interpretation of the notion of teaching we can conclude that the acceptance or rejection of CSs training is basically based on the belief of what teaching is. It is obvious that the ones who argue against the teaching of CSs have a narrow view of teaching, namely, that teaching consists of passing on new information. Bialystok and Kellerman (1987) provided a good example of the reason behind the controversy on teaching CSs by stating that “it is one thing to encourage their use (and create the conditions in which they can be used) and quite another to actively teach communication strategies in the Classroom” (1987: 172). However, for the supporters of CSs training, teaching in a broader sense includes what Dornyei described in six interrelated strategy training procedures (Dornyei, 1995: 62-64):

1. **Raising learner’s awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs:** “making the learners conscious of strategies already in their repertoire, sensitizing them to the appropriate situations where these could actually work”.
2. **Encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use CSs:** to manipulate available language without being afraid of making errors.

3. **Providing L2 models of the use of certain CSs:** using listening and visual materials and guiding the learners to identify, categorize and evaluate CSs used by other speakers.
4. **Highlighting cross-cultural differences in CSs use:** includes the teaching of stylistic appropriateness of CSs explaining both use and usage.
5. **Teaching communication strategies directly:** providing CSs and the possible use of those structures by “presenting linguistic devices to verbalize CSs which have a finite range of surface structure realizations.
6. **Providing opportunities for practice in strategy use:** practicing CSs is essential because they “can only fulfill their function as immediate first aid devices if their use has reached an automatic stage” and “this automatization will not always occur without specific focused practice”.

Summing up, teaching CSs can be used either to make the learners aware of their already existing CSs or to introduce new strategies through a training course which, as Oxford stated, should indicate “why the strategy is useful, how it can be transferred to different tasks, and how learners can evaluate the success of this strategy” (1990: 207).

### **2.37 Proficiency and CSs**

Tarone (1977) suggested that second language proficiency level may be related to CS preference. Paribakht (1985) studied the nature of the relationship between speakers’ proficiency level in the target language and their choices of CSs. Three groups of 20 adult subjects each participated in the study: two groups of Persian ESL students at intermediate and advanced levels of target language development, and a group of native speakers as the comparison group. The strategy elicitation method designed for the study was a concept identification task. All subjects were required to express twenty single lexical items of concrete and abstract concepts to native speakers. Paribakht categorized the subject’s CSs and classified them into four approaches: Linguistic, Contextual, Conceptual and Mime. The results showed that the

native speakers and the advanced students used relatively more frequently the linguistic approach while the low-proficiency students used relatively more frequently the conceptual approach. The groups didn't demonstrate any significant difference in use of the contextual approach. Mime was employed less frequently by the native speakers than by the learners.

Poullisse and Schils (1989) conducted a quantitative study on the influence of task and proficiency-related factors on the use of CSs. The subjects involved in this study were 45 Dutch learners of English. They were divided into advanced, intermediate, and beginning learner groups according to the years they have learned English. Poullisse and Schils used three strategy elicitation tasks: story retelling, picture description, and a 20-minute interview with a native speaker of English. They found that the most advanced subjects used fewer compensatory strategies than did the least proficient ones while the type of compensatory strategy chosen by the subjects was not to any large extent related to their proficiency level.

Chen (1990) studied the relationship between L2 learners' strategic competence and their target language proficiency. The subjects were divided into two groups according to their English proficiency and they were required to perform a concept-identification task in an interview with a native speaker. The CSs used by the learners were identified and analyzed. The results indicated that the low-proficiency learners used more CSs than the high-proficiency learners and that high-proficiency learners employed linguistic-based CSs more frequently while the low-proficiency learners used more knowledge-based and repetition strategies. In addition, there was a positive relationship between the Chinese EFL learners' proficiency level and their communicative competence: the high-proficiency learners were more efficient in the use of CSs.

Wannaruk's (2003) study showed that students of different proficiency levels used different communication strategies. The study divided 75 non-English majors equally into high, middle and low groups according to their oral



proficiency levels and then native English teachers interviewed the students one by one. The data used in the analysis was taken from the videotaped and transcribed interviews. The results of this study indicated that the learners with a low level of oral proficiency used more avoidance strategies, paralinguistic CSs and L1-based CSs while those with high and middle levels of oral proficiency employed more L2-based CSs.

In many cases, the reason why the L2 learners employ CSs is that their IL systems are developing and insufficient. Their proficiency levels are the reflection of their inadequate IL systems. Therefore, it is not surprising that L2 learner's proficiency levels have certain effects on their choices of CSs. Some other studies like Nakatani (2006) also reveal that L2 learners' proficiency levels are closely related to their use of CSs.

## **Part two: Previous Studies**

### **2.1 Communication Strategies: Sudanese Research Realities**

As a whole, research on CSs has a history of almost 40 years, but there remains much room for exploration and improvement. CS research in Sudan is quite new and relatively inadequate, some studies focus only on introducing and analyzing theoretical aspects and only a few empirical CS studies have been carried out .Moreover, the CS studies conducted by Sudanese researchers involved very limited variables and issues such as the English proficiency, personality, communication task and teaching of CSs, and almost all the studies were based on the definitions and Classifications of CSs by western researchers. (Osman, Medani, 1998) Therefore, empirical CS studies with Sudanese characteristics are needed.

In addition, language teaching has traditionally been aimed at developing linguistic competence and the strategic competence is most neglected by Language course books and teachers, although it is of crucial importance for foreign language learners (Bashoum, 2009). This is greatly true in Sudan,

particularly at university level. According to Widdowson (1999: 67), linguistic skills are one of the components of communicative competence, but not the reverse; the acquisition of linguistic skills does not guarantee the consequent acquisition of communicative competence and even over-emphasis on drills and exercises for the production and reception of sentences would prevent communicative competence from development. The lack of strategic competence may account for situations in which learners with a good command of grammatical knowledge and a wide range of vocabulary get stuck and are unable to express their communicative intent (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991). Therefore, “the learner needs to acquire not only a repertoire of linguistic items, but also a repertoire of strategies for using them in concrete situations” (Littlewood, 2000: 4). Correspondingly, researchers and teachers need to know CSs well to further their research and teaching.

As a system underlying learners’ target language use, CSs can account for certain features of the learners’ interlanguage performance (Paribakht, 1984: 1). Besides, “choosing an effective strategy depends on many factors” (Cohen, 1998: 266) and the forms of interlanguage communication also vary in terms of different criteria. Furthermore, any CSs research with a particular focus is not likely to be totally independent of other factors and the classification of empirical studies on CSs has almost never been made elsewhere, though the discussion of communication strategies in interlanguage production started almost three decades ago, very little research has been done in Sudan. The researcher spent long hours exploring Sudan Library, where one copy of every scientific research was in safe keeping there for reference, however only one MA was conducted on the subject. It was in 1992, a study entitled Communication Strategies in Interlanguage Production, conducted by Mahmoud Ali Ahmed. His experiment was carried out on 3<sup>rd</sup> level, University of Khartoum, Faculty of Arts. He was mainly interested in the strategies of avoidance and L1 interference.

However, the situation abroad is generally different. Plentiful studies were carried across the Arab world. Some studies have chiefly been conducted in Iraq and Lebanon. In these studies, diverse cases of candidates' right from primary to university level have been reviewed. A study in Samara' has even investigated learners at kindergarten where children are learning English in a privately run setting along the lines of the British schools. Elsewhere, most studies in Asia have been conducted in China, Japan and Malaysia. There are studies performed in Africa, namely in Mali and Nigeria.

### **2.1.1 International Research**

The review that this chapter includes will provide a starting point for this study and provide an idea about what should be included in a research process to reach the best results, and to avoid hindrances that may cause the work to deviate from its designed path. In the forthcoming summaries of earlier studies we include an overview of the most important investigations in the field of SLA research to provide a firm back ground believed to be able to demonstrate our awareness of the previous methodologies, data collection, data analysis and findings of the field that will help a lot in constructing instruments and selecting the appropriate methodology.

In Iraq, to mention a few cases, Ahmed K. Fahad, University of ThiQar conducted a study entitled **enhancing students' communicative skills through classroom interaction** in which the researcher claims that his study aims to enhance students' use of oral proficiency inside classrooms. The researcher went on to admit that it is very normal to find that EFL learners in Iraq have accurate grammatical skills, but very poor oral proficiency. Iraqi teachers usually complain that the limited resources available in their classrooms as well as the lack of exposures to the native language are reasons for such level.

### **2.1.2 Varadi,**

In his article “Strategies of target language communication: Message, Adjustment, provided a model of IL production that focused on the strategies that the second language learner might resort to when s/he experienced a “hiatus” in his/her knowledge of the TL. In order to convey a message, which Varadi called the optimal message that included the optimal meaning; the learner selects the correct target form that might convey his message. The researcher explained that during meaning selection two possibilities might arise: the learner might find a satisfactory form through “formal reduction” or “replacement”, and use it; or s/he might find it impossible to express his message through his available TL means at his/her stage of acquisition; thus s/he adjusts his meaning to his encoding capabilities which implies, according to Varadi, a sacrifice of a part of the optimal meaning. The final selected meaning was called the adjusted meaning, and the process itself was called reduction. In other cases, instead of reducing the optimal meaning the SL learner might opt for a “replacement” of the message by substituting this optimal message for new subject matter, preferably as close to the optimal meaning as his IL could allow. Moreover, the researcher hypothesized that if the learner did not possess a ready form for his selected optimal meaning, he might resort either to formal replacement (paraphrase or circumlocution), reduction or formal reduction, and what is called adjusted meaning would then become the last in a series of modified meanings. This model was tested out through a pilot study done with two groups Hungarians (group 1 included nine students, and group 2 ten students) of intermediate adult learners.

### **2.2.a Methodology**

One group was taught English sixteen hours a week for nine months, while the other studied it at the same rate for only six months. The experiment was conducted in two phases: in the first phase, both groups were asked to

describe some related series of drawings. Group 1 was asked to do it in English then in Hungarian in 45 minutes, and group 2 was required to do it in Hungarian first then in English. The given time was 30 minutes for the whole task. Both groups were asked to avoid translating from the memory what they had written in the first version, or invent a radically different story. In the second phase the subjects of the two groups were asked to translate their stories as faithful as possible.

The rationale behind this experiment was to ensure that differences between the two versions of stories given by the two groups were due to meaning adjustment phenomenon. The learners resorted to this phenomenon under the compelling force of their imperfect competence in the TL.

The researcher took into consideration the possibility that some subjects would change their stories simply because they did not like it, or because they noticed something that they had to modify or add in their second version. Therefore, the translation task in the second phase of the experiment was designed to filter out precisely such cases. This translation task also helped in deciding where message adjustment occurred in the sense that if the learner had used a wrong form believing that it would convey his optimal meaning in his translation of that specific form from English to Hungarian he would give a Hungarian form which is not equivalent to the English one that he had chosen, which would imply that no message adjustment occurred but rather a performance error. However, if he used the form only because it presented the closest approximation to his optimal meaning that his IL allowed he would surely translate the English form into Hungarian with its correct equivalent because he knew the form in his foreign language. This ability indicated an awareness of the differences between the Hungarian and the English form, and consequently signified that message adjustment had occurred.

## **2.2.b Data Analysis**

The analysis of the data was presented in two tables; one summarized the various types of message adjustment, and the other showed the results of a rough statistical analysis of the ratios of unadjusted versus adjusted messages, formal versus semantic adjustment, and intentional versus extensional reduction in terms of the number of lexemes affected. It was stressed by the researcher that these propositions were influenced by so many factors such as the level of proficiency of the learner, and his ability “to activate” his knowledge about the optimal message. Before concluding, the researcher clarified that his experiment could only give a quantitative assessment of TL communication, and that a qualitative one would require not only an adequate framework, but also an investigation in relation to the interaction between learners and native speakers. Moreover, to better assess the learner’s proficiency in communicating using message adjustment strategies, their speech had to be judged in terms of acceptability and appropriateness.

The results of this experiment supported the theoretical presuppositions especially that of message adjustment use by SL learners in communicating concepts for which they lack the form in the TL. They also suggested the utility of similar experimental instruments for research of this type. As a final point, the researcher raised the idea that this experiment could be a stimulus for further research on CSs of foreign language learners.

## **2.3 Bialystok**

In her paper “some factors in the selection and implementation of communication strategies” (1983) tackled the controversial issue of distinguishing between communication and learning strategies, and she stressed the need for theoretical attempts to distinguish learning strategy from communicative ones.

However, Bialystok highlighted the importance of some productive works that led to the identification and classification of CSs (Blum and Levenston, 1978; Tarone, 1981). She also points out the existence of rich and systematic frameworks describing the ways in which learners operate within their IL to communicate difficult concepts.

Nevertheless, according to Bialystok (1983) there was still a need for more work to show the extent to which the implementation of the previously mentioned framework was systematic, and its validity in comparing strategies according to their effectiveness. Consequently, this paper tries to fill this gap by attempting to answer questions like: who would use which strategy, when, and with what effect?

### **2.3 a Methodology**

The research was divided into two parts. The first one was to answer the second part of the question (who, when). The subjects were a group of sixteen grade students learning French in high school, and a group of fourteen adults learning French in a Civil Service French language Training Program. All the subjects were required to complete a test to provide an assessment of proficiency. Because the adults were more advanced than the young students, their test was more difficult.

A picture reconstruction task, where subjects were asked to describe a picture so that a native speaker of French (one of the two research conductors) could reconstruct it correctly, was designed to collect the data in both conditions. The picture was to be reconstructed on a large flannel board using cardboard cut-out objects. The picture reconstruction also had series of incorrect items which were based on one of the following characteristics:

- 1- Semantic similarities between the incorrect item and the target item.
- 2- Phonetic similarities.
- 3- Cross lingual similarities.
- 4- Items related to the context of the basic picture.

Moreover, this task was designed to meet three principal criteria:

- 1- Simulate a real communicative exchange in which one of the interlocutors was monolingual.
- 2- Include difficult concepts for the subject to convey.
- 3- Allow a control over the items of communication.

The task was administered by two researchers to each student separately. One researcher introduced the other as a monolingual native speaker of French, and asked the subject to describe the pictures in details using only French to enable their interlocutor to reconstruct them. There was no time limit, and the data was tape-recorded and later on transcribed.

The second part of the research was conducted to answer the second part of the research question (with what effect?). For this purpose, seventeen native speakers of French participated in the study. Ten of them dealt with adults' strategies and seven with the students' strategies. They were required to answer two questions: Were all of the strategies got equally effective; and did the different learners (groups and individuals) use these strategies with similar effectiveness? All the judges were given a transcript for each learner's attempts to convey a target item, and they were asked to score out of 10 the strategy or set of strategies ranked best for each item.

### **2.3.b Data Analysis**

The results of this study were achieved through a statistical analysis of the data of each part separately. The first phase of the study showed that adults used basically fewer L1 based strategies than the younger students, although they used nearly the same number of main strategies. Besides, there were also individual differences among subjects within the same group, which were obtained through a correlation between the pre-test and the individual's strategy use measured after the task. The number of strategies used had no relationship with proficiency level, but there existed a relationship between the base of the strategy (L1 or L2 based) and the proficiency level.



To sum up, the results of the first phase indicated that target language proficiency biased the learner to select differentially between L1 and L2 based strategies, but did not predict the selection of specific strategies. The second phase resulted in the fact that the specific strategies scored as most effective interacted both with the target item being conveyed and the proficiency of the learner indicated by the two categories of subjects. However, the greater variation of strategies used by adults showed that they were more flexible in adapting the strategy to the target concept.

Moreover, the role of proficiency level was regarded as an intervening rather than a determining variable because there were few differences between adults and students and between individuals in each group in terms of their selection of strategies. Hence, Bialystok deduced that a specific level of proficiency in the target language was necessary for appropriate selection of strategies, and that all her independent variables (that, which, and what) interacted to determine the success in selecting appropriate strategies.

# **CHAPTER THREE**

## **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter will provide a full description of the research methodology adopted as well as the research instruments employed. Moreover, the validity and reliability of these instruments will be confirmed.

### **3.1 The Study Methodology**

The study adopted a mixed- methods approach: the descriptive analytical and experimental method. This allows the research instruments to complement each other. Hence, an experiment and questionnaires were used to address the research questions and objectives. The (SPSS) program was used for data analysis.

### **3.2 The Subjects:**

This includes the samples who responded to the tests and the questionnaire. A purposive sample of (30) students at Sudan University of Science and Technology will adopt for the study. Some of the common characteristics shared by the students is that they are, female and males, studying at the university level. They are undergraduate students learning English Language for four years in EFL faculty of education . They are studying during the academic year 2015 in different classes. The researcher will use two main streams in vocabulary knowledge and Communicative area and their influence on students language acquisition the main purpose of the study to investigating the relation between vocabulary knowledge and how Sudanese EFL students opt for communicative strategies upon facing hurdles in communication .

### 3.3 Communication Strategies Used for the Present Study

This Study will be largely drawing on Tarone’s insights as far as communication strategies are concerned. Tarone’s (1980) defines a communication strategy as “a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning is not shared.” Tarone (1981) characterizes strategy use according to the following conditions:

1. The speaker desires to communicate meaning x to a listener.
2. The speaker believes the linguistic or sociolinguistic structure desired to communicate x is unavailable, or is not shared with the listener.
3. The speaker chooses to do one of the following: a. avoid - that is, not attempt to communicate meaning x; or b. attempt alternate means to communicate meaning x. The speaker stops trying alternatives when it seems clear to the speaker that there is shared meaning.

*Table1. Different Strategies*

Intra-individual CSs		Notes
C1	Topic avoidance (TA): avoid discussions about the concept	Avoidance
C2	Message abandonment (MA): stop in mid-utterance	Avoidance
C3	Meaning replacement (MR): use alternative expressions (Paraphrasing)	Avoidance
Inter-individual		Notes
C4	Clarification request (CR): ask for clarification (Appeal for assistance)	
C5	Repetition (Rep): repeat an utterance	

### 3.4 Research Design

The proper study has three key parts which are *the pre-training*, *during the training* and *the post-training* (conducted in that order). The first phase (The pre-training) had a twofold aim: first it was used to run the pre-self-confidence questionnaire and the pre-tests to collect the data that would be compared to the post-test; and, second, it was the step of the experiment in which the researcher

introduced vital information and practice to raise the subjects' self-confidence and willingness to participate in the investigation. In order to be able to assess the outcome of the training on the use of communication strategies by the subjects of the experimental groups, the instruments used in both parts were similar in form and requirements. These instruments consisted of:

- A self-confidence questionnaire task.
- Storytelling task (oral and written).
- Interview task (oral).
- Writing composition task.

As far as the strategy training is concerned, two different types of instruments were used and it was divided into two phases:

The training phase: authentic listening and reading related to the target strategy, as well as the practice phase of each strategy in both mediums (communicative oral and written tasks to practice the taught strategy).

### **3.5 Tools of Data Collection:**

The tools used for collecting data linked with the students' use of the different communicative strategies:

- ◆ Two tests (pre and post): for vocabulary knowledge and Speaking test
- ◆ Focus group
- ◆ Teachers' questionnaire
- ◆ Cartoon Strip
- ◆ Telling a Story

#### **3.5.1 Pre test :**

In this test the researcher will design (6) question in vocabulary with a variety tasks to examine Sudanese EFL students' words knowledge definition meaning, Word formation ,Gap Filling, Matching Set of words ,translation describing picture and structures . Question one aims at examine students' ability of defining words. As question two is testing students' ability in deriving

words by using suffixes. Question three intends to check the students' ability to recognize words by matching words to their synonyms/antonyms. The purpose of question four is to test students' ability in identifying the word thier function. The purpose of question five s to examine students' ability in translation words in their first language. Question six aims at testing students' ability in using appropriate words for describing picture.

### **3.5.2 Post Test**

In post test there are some techniques which aimed at testing production of words, and the active use of Sudanese EFL students' vocabulary knowledge. Such as definition, word formation, translation competition and providing pictures .Question one aims to check students 'knowledge in recognize students ability by identifying the word meaning. Question two aims at checking the students' ability in deriving words by using knowledge of the word. Question three for testing students', pronunciation. Question four examines students' ability to supply equivalent of words in either their first language or EFL by translation words. Question five is for testing students' ability to retrieve learnt vocabulary while communicating in the language by using their own words. Question six aims to test student ability to use their own words interpretation picture.

### **3.5.3 Speaking Tests:**

Speaking tests are testing students on communicative skills, observing social conventions, conveying facts, discussion, seeking and giving information, expressing disagreement, making suggestions and recommendations and others.

There are two sections for the speaking component test:

- An individual presentation (Task A)

This task is taking (11 to 14) minutes There are three parts to this task and each part fulfils a specific function in terms of interaction pattern, task input and students output the researcher chooses three types of oral test first ,

Introduction and interview begins with student introducing himself or herself and checking the students identification. .second test is mini presentation it gives instructions, description and explanation for students list of two topics and assessor ask students talk about them ,third test is role –play direct, face-to-face exchange between two students . It follows a pre-determined structure but still allow both people a degree of freedom to say what they think. We should not interrupt the student while speaking when he or she makes mistakes. If we do it can discourage him or her from speaking.

### **3.5.4 Group discussion (Task B)**

It tests the ability of the students to interact and take turns, to negotiate meaning, to manage discussion and to close the discussion. Most of our learners, through observation, are able to communicate their ideas and thoughts fairly well in the individual task (Task A). The speaking tests prepared as the purpose of checking the students' ability to participate effectively in group discussion and their ability (Task B). It aims also need to know to what extent lack of vocabulary can affect of students to play an effective part in the group discussion; in order to know if the English Teacher provides students with interactive strategy training. The groups of students will take part in group discussions. Each group will give a social issue with four choices or alternative solutions to discuss for sample of speaking situations). They will then give 10 minutes to discuss and come to a decision. The group discussions will observe and record twice, once before and once after the training. The transcripts of both these sessions will review and compare to examine if vocabulary knowledge can facilitate Sudanese EFL student speaking performance. , specifically in the group discussions.The researcher will observe to identify and examine how vocabulary knowledge can effect on their speaking performance before and after training.

### **3.5.5 Lesson Plan for focus group:**

For the purposes of further ascertaining the use of the different communicative strategies the researcher selected two groups of undergraduate students at university level consists of 10 people with comparable social status, motivation and other factors , which could be of any influence on language learning process A target topic in both groups in group (A) will be chosen and Lesson plan for Multiple Intelligences method will be used while the plan in group B was based on the communicative approach. The experiment will consist of 45-minutes (three lessons) following with a test. The test will focus on all aspects of the word knowledge meaning, usage, formation and grammar and pronunciation. The researcher tests the vocabulary that will be already explained and practised. Multiple Intelligences method will use in this kinds of test and it will simple and include these activities such as Synonyms,,Definitions , Gap filling , Set of words, Word formation Guessing the meaning from the context .

### **3.5.6 Lesson plan for Multiple Intelligences Method:**

The researcher used the following steps in this lesson:

#### 1- Aims

- To develop understanding of individual learning preferences and how these can help the learners.
- To build their vocabulary with gerunds for activities.

#### 2- Presentation

- ◆ Ask students to do some of the English learning activities they thought of in work sheet.
- ◆ Ask them to learn a list vocabulary, perhaps the list of activities from the lesson.
- ◆ Give students a choice of things they can do to learn the words, for example, they could choose two from this list:

- ◆ Underline the new words.
- ◆ Put the new words in alphabetical order.
- ◆ Identify their part of speech
- ◆ Ask students to read them in a loud.
- ◆ Ask them to translate their meaning.
- ◆ Ask students to write a sentence using at five of them.
- ◆ Ask students to make word cards for new words.

### **The Procedures:**

- ◆ The group will teach 45 mins for three lessons per a week for one month.
- ◆ The group will give a pretest before the researcher started teaching using the previous method to measure students' level.
- ◆ The researcher prepares a post test for the final measurement of students' level

### **Lesson plan for Communicative Method:**

- For the second group (B) different activities will use such as: Pictures to facilitate learning of new words, group discussion, debating topics according to students' own interest they will practice the new word that they trained before .
- **The Procedures :**
- The group will teach 3 hours for three lessons for 4 week for one month.
- The group will give a pretest before the researcher started teaching using the previous method to measure students' level.
- The researcher prepares a post test for the final measurement of Students' level.



### **3.6 The Teachers Questionnaire:**

The questionnaire is designed for the teachers (TQ). It consists of four parts (A, B, C, D). Part (A) contains the personal information. Part (B) of the (TQ) contains for items that teachers are requested to report, based on personal. In part (C) and (D), the teachers are requested to report about their experiences and teaching methods that they use to assist their students speaking performance. There were also three open-ended items for the strategies they recommend to their students but were not included in either parts (C) or (D). The teacher questionnaire (TQ) designed to tackle the research question number (3) the strategies student use in vocabulary acquisition. On the other hand, teachers' experience was considered as important factor during responding the questionnaire.

#### **3.6.1 Validity and Reliability of The Test and The Questionnaire:**

Validity refers to the degree to which a test and the too questionnaire measures what is supposed to measure. The researcher will pilot the tests and hand them to two PHD.A holders as lectures at variety Universities and then the supervisor. That is for examining the content validity for the designed questions. They will request to review the phrasing, suitability, thoroughness, and ease of questions. The jurors noted that the tests and the questionnaire are convenient and comprehensive to the purpose of the study. Some changes were made in the structure of the questions', a few statements will delete and others will add. Hence, the final copies of the two tests and the questionnaire will develop and distribute to the subjects and handed over to each English teacher. The total number of the teachers will (30) teachers both males and females. The students will test inside the classrooms.

### **3.7 Summary of The Chapter:**

This chapter describes the methodology used in this study. It gives information about the population, the sample and how the subjects will select. It also describes instruments, the procedures uses in the study and the rationale for using them, and concludes with the relevant measurements that will take to maintain the validity and reliability.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of data obtained from experiment, teachers' questionnaire, pupils' questionnaire, and classroom observations.

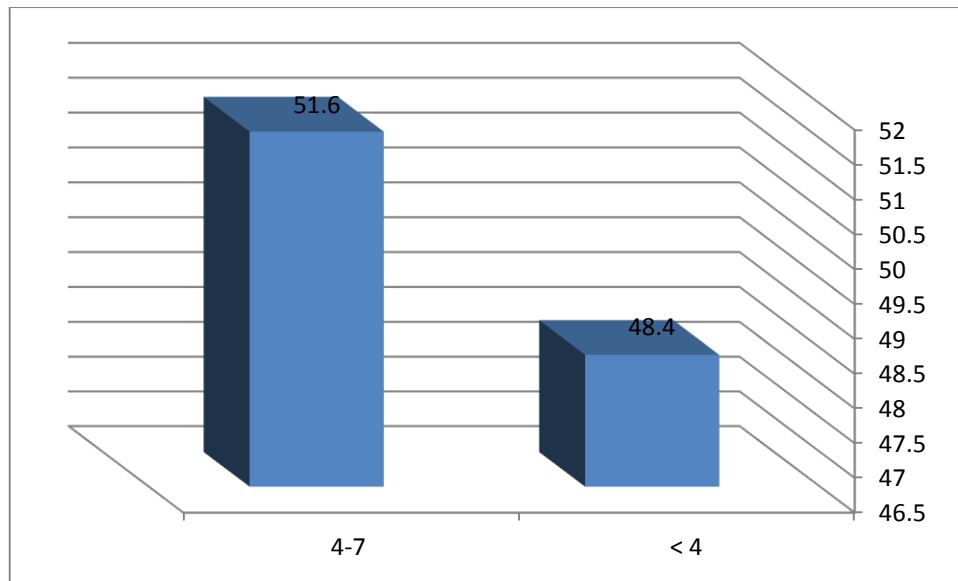
### 4.1 Analysis of the Experiment

The analysis of the experiment will focus on answering a vital question: To what extent do undergraduate students use communicative strategies to overcome communicative hurdles they often encounter. To answer this question, we computed the mean, standard deviation, standard error and ranges for the pretest- and post-test scores of both experimental and control groups. T-test was computed to find out whether each group had made any progress as a direct result of instruction as per using the different strategies.

### Distribution of Pre-test and Post-test Scores within the Experimental and Control Groups

**Table (4-1) Pre-test and Post-test of the Experimental and Control Groups**

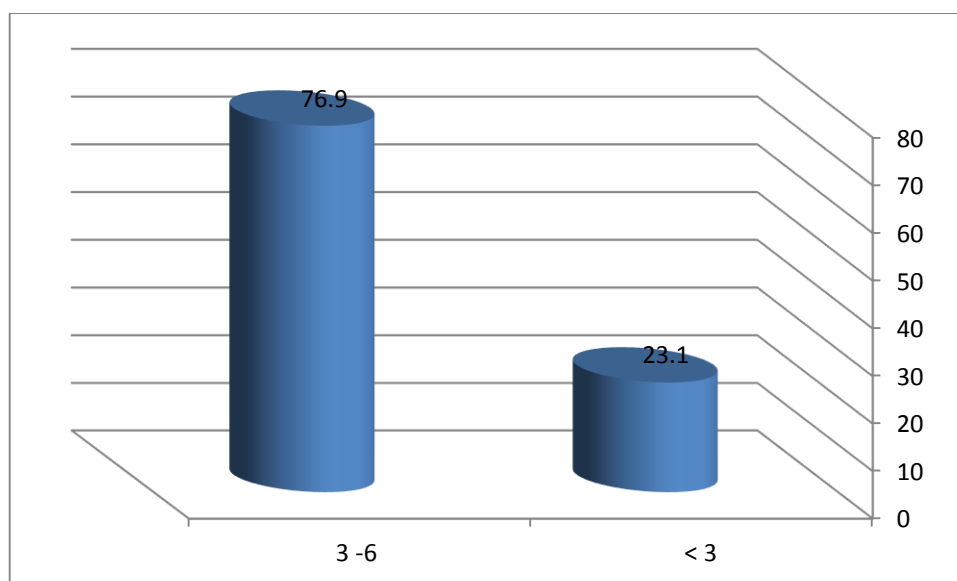
Group		Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Experimental Group	Pre-test	61.333	20.9241	3.5064
	Post-test	69.667	20.9241	3.8202
Control Group	Pre-test	60.300	19.2055	2.6846
	Post-test	61.000	20.2055	3.50.64



**Figure (4-1) Pre-test and Post-test of the Experimental and Control Groups  
T-test comparing the results of the two groups.**

**Table (4-2) T-test comparing results.**

Group	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Mean	t- observe d	df	Sig(2taile d)
Experimental	30	6.967	2.0924	0.3820	18.236	29	.000
Control	30	6.3000	1.3170	.2404	26.201	29	.000



**Figure (4-2) T-test Comparing Results.**

Judging by table (4-1) it can readily be observed that the results have remarkably improved, the results of the experimental group have soared up quite significantly. Improvement garnered by members of the controlled group was not expected. However, the students in this group have studied for 45 days, which possibly could have produced that little effect. As shown by the same table, both groups have significantly made successes, better still is the improvement attained by members of the controlled group due to the high scores they realized. These improvements and results attained in the tests account for or verify the original hypotheses one and two: **H1**. Sudanese undergraduate students are not well aware of communication strategies as effective tools for solving communicative hurdles. Hence, **teaching communication strategies** will help students improve their communicative abilities. It also verifies **H2**. As far as the data collection techniques suggest, the **experiment group will perform better than the control group** as their exposure to the teaching of communication strategies will help them achieve their communicative goals. This comes in line with Faucette (2001) who argues; the CSs requiring L2 production are recommended and desirable strategies to teach. Among them, interactional strategies might be particularly worthwhile.

## 4.2 Analysis of the Teachers' Questionnaire

It consists of four interrelated parts related to surveying teachers' teaching of communicative strategies and the learners' response to the teaching of strategies in classroom setting. There are of course some other items in line with the overall concept of the strategies.

**Statement (1): Undergraduate Students are unable to understand the direct meaning of the words when they are involved in real communication.**

**Table (4-3) Understanding direct meaning of the words**

Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
63 (63%)	8 (8%)	7 (7%)	15 (15%)	7 (7%)	100 (100%)

As regards the issue of students involvement in fluent and real communication, the majority of teachers (63%) explained that students are always incapable of communicating fluently in natural settings, whereas (15%) of the tutors stated that students rarely use their language fluently in real-life communication. This suggests that communicative language use is drastically impaired amongst Sudanese undergraduate students. This result in itself accounts for the validity of the first hypothesis which calls for the teaching of the strategies to help students communicate effectively.

***Statement ( 2): Undergraduate Students are unable to understand the indirect meaning of the words when they are involved in real communication.***

**Table (4-4) understanding the indirect meaning of the words**

Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
43 (43%)	18(18%)	6 (6%)	15(15%)	16(16%)	100 (100%)

More than two thirds (43%) when asked to give evidence about students' understanding of the indirect meaning of the words when involved in real communication, they declared that students are actually incapable of responding particularly in a lengthy communication. This is attributable to lack of practice

and failure to understand indirect meaning of words. There are of course other responses however they are all not in favor of students. The effect of this failure can lead quite often to abandoning the communicative situation as they feel totally inhibited.

While there are students who are academically active and motivated with great desire to learn, and who are also socially adjusted, there are those who are completely shy or withdrawn. Symptoms of shyness or withdrawal may appear as part of the student's overall personality or as a situation-specific response to a particular stress factor. Sudanese students are particularly very shy. Their inability to understand indirect meaning will increase their withdrawal even more. Some students may show good peer group adjustment and ability to interact socially with the teacher, but they may display communication apprehension when asked to answer academic questions, perform in public, or engage in an activity that they know will be evaluated. Finally, many students experience at least temporary social adjustment problems when they change schools or classes.

So in addition to the academic factors, these social and psychological aspects account for the Sudanese students inhibition and hence their inability to proceed with communication in English.

**Statement (3): Undergraduate Students are unable to infer meaning of the words when they are involved in real communication**

**Table (4-5).Inability to infer meaning of the words.**

Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
55 (55%)	10 (10%)	5 (5%)	15(15%)	15(16%)	100 (100%)

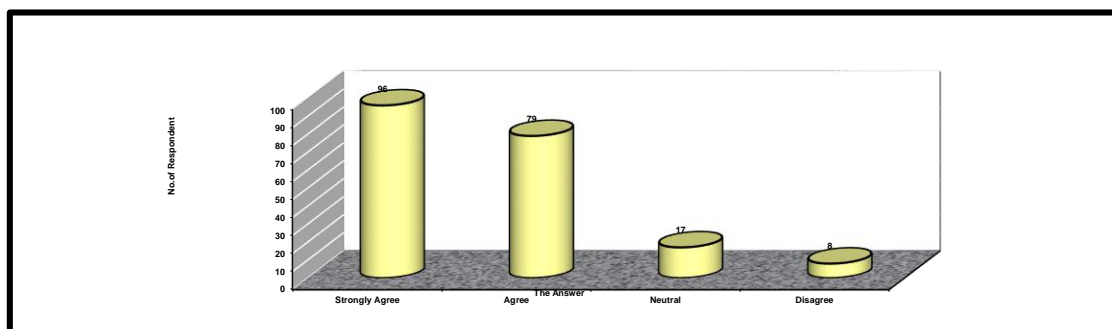
According to table (4-5) it is clear that quite a good number of respondents (55%) do agree that undergraduate students are unable to make the right inference of any unfamiliar word or words, while some (15%) consider this rarely occurs. The problem with these students is that they have not received

adequate training at primary or secondary level to develop this important sub-skill of inference. Sudanese students are of the types who hardly exercise any efforts to get things done the hard way. They rush to dictionaries and put an end to the whole trouble.

**Statement (4): Undergraduate Students are not able to utter critically the meaning of the words when they are involved in real communication.**

**Table (4-6) uttering critically the meaning of the words.**

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
55 (55%)	30 (10%)	5 (5%)	7(7%)	3(3%)	100 (100%)



**Figure (4-6) uttering critically the meaning of the words.**

Judging by the above table and figure, all the respondents agree that *undergraduate Students are not able to utter critically the meaning of the words when they are involved in real communication.* This reflects a crucial fact that students need to be trained or practice this aspect of communicative competence which they drastically lack. Sudanese undergraduates are often confronted with language problems resulting from an inadequate command of the strategies which can be used by them to interact orally (fluently) using appropriate vocabulary and sentence structures. This phenomenon stems from the fact that Oral skills are not given much attention by university language teachers who teach large numbers of student in big classes. They concentrate while



interacting with their student on reading and writing and put very little emphasis on oral communication.

Again, this aspect confirms the first hypothesis in this study **H1**. *Sudanese undergraduate students are not well aware of communication strategies as effective tools for solving communicative hurdles. Hence, teaching communication strategies will help students improve their communicative abilities.*

Indeed, it is one of the primary principles of modern linguistics that spoken language is more basic than the written language. This does not mean, however, that language is to be identified with speaking alone. A distinction must be drawn between language signals and the medium in which these signals are expressed in. Thus what is written can be read aloud orally and what is spoken can be written down. It follows from that a special attention should be given to this aspect of oral language.

Many linguists are inclined to make vocal signals as the defining feature of natural language, for they see it as their responsibility to correct the bias of traditional grammar and traditional language teaching. Until recently grammarians have been concerned almost exclusively with literary style and usage as the norm and have taken little account of or condemned colloquial usage as ungrammatical.

In fact the origins of the great literary languages are derived from the spoken languages of particular communities. Therefore, Lyons (1981: 11) considers the primacy of speech over writing in the following terms:

**1. Historical Priority:** There is no human society known to have managed without the capacity of speech.

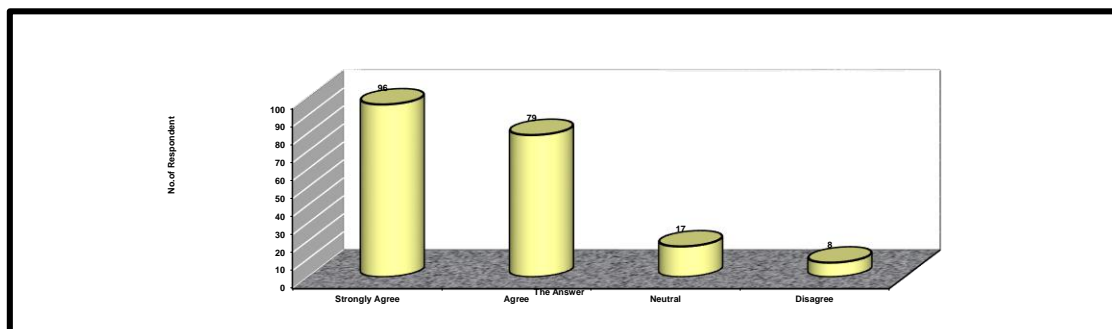
**2. Structural Priority:** In terms of correspondence of phonology to graphology, spoken language is structurally more basic.

3. *Biological Priority*: Human beings are genetically predisposed not only to acquire language but also as a part of the program, to produce and perceive speech sounds.

**Statement (5):** *Undergraduate Students do not have enough lexical items to them understand the content of the message when they are involved in real communication.*

**Table (4-7) having enough lexical items**

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
50 (55%)	30 (10%)	8 (8%)	10(10%)	2(2%)	100 (100%)



**Figure (4-7) Having Enough Lexical Items**

Judging by table (4-7) and the figure, it is clear quite a big number of the respondents (50%) support the option *Undergraduate Students do not have enough lexical items to them understand the content of the message when they are involved in real communication.* This part or item links the effectiveness of communication with vocabulary. It is very much certain that without having adequate vocabulary it would be impossible to communicate either orally or in writing.

Spoken language as a subject for teaching EL began to be considered decisively after the end of the Second World War. Initially, major attention was devoted to the teaching of pronunciation, first in isolation, then in short isolated sentences. Later on, stress patterns were added and eventually practice of intonation

patterns. During the last three decades, however, teaching of spoken skill has improved relatively on a world wide scale. Students are not only taught to pronounce, but they are given practice in listening to examples of carefully spoken English with practice on identification of selected features. Moreover, many courses have begun to use extracts from texts of authentic conversation; radio broad casts, lectures etc. instead of using written texts read aloud. Rather than basing their oral production on the written mode, learners are encouraged to use the spoken language forms spontaneously.

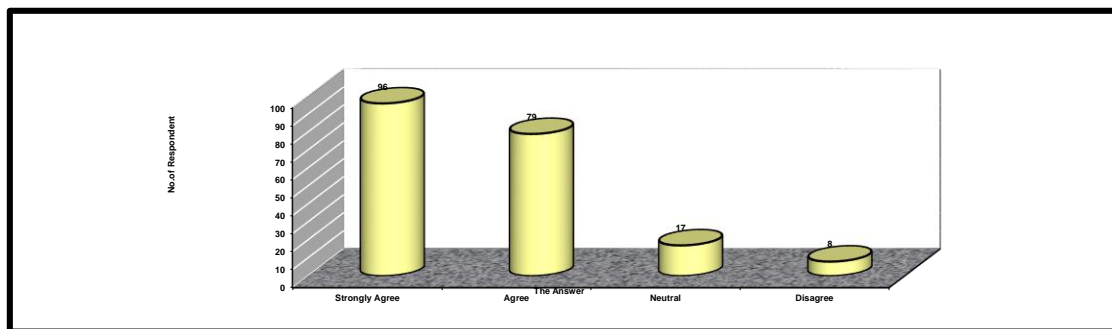
This dramatic development provides many learners with the ability to communicate naturally with speakers of the FL practically. However, teachers face many hurdles due to lack of a tried – and – tested teaching tradition to depend upon, for example:

- 1- What is the appropriate variety of spoken English to give learners to practice in?
- 2- How important is pronunciation? Is it more important than teaching appropriate handwriting in the FL?
- 3- Is it possible to give learners any sort of meaningful practice in producing the spoken language?
- 4- How are the materials for listening comprehension to be selected? Can they be graded?
- 5- What is to be done about the frequent redundancy and ungrammaticality of spontaneous native speech? Bends the rules by the native speakers? Talk about performance variability? The list of potential problems in teaching speaking is limitless, for there is no influential description of spoken English comparable in status to the grammars of written English.

**Statement (6): Undergraduate Students do not know how to get the gist when they are involved in real communication.**

**Table (4-8) getting the gist when communicating.**

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
55 (55%)	30 (30%)	8 (8%)	5(5%)	2(2%)	100 (100%)



**Figure (4-8) getting the gist when communicating.**

It is evident from the above figure and table that the respondents do agree that students fail to get the gist or the main point when involved in real communication. Certainly, quite a number of factors are responsible for this awkward situation. Speech variability is such one responsible factor. Speech variability is due to dialectal diversity (geographical or social dialects). For example , the speech of Scots is different from ' RP ' in many aspects .The speech of different age groups is also different ; the speech of highly educated adults who spend their lives immersed in written language may frequently have a great deal in common with the written language.

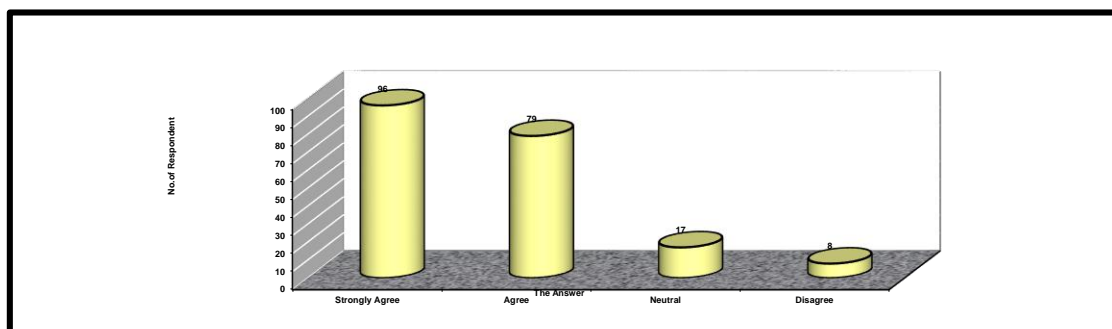
It is not surprising since they spend so much of their time reading and writing it. If one only listens to speech produced by these people as they are speaking fluently and confidently on matters they have expressed themselves on many times before, it would not be unreasonable to assume that teaching speaking skill, does indeed only mean teaching the learners to speak the written language with a few features of spoken phrases.

According to Brown, G. and G. Yule (1983) Geddes ( 1988 ) , Debska (1983) , Thornbury (1999) , Brown , (1994 b) , spoken English has special idiosyncrasies which makes it different from the written English and which in turn make listening somewhat difficult to acquire.

**Statement (7): Undergraduate Students do not know how to lead a discussion when they are involved in real communication.**

**Table (4-9) leading a discussion when communicating.**

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
55 (55%)	30 (30%)	8 (8%)	5(5%)	2(2%)	100 (100%)



**Figure (4-9) leading a discussion when communicating.**

It is quite evident that almost all the respondents (55% and 30%) do agree that *undergraduate Students do not know how to lead a discussion when they are involved in real communication*. Definitely one of the things we do with language is to make discussion, presentation and even debates. However, these types of discourse require good grasp of certain oral skills. Class discussions can be used for a variety of purposes: to rehearse and solidify previously acquired knowledge, to evaluate students' understanding, to improve their oral abilities, to foster analysis and synthesis of different viewpoints about a problem, to generate debates and arguments amongst students. These goals are not mutually exclusive, but it is important to determine which have more priority given what students want to learn.

Clarifying what is expected to get out of a discussion is crucial to determining its format and the way it is handled. It also allows having clear guidelines against which to evaluate its actual success. It is recommended that tutors should be transparent about these guidelines with students and enforce them throughout the quarter (both through friendly reminders and through formal evaluations).

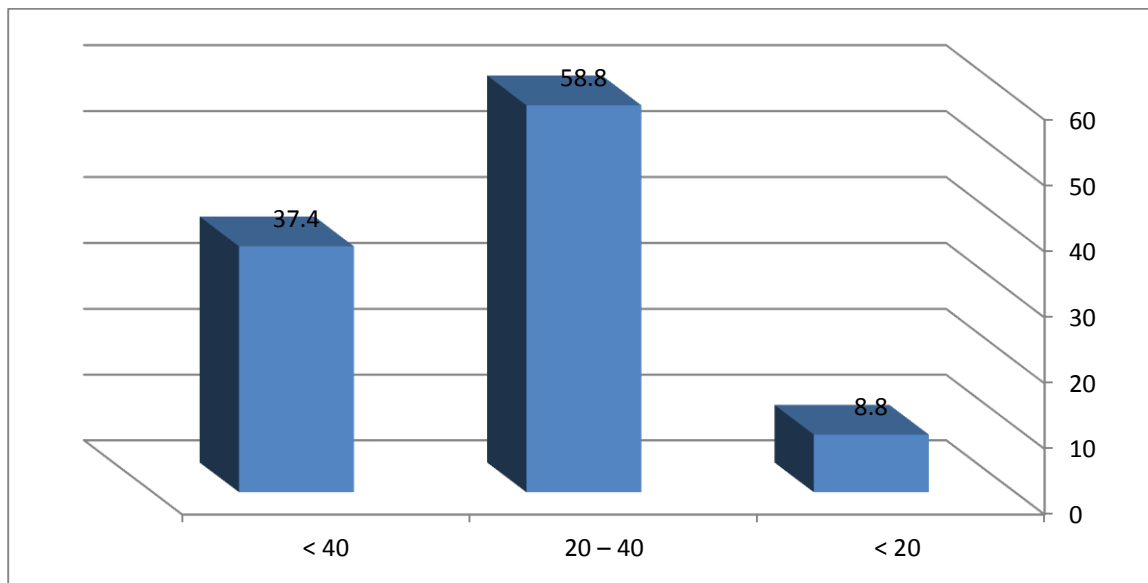
To lead an effective discussion, it is important to foster an environment where students feel safe to speak their minds. Knowing that it is all right to make mistakes will allow them to risk trying out ideas with which they might not feel entirely comfortable, ideas which are likely to enrich the discussion of the whole group.

For this, it is recommended that, early in the first part of the lecture, have students reminded that discussions are collaborative enterprises in which they are expected not only respected, but actual support among them. Make sure that this behavior is modeled by positively reinforcing students for responding even (or perhaps especially) if their answer is incorrect, making eye contact with each person speaking, calling students by their names, and encouraging quieter students to speak. It is important to keep in mind that being a good discussant requires being a good listener. It is common for instructors to teach speaking, writing, and reading skills, but they often fail to recognize the importance of teaching listening skills. For good communication to take place good listening is vital.

**Statement (8): Undergraduate students can provide the synonymous meaning of words when they are involved in real communication.**

**Table (4-10) providing the synonymous meaning of words.**

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
33 (44%)	44 (44%)	8 (8%)	2 (2%)	1(1%)	100 (100%)



**Figure (4-10) providing the synonymous meaning of words.**

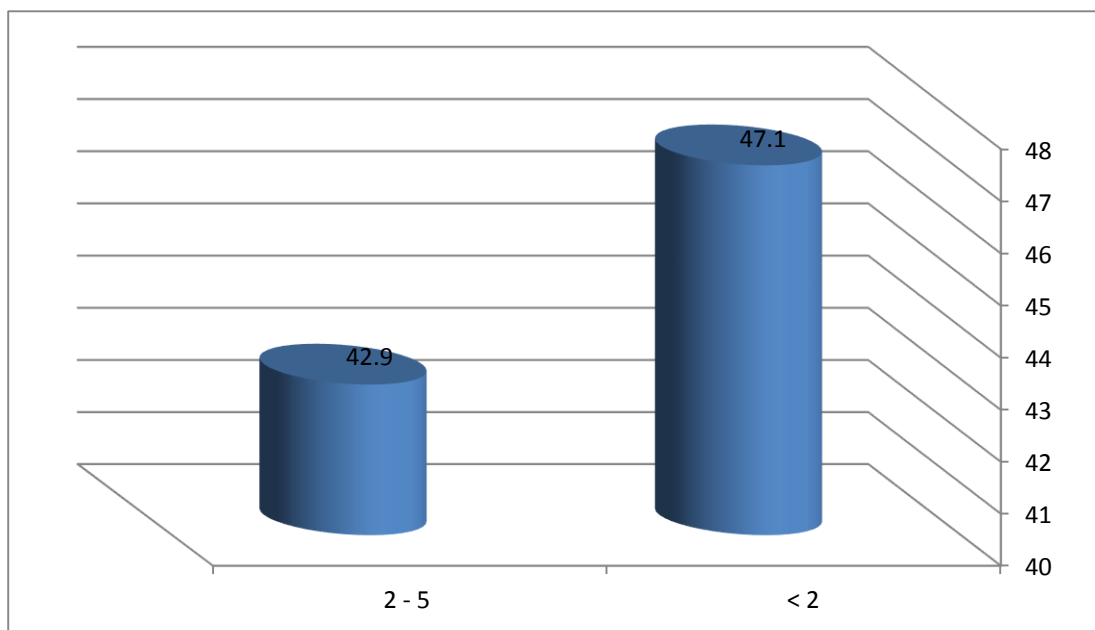
It is quite evident judging by the table and the figure above that the respondents do positively agree that undergraduates are incapable of using synonyms where possible. *Undergraduate students can provide the synonymous meaning of words when they are involved in real communication.* One of the factors to sustain communication is to have good grasp of synonyms .They can be lifesavers, especially when you want to avoid repeating the same words over and over. Also, sometimes the word you have in mind might not be the most appropriate word, which is why finding the right synonym can come in handy. There is a certain skill involved in choosing the most appropriate synonym, as

not all are created equal. It is important to consider the connotation of the word because some synonyms can inject a different meaning than the one intended. For example, one synonym of sad is "gloomy" however; this word carries quite a negative connotation. Depending on the circumstance you can use it, but if you just want to say that someone is "down," then another synonym such as "blue" or "unhappy" would be more applicable.

**Statement (9): Undergraduate students can provide the antonymous meaning of words when they are involved in real communication.**

**Table (4-11) providing the antonymous meaning of words**

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
5 (5%)	10 (10%)	8 (8%)	33 (33%)	44(44%)	10000%



**Figure (4-11) providing the antonymous meaning of words**

Both the figure and the table reflect the fact students are incapable of providing antonyms in real communication, which indeed demonstrates that there is a real problem studying and understanding lexical relations and their importance in communication particularly oral communication. An antonym is a word that is

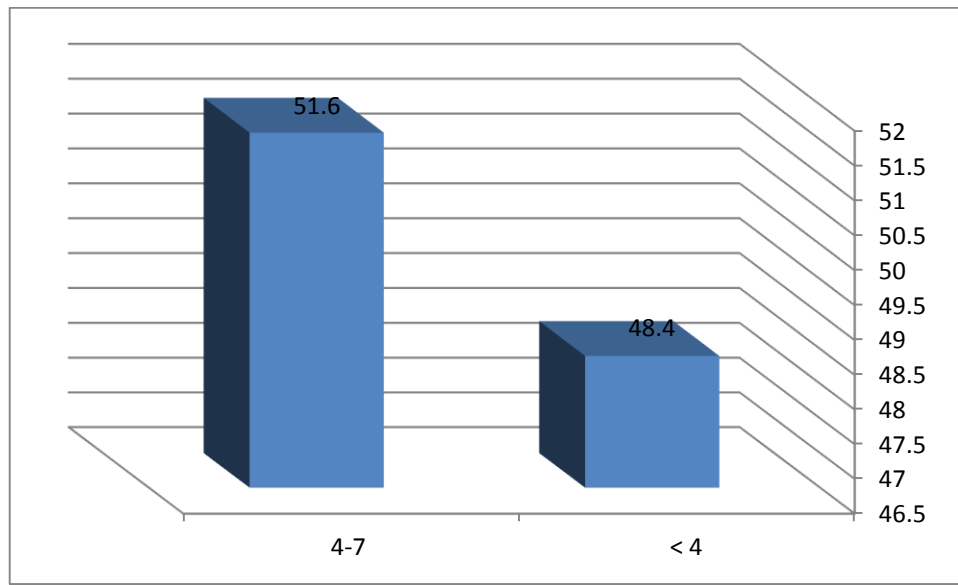


the opposite meaning of another. It comes from the Greek words “anti” for opposite and “onym” for name. Since language is complex, people may at times, disagree on what words are truly opposite in meaning to other words. In order for the students to proceed with either speaking or writing, they have to be well versed in all types of lexical relations. There are three categories of antonyms: Graded antonyms - deal with levels of the meaning of the words, like if something is not “good”, it may still not be “bad.” There is a scale involved with some words, and besides good and bad there can be average, fair, excellent, terrible, poor, or satisfactory. Complementary antonyms - have a relationship where there is no middle ground. There are only two possibilities, either one or the other. Relational antonyms - are sometimes considered a subcategory of complementary antonyms. With these pairs, for there to be a relationship, both must exist.

Statement 10: Undergraduate students can avoid continuing the conversation when they lack the appropriate lexical items.

**Table (4-12) Avoiding Continuing the Conversation.**

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
55 (55%)	40 (40%)	0 (8%)	3 (33%)	2 (44%)	100000%



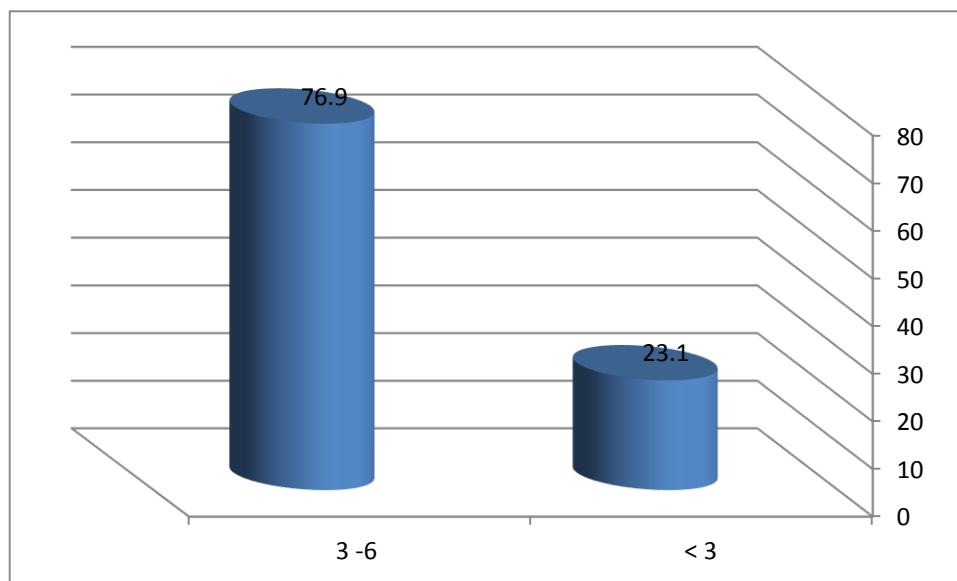
**Figure (4-12) Avoiding Continuing the Conversation.**

By throwing a look at both the figure and the table it is quite evident that students avoid carrying on the discourse .Avoidance, which takes multiple forms, has been identified as a communication strategy. Learners of a second language may learn to avoid talking about topics for which they lack the necessary vocabulary or other language skills in the second language. Also, language learners sometimes start to try to talk about a topic, but abandon the effort in mid-utterance after discovering that they lack the language resources needed to complete their message.

***Statement 11: Undergraduate students can use what is technically known as circumlocution when they fail to provide the exact word in oral communication.***

**Table (4-13) Using Circumlocution.**

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
70 (70%)	20 (20%)	0 (8%)	7 (7%)	3(3%)	100%)



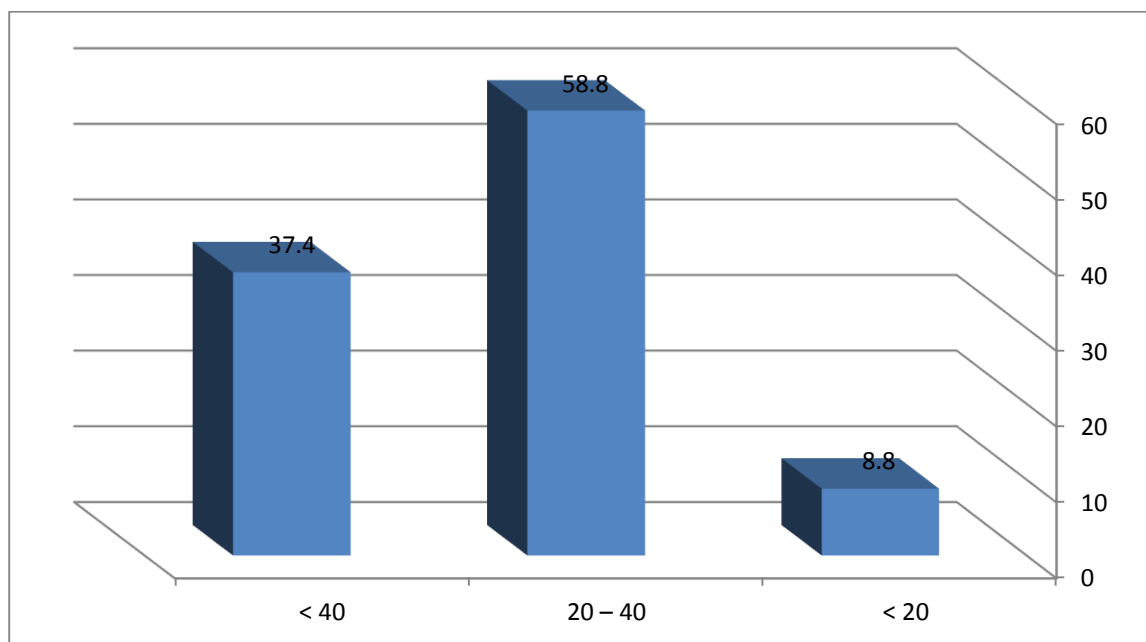
**Figure (4-13)using circumlocution.**

Judging by both the table and the figure almost all respondents (70% and 20%) do agree that students resort to circumlocution when they fail to give the appropriate lexical item. The term circumlocution refers to learners using different words or phrases to express their intended meaning. For example, if learners do not know the word *grandfather* they may paraphrase it by saying "my father's father".

*Statement 12: Undergraduate students can resort to what is called code-switching to continue with communication.*

**Table (4-14) Resorting Code- Switching.**

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
40 (40%)	55 (55%)	3 (8%)	1 (1%)	1(1%)	100%



**Figure (4-14) Resorting Code- Switching.**

Almost all respondents (40%+55%) do agree to the phenomenon of code-switching to which undergraduate students resort upon failing to proceed with the dialogue. Learners may insert a word from their first language into a sentence, and hope that their interlocutor will understand.

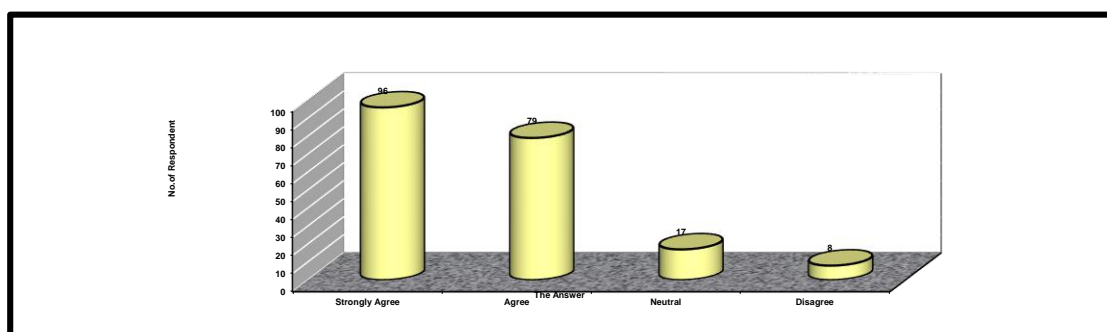
In linguistics, **code-switching** occurs when a speaker alternates between two or more languages, or language varieties, in the context of a single conversation. Multilinguals, speakers of more than one language, sometimes use elements of multiple languages when conversing with each other. Thus, code-switching is the use of more than one linguistic variety in a manner consistent with the syntax and phonology of each variety.

Code-switching is similar to Language transfer (also known as L1 interference, linguistic interference, and cross linguistic influence) refers to speakers or writers applying knowledge from one language to another language.<sup>[1]</sup> It is the transfer of linguistic features between languages in the speech repertoire of a bilingual or multilingual individual, whether from first to second, second to first or many other relationships.<sup>[2]</sup> It is most commonly discussed in the context of English language learning and teaching, but it can occur in any situation when someone does not have a native-level command of a language, as when translating into a second language.

*Statement 13: Undergraduate students can resort to non-linguistic communication such mime and gestures to overcome their linguistic hurdles in communication.*

**Table (4-15) Resorting Non-linguistic Communication.**

Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
55 (55%)	40 (40%)	3 (3%)	1 (1%)	1(1%)	100%



**Figure (4-15) resorting non-linguistic communication.**

Evident from the above table and figure that undergraduate students refers to non-linguistic features co carry on with communication. Broadly speaking, there are two basic categories of non-verbal language: nonverbal messages produced by the nonverbal messages produced by the broad setting (time, space, silence)

### **4.3 Summary of The Chapter**

This chapter presented the analyzed data of the study which consisted of: analysis of experiment, one teachers' questionnaire and pre-test and post-test through tabulation of frequencies and percentages.

# **CHAPTER FIVE**

## **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.0 Introduction**

This chapter provides a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

### **5.1 Summary and Conclusions**

This study is an attempt to investigate the use of communication strategies in order to overcome linguistic hurdles. The study looked into the different types of the strategies as proposed by different linguists and experts in the field and examined whether undergraduate students do actually resort to these strategies as international student to surmount verbal obstacles upon conversing with others. This study sets out to answer the following questions:

1. What are the types and frequency of communication strategies used by Sudanese undergraduate learners?
2. To what extent can learners be taught and trained to use these strategies effectively to achieve oral communicative goals.
3. What kind of courses to be used at the preparatory levels at university to help raise students' oral abilities and enhance their mastery of the communication strategies?

The following hypotheses were formulated to further probe the above questions:

1. Sudanese undergraduate students use different types of communication strategies.
2. Communication strategies can be taught to students to help them achieve effective oral communicative goals
3. The English language to be used at university level should be designed in a way to enhance the students' level of mastery of communication strategies.

To attain the set objectives, the present study adopted a mixed- methods approach: the descriptive analytical and experimental methods. This allowed the research instruments to match each other. Hence, an experiment and a questionnaire were used to deal with the research questions and objectives. The (SPSS) program version 20 was used for data analysis.

100 undergraduate students participated in the study experiment, 50 tutors completed questionnaires. The study found out that undergraduate students use communication strategies to overcome linguistic hurdles. In view of the hypotheses of this study, the result confirms the first one.

It was also found that Communicative strategies play an important role in second language learning, particularly for those who are not native speakers of the target language. The purpose of this study is to investigate the extent to which lexical communication strategies can be used by Sudanese undergraduates while interacting orally with one another.

Sudanese undergraduates are often confronted with language problems resulting from an inadequate command of the strategies which can be used by them to interact orally (fluently) using appropriate vocabulary and sentence structures. This confirms the second hypothesis in this study.

Sudanese undergraduate students resort more excessively to specific types of strategies namely those of avoidance, and code-switching. They are psychological in nature and confirm what Faerch and Kasper (1983:112) have adopted a psycholinguistic approach that recognizes CS as a part of the planning process. Communication strategies are used when the learner has problems with the original plan and cannot execute it. They recognize CS as a specialized problem-solving activity employed by an individual when faced with insufficient knowledge of the target language. Kasper and Kellerman (1997:56) also share the same view with regard to CS. To them, CS are conceived as mental plans by L2 learners in response to an internal signal of an imminent problem and hence they are regarded as a specialized problem-solving activity.



Therefore, when L2 learners face problems in communication, they will resort to CS. This confirms the third hypothesis.

## **5.2 Recommendations**

On the grounds of the findings of this study the following recommendations are suggested:

1. Knowledge of lexical relations is an essential element in the development of learner's lexical competence. Therefore when teaching these lexical relations tutors should pause to consider their applicability.
2. The explanation of the different types of lexical relations including hyponymy, synonymy and antonyms should be done after diagnosing areas of strength and weakness in the learner's knowledge of these relations.
3. Communication strategies can be introduced and taught to undergraduate students. Students should be trained and encouraged to use them.
4. The development of learner's lexical competence requires providing learners with instructions on how to select and use the different types of vocabulary learning strategies.
5. Students' communicative competence should be developed through the introduction of the right type of syllabus and well trained tutors who are capable of doing that.

## **5.3 Suggestions for Further Studies**

1. In future, this kind of research should be carried out in a collaborative manner by a number of researchers and in a number of universities to ascertain its validity.
2. In this present study only three or four strategies were examined. There are a number of them left unexplored for those interested in doing so.
3. Studying communication strategies should be linked with communicative competence to come up with comprehensive visualization.

## **5.4 Summary**

This chapter deals with the data collected by means of the questionnaire and test. The collected data of the questioner is presented in form of tables accompanied with figures .After data analyzed and discussed; the results of two groups are compared by using T-tests program. Also, collected data of pre-test and post-test is presented in terms of tables and figures.

Finally, the findings that result from analyzed and discussed data are used to test the hypotheses of the study.

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## APPENDIX (1)

### Teachers' Questionnaire

**Your answer to this questionnaire will be treated confidentially and will be used for research purpose only. Thank you for your co-operation. Please tick one of these options (✓) which represents your point of view.**

#### Section One: Undergraduate students do not communicate fluency when they are involved in real communication.

No	Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral (No Opinion)	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Undergraduate Students are not able to understand the direct meaning of the words when they are involved in real communication.					
2	Undergraduate Students unable to understand the indirect meaning of the words when they are involved in real communication.					
3	Undergraduate Students do not able to infer meaning of the words when they are involved in real communication.					
4	Undergraduate Students do not able to utter critically the meaning of the words when they are involved in real communication.					
5	Undergraduate Students do not have lot lexis to understand the meaning of the words when they are involved in real communication.					
6	Undergraduate Students do not know how to get the gist when they are involved in real communication.					
7	Undergraduate Students do not know how to lead a discussion when they are involved in real communication.					
8	Undergraduate Students do not know how to round up a discussion involved in real life communication.					

**Section Two: Undergraduate students do not understand the contextual meaning of conversation when they are involved in real communication.**

<b>1</b>	Undergraduate Students do not know how to paraphrase the spoken discourse when they are involved in real communication.					
<b>2</b>	Undergraduate Students require the knowledge of the world when they are involved in real communication.					
<b>3</b>	Undergraduate Students do not know how to address speech when they are involved in real communication.					
<b>4</b>	Undergraduate Students require the knowledge of grammar when they are involved in real communication.					
<b>5</b>	Undergraduate Students require the knowledge of others' culture when they are involved in real communication.					
<b>6</b>	Undergraduate Students require understanding the discursive messages when they are involved in real communication.					
<b>7</b>	Undergraduate students have ability to generate their own words when they are involved in real communication.					
<b>8</b>	Undergraduate students can provide the synonymous meaning of words when they are involved in real communication.					