

Second Language Communication Strategies: Definitions, Taxonomies, Data Elicitation Methodology, Classification Problems, and Teachability Issues: Review Article

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Abstract

This extensive article examines trends in second language communication strategies (CSs) to date. It aims to present a historical overview of CS research, definitions of CSs offered and the various taxonomies proposed in the literature so far. Data elicitation methods and data analysis procedures are also discussed. Then it presents the author's taxonomy of communication strategy which is based on the pilot study he conducted in 2001. Furthermore, it highlights the major problems of existing taxonomies and their classification of CSs into different categories. Teachability of communication strategies, which is a controversial issue, is also discussed. Finally, it concludes with the implications of communication strategies.

A Brief Historical Overview

Selinker (1972), in his paper "Interlanguage", suggested the term strategies of second language communication to refer to the strategies used by foreign or second language learners to deal with the difficulties they encounter during the course of communication. He considered these strategies as one of the five processes central to second language learning (1972:229). However, he did not go into detail about the nature of these strategies. Savignon (1972) also published a research report in

which he highlighted the importance of coping strategies, i.e., communication strategies, in communicative language teaching and testing. A year later, Varadi (1973/1980) gave address at a small European conference. This discourse was considered to be the first systematic analysis of strategic language behaviour, dealing with message adjustment in particular. By message adjustment, Varadi meant that second language learners replace the optimal meaning-actual meaning with the adjusted meaning-what is actually said when they encounter a difficulty. This article only came into print in 1980.

Varadi drew a distinction between intensional and extensional reduction. Intensional reduction was defined as “relaxation of precision caused by the selection of forms whose meaning, though related to it, falls short of the optimal meaning (salesman > man)”. This could be realised through generalisation or approximation. Extensional reduction was referred to as the elimination of part of the meaning and is manifested in the omission of particular forms (a young man of 50 with a Chaplin - style moustache > man). Replacement of meaning may be by paraphrase or circumlocution (Varadi, 1983:92).

In order to investigate the adjustment phenomenon, Varadi (ibid) carried out a small-scale experiment with 18 Hungarian English language learners. The results of this pilot study suggested the general validity of the theoretical presuppositions concerning the concept of message adjustment.

Empirical studies were subsequently carried out, the first one being that of Tarone (1977). She based her definition of CSs and her typology on data elicited from nine subjects. Her taxonomy is still seen as the most important in the field since most of the following taxonomies relied on it.

Since 1980, the real study of communication strategies has become the concern of many researchers. Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) included them in their model of communicative competence. They thereby showed one of the constituents of the sub-competencies-strategic competence. In Canale and Swain (ibid. P.30) strategic competence consists of “verbal and non-verbal CSs that may be called into action to compensate for breakdown in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence”.

In 1983, Faerch and Kasper published the first edited volume,

Strategies in Interlanguage Communication, which put together the most important papers in one collection. These publications increased the various areas of interest of many research studies, focusing primarily on identifying and classifying CSs and on the teachability of CSs.

Nijmegen University became the dominant centre of CS studies in which a group of researchers carried out various studies whose results highlighted the main aspects of CS use, challenged the prevalent taxonomies and proposed a new taxonomy (e.g., Poulisse, 1987; Poulisse, 1990; Poulisse and Schils, 1989; Kellerman, Ammerlaan, Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1990). In 1997, Kasper and Kellerman published the second edited volume, *Communication Strategies: Psycholinguistic and Sociolinguistic Perspectives*, which included many important articles and empirical studies about communication strategies.

In the following sections, these areas will be discussed in detail: data collection methodology, approaches to communication strategies, taxonomies, classification problems and the teachability issue.

Defining communication strategies

Faerch and Kasper (1983a) defined communication strategies by placing them in their model of speech production, in which their function may be characterised through the relationships between processes and plans. Faerch and Kasper found that in the planning phase, language learners retrieve items from the relevant linguistic system. The product of the planning process is a plan that controls the execution phase. The execution phase comprises neurological / psychological processes. When non-native speakers of a target language encounter a problem during the course of communication, due to the lack of linguistic knowledge at either the planning or the execution phase of speech production, they produce a plan to overcome the problem. For them, communication strategies can be placed “within the planning phase within the area of the planning process and the resulting plan” (1983a: p.30).

Following Faerch and Kasper, Ellis (1985) placed communication strategies in a hierarchy of types of L2 knowledge. He divided such knowledge into declarative (knowing that) and procedural (knowing how) knowledge. Procedural knowledge is divided into social processes

and strategies and cognitive strategies and processes. The latter is then subdivided into learning and using L2. Lastly, the use of L2 component is subdivided into production reception processes and strategies and communication strategies. These types of L2 knowledge are shown in Figure (1) below.

A distinction should be drawn here between learning strategies and communication strategies. Learning strategies are attempts that language learners make to improve their communicative competence. Oxford (1992) provides a definition for LS as “techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills strategies are tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability” (18). In contrast, communication strategies refer to language use.

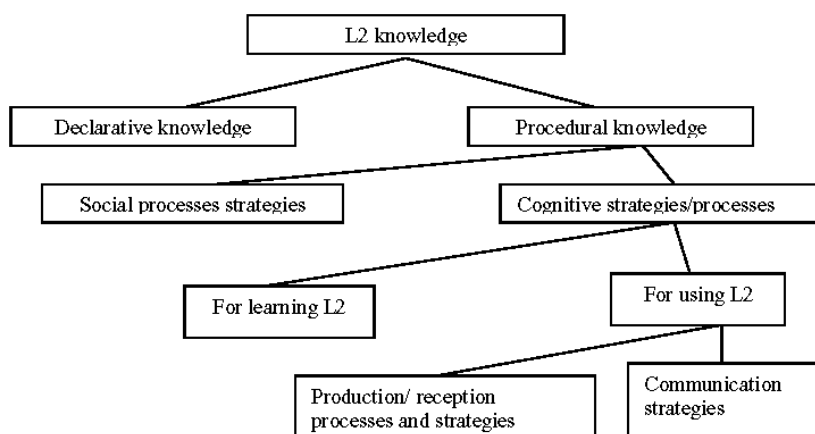


Figure (1) Types of L2 knowledge (Adapted from Ellis, 1985, p.165)

Though not many writers offer a definition of communication strategies, they usually refer to them by using different terms. Varadi (1983) calls them communicational strategies, whereas Corder (1983) refers to them as communicative strategies. Harding (1983) prefers the term compensation strategies, whereas Poulisse (1990) uses compensatory strategies.

Both native and non-native speakers, and listeners use communication strategies. Wagner and Firth (1997) claim that “CS is a very prominent element in speech production and therefore an important

element in natural discourse” (ibid.:342). Dornyei and Scott (1997) conceive communication strategies to be “the key units in a general description of problem-management in L2 communication” (1997:179).

As a result of their limited resources, L2 learners use CSs more frequently than native speakers. Corder (1983:15), in his article “Strategies of communication”, acknowledges this fact, when he writes “it is now fairly clear that all language users adopt strategies to convey their meaning but we are only able more or less readily to perceive these when the speaker is not a native speaker”.

It is difficult to find a rigorous definition of communication strategies on which CS researchers have reached an agreement. There have been many definitions proposed for the communication strategies of second language learners. The following definitions will provide us with an insight into the nature of communication strategies.

conscious communication strategies are used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individuals thought (Tarone, 1977: 195)

a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared (Tarone, 1980: 420)

they are a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty (Corder, 1981: 103, Corder 1983: 16).

Learners attempt to bridge the gap between their linguistic competence in the target language and that of the target language interlocutors, (Tarone, 1981:288)

CSs are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal (Faerch and Kasper, 1983a:36)

Communication strategies predetermine the verbal planning, they serve the function of adjusting the plan to the situation, i.e. each individual utterance is to be seen as strategic. What is specific for IL users is that plans of action cannot be directly converted into verbal plans, because of gaps in the speakers

(and hearers) linguistic repertoire. The primary function of communication strategies in the speech of IL users is to compensate for this deficit (Wagner, 1983: 167)

Communication strategies, i.e., techniques of coping with difficulties in communicating in an imperfectly known second language (Stern, 1983: 411)

The domain of compensation strategies must be precisely defined. It is the domain of attempts made by non-native speakers of a language to remedy the disparity that exists between their communicative needs and the linguistic tools at their disposal (Harding, 1983: 1)

.all attempts to manipulate a limited linguistic system in order to promote communication. Should learning result from the exercise, the strategy has also functioned as a learning strategy, but there is no inherent feature of the strategy itself which can determine which of these roles it will serve (Bialystok, 1983: 102 — 103)

Compensatory strategies are strategies which a language user employs in order to achieve his intended meaning on becoming aware of problems arising during the planning phase of an utterance due to his own linguistic shortcomings (Poulisse et al., 1984: 72) and (Poulisse, 1990: 88).

Communication strategies (CS) have generally been defined as means that speakers use to solve their communicative problems; (Paribakht, 1985:132)

the means used by a speaker to overcome a difficulty encountered whilst attempting to communicate in the foreign language (Towell, 1987: 97)

The key defining criteria for CSs are problematicity and consciousness. All the previously mentioned definitions support the claim that CSs are employed when L2 learners encounter a problem in communication. Tarones (1977), Faerch and Kaspers definitions (1983a) emphasise the idea that CSs may be used consciously. Faerch and Kasper (1983a) see problem orientation and potential consciousness as

the defining criteria of communication strategies. This is very clear in their definition of CSs as "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (ibid:36). The ultimate aim after using communication strategies is to achieve a communicative goal.

Faerch and Kasper (ibid) conceive these plans as being of three types:

1. plans which are always consciously employed;
2. plans which are never consciously employed;
3. plans which to some language users and/or in some situations may be consciously used and which to other language users and/or in other situations are used unconsciously (Faerch and Kasper, 1983a: 35).

Bialystok (1990), however, claims that consciousness is implicit in all the proposed definitions. She excludes the criterion of consciousness as a defining criterion for communication strategies because she does not find evidence to support the claim that, when speakers use communication strategies, they are aware that they have done so. Speakers have a choice when they communicate. For example, they may choose lorry or truck to refer to the same thing. So it is a choice that takes place "without the conscious consideration of the speaker" (Bialystok, 1990: 4). She goes on to describe a third criterion intentionality, which presupposes consciousness. It refers to the learners control over a repertoire of strategies. From this repertoire the speaker can choose a particular one from certain options, in order to achieve certain effects. But she concludes: "the intentionality of communication strategies is questionable" (1990:5).

I am in favour of Faerch and Kasper's definition (1983a:36) which defines CSs as "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal". It associates communication strategies with the solutions to the problems encountered by language users. In order for them to achieve their communicative goals when language users encounter a problem, they resort to communication strategies. In their definition, Faerch and Kasper neither restrict communication strategies to the

interaction that takes place between the speaker and the listener, nor do they restrict their use to non-native speakers as Harding (1983) and Stern (1983) did.

Data Elicitation Methodology

CS researchers have used different methods to elicit data needed to study communication strategies. Some researchers have used tasks which are purposefully designed to elicit communication strategies; some have used communicative tasks. But their methods of elicitation are different. The elicitation methods include picture description (Bialystok and Frohlich, 1980), picture reconstruction (Bialystok, 1983), video-taped conversation (Haastrup and Phillipson, 1983), narration (Dechert, 1983; Raupach, 1983), instruction (Wagner, 1983) and interview (Raupach, 1983). These different methods affect the speaker's selection of a certain strategy.

Often language learners are asked to describe uncommon or unfamiliar objects, e.g. Hammock (Paribakht, 1985), Abacus (Poulisse, 1990). The pictures were sometimes abstract shapes for which there is no name (e.g. Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989) as in Figure (2).

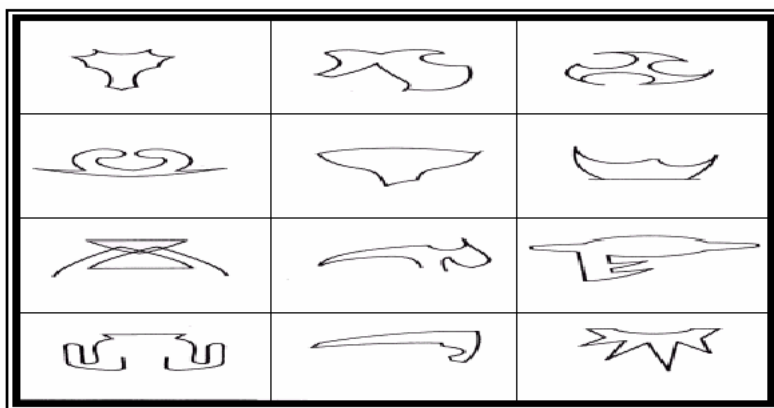


Figure (2) Bongaerts and Poulisse's picture description task (1989:259)

The learners task in Bialystok (1983) was to describe the pictures so that the listener could pick out the matching pictures. Green (1995: 56) believes that "restrictions may be imposed on both the listener and the speaker". For example, "the reconstructor refrained from speaking as much as possible" (Bialystok, 1983:105), "The listener was not allowed to

ask the speaker for any clarification ” (Yule and Tarone, 1990:186). Restrictions may also be imposed on the speakers “who were asked to try to convey the items to their interlocutors without using the exact target word” (Paribakht, 1985:134). Bialystok (1990:59-60) divided the subjects into pairs: “director” and “matcher”. She describes her task as “game-like” where “The director had to describe her board to the matcher so that she could reproduce the ordering that was on the director’s board”.

Description of a related series of drawings is used by some researchers to elicit narrative-like speech (e.g., Dechert, 1983; Green, 1995; Varadi, 1983, and Lotfalla and Shahrzad, 1992), or learners are asked to retell a story that they have already heard in L1 (e. g., Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989).

Another common task used to elicit communication strategies is when learners are given a series of instructions for making something, e.g. constructing a house or a clay pot from Lego blocks (Wagner, 1983), or assembling a Christmas tree stand (Yule and Tarone, 1990). Blum-Kulka and Levenston (1983), in their study “Universals of lexical simplification”, which aimed to investigate CSs of lexical simplification, used isolated sentences with single blanks for single missing words (Cloze test).

Role-play is another type of task used for eliciting CSs, e.g. telephoning a plumber to ask for help (Corrales and Emily, 1989), or a customer and waiter role-play (Khanji, 1996), and interviews with native speakers, (e.g. Poulisse, 1990, Klosek, 1982, Corrales and Emily, 1989, and Liskin-Gasparro,1996). Sometimes telephone conversation tasks are used (Green, 1995).

Despite the fact that all the tasks cited above are successful in eliciting strategic behaviour, many of them may seem remote from real-life communication. Maybe for that reason, some researchers have tried to elicit their data by video-taping conversations with native speakers, e.g. face-to-face conversation between Danish learners at various educational levels and native speakers of English conversing about everyday topics (Faerch and Kasper, 1983a), conversation with native speakers (Haastrup and Phillipson, 1983), conversations about incidental matters between native speakers of the Cantonese dialect of Chinese (Klosek, 1982).

It is difficult to say that these conversations represent real-life communication. Even if the subjects feel relaxed, they will still have the feeling of being tested. Their performance or oral production might thus be affected. If researchers are interested in carrying out their research in a natural setting, it will be difficult to control and the results

are often problematic to interpret. If a particular phenomenon is the object of study, such as the use of strategies for referential communication, one may have to wait days for any spontaneous emission of relevant data. Further, natural data are the product of a myriad of factors over most of which the researcher has no control and many of which the researcher is unaware (Bialystok, 1990: 161).

Taxonomies of CSs

The terminology used to describe strategic behaviour varies a great deal, but the corresponding parts of most of the existing strategies show many similarities. In this section, I will discuss the various taxonomies offered in the literature so far.

Varadi's Taxonomy: Varadi (1973/1983) envisaged a variety of communicational strategies which were of two basic types: reduction and replacement of an optimal meaning resulting in a message adjustment. See Figure (3).

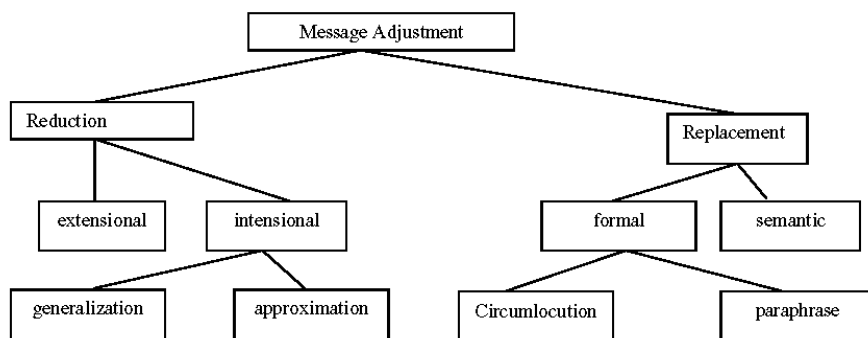


Figure (3) Varadis Taxonomy of CSs (adapted from Varadi, 1973/1983:81-99)

Varadi (1973/1983) distinguishes between intensional and extensional reduction strategies. Intensional reduction strategies involve generalisation, when language learners use a superordinate term to refer to its hyponym, and approximation, which refers to restructuring the optimal meaning by “explicating (often only referring to) part of its semantic component (balloon > air ring)” (1983:92). He gives examples of approximation such as gas ball for balloon, string for clothes line, and ball for balloon or rope for clothes line to illustrate generalisation.

Tarone's (1977) Taxonomy: The first taxonomy to describe CSs was that of Tarone (1977). In her study, Tarone analysed the performance of nine subjects, who were at an intermediate level, in describing two simple drawings and a complex illustration in both L1 and L2 English and came up with a taxonomy of CSs. See Table (1), where these strategies are defined explicitly and illustrated with examples. The Compensatory Strategies of Faerch and Kasper (1983) are convergent with the major strategies proposed by Tarone (1977): approximation, coinage, literal translation, paraphrase, avoidance strategies and appeal for help. See Figure (5) and table (1) below.

Table (1)
Tarones (1977) Taxonomy of Communication Strategies
(Cited in Tarone 1983:62-63)

<p>Paraphrase</p> <p>Approximation - use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker (e.g. pipe for waterpipe)</p> <p>Word coinage - the learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (e.g. airball for balloon)</p> <p>Circumlocution - the learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language (TL) item or structure (She is, uh, smoking something. I dont know whats its name. Thats, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of.)</p> <p>Conscious transfer</p> <p>Literal translation - the learner translates word for word from the native language (e.g., He invites him to drink, for They toast one another.)</p> <p>Language switch - the learner uses the native language (NL) term without bothering to translate (e.g. balon for balloon, tirtil for caterpillar)</p> <p>Appeal for assistance - the learner asks for the correct term (e.g., What is this? What called?)</p> <p>Mime - the learner uses non-verbal strategies in place of a lexical item or action (e.g., clapping ones hands to illustrate applause)</p> <p>Avoidance</p> <p>Topic avoidance - the learner simply tries not to talk about concepts for which the TL item or structure is not known</p> <p>Message abandonment - the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue and stops in mid-utterance</p>
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Tarone (1977:198) defines paraphrase as “the rewording of the message in an alternate, acceptable target language construction, in situations where the appropriate form or construction is not known or not yet stable”. She identifies three types of paraphrase strategy: approximation, word coinage and circumlocution. According to Faerch and Kasper (1983a), paraphrase is used to refer to description, exemplification and circumlocution, whereas generalisation is used to mean approximation in other taxonomies.

Bialystok’s (1980) Taxonomy: Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) and Bialystok (1983) proposed a new taxonomy based on the type of information used by the learners. See Figure (4). They classified CSs into three main categories: L1-based strategies, L2-based strategies and paralinguistic strategies, based on the source of information used to solve the communication problem. L1-based strategies include switching, foreignising and literal translation. Language switch is the “insertion of a word or a phrase in a language other than the target language, usually the learners native language”, whereas foreignising is the creation of non-existent or inappropriate target language items “by applying L2 morphology and/or phonology to L1 lexical items”, for example pronouncing an English word with a French accent (Bialystok and Frohlich, 1980:10).

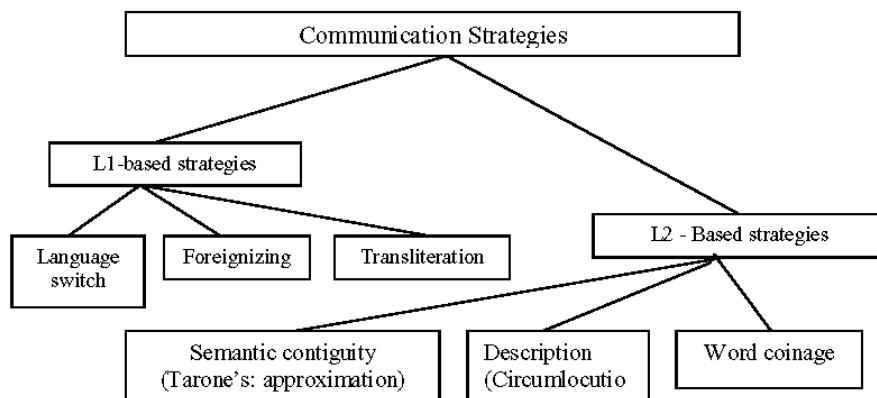


Figure (4) Bialystoks Taxonomy of CSs
(Adapted from Bialystok and Frohlich 1980 and Bialystok 1983:105-107)

Faerch and Kasper’s Taxonomy: Following their model of speech production, Faerch and Kasper (1983a) suggested that there are two

phases included in speech production: the planning phase and the execution phase. A plan results from the planning phase and is then followed in the execution phase in order to achieve the intended communicative goal. The speaker “selects the rules and items which he considers most appropriate for establishing a plan, the execution of which will lead to verbal behaviour which is expected to satisfy the original goal” (ibid.:25). Communication strategies are considered to be a constituent of the planning phase. When second language learners face any problem, they resort either to avoidance behaviour (adopting avoidance strategies), or to achievement behaviour (adopting achievement strategies). See figure (5) below.

Faerch and Kasper (1983a) divided reduction strategies (avoidance strategies) into two sub-categories: formal reduction strategies and functional reduction strategies. Formal reduction is defined thus: “learners communicate by means of a reduced system in order to avoid producing non-fluent or incorrect utterances” and this may occur at the level of phonology, morphology, syntax or lexis (ibid.:p.38). Functional reduction strategies are used when learners experience problems in the planning phase or in the execution phase, and the learner then reduces his communicative goal in order to avoid the problem. Functional reduction occurs either at the planning phase or the execution phase and it includes topic avoidance, message abandonment and message replacement.

Faerch and Kasper (ibid.) also divided achievement strategies into two sub-categories (i) compensatory strategies and (ii) retrieval strategies which learners adopt at the execution phase. Compensatory strategies and retrieval strategies are achievement strategies which learners use in an attempt to solve their communication problems by expanding their communicative resources.

Code switching involves a switch from L2 to L1 or to any other foreign language, whereas interlingual transfer refers to strategies that result in a combination of the linguistic features of L1 and L2. Inter/intralingual transfer involves making generalisations which are influenced by L1 structures. IL - based strategies refer to “coping with communicative problems by using his IL system: he may (i) generalize; (ii) paraphrase; (iii) coin new words.(iv) restructuring” (Faerch & Kasper 1983a: 47).

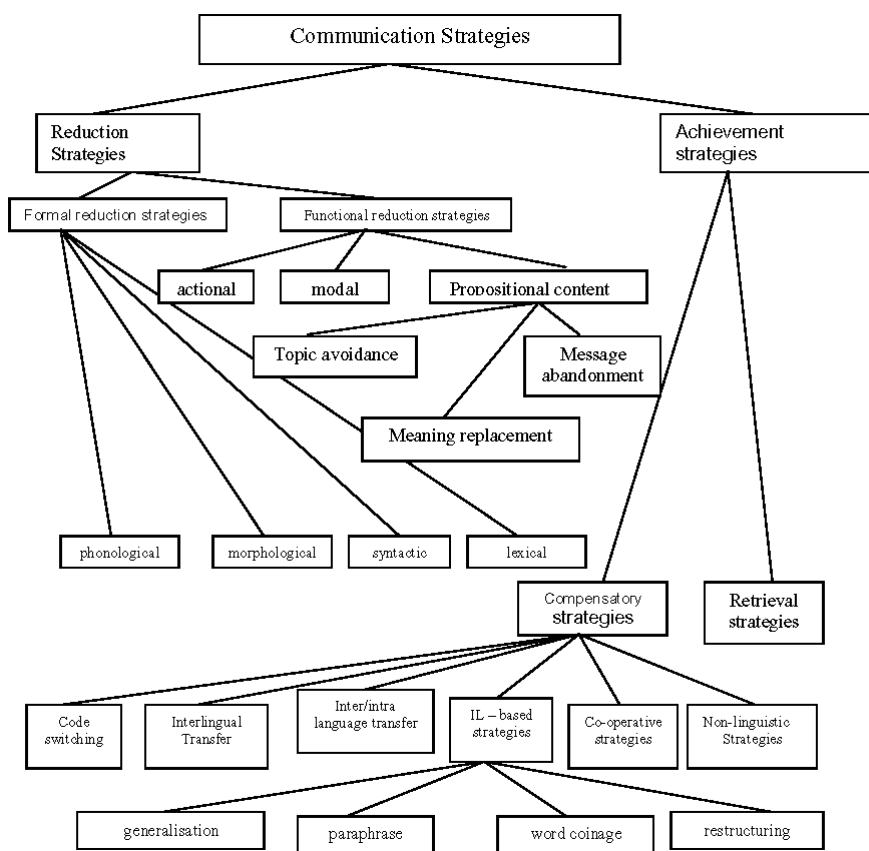


Figure (5) Faerch and Kasper's taxonomy of CSs
(Adapted from Faerch and Kasper 1983a:36-56)

Co-operative strategies include appeal for help to the interlocutor, which could be a direct or indirect appeal. Non-linguistic strategies refer to mime, gesture and sound imitation and they are used to support verbal strategies and to facilitate communication. Retrieval strategies appear when “learners may have difficulties in retrieving specific IL items and may adopt achievement strategies in order to get at the problematic item” (Faerch & Kasper 1983a:52).

Generalisation is used when learners find a solution to their communication problems in the planning phase by “filling in the gaps in their plans with IL items which they would not normally use in such

contexts” (p.47). Paraphrase involves solving a problem in the planning phase by “filling the gap in his plan with a construction which is well - formed according to his IL system” (Faerch and Kasper, 1983a: 49).

Word coinage “involves the learner in a creative construction of a new IL word (cf. Varadi (1973/1983) airball for balloon). Restructuring is used “whenever the learner realizes that he cannot complete a local plan which he has already begun to use and switches to an alternative local plan which enables him to communicate his intended message without reduction” (Faerch and Kasper, 1983a:50).

Corder’s (1983) Taxonomy: According to Corder (1983), strategies of communication are related to means and ends which are in balance in a native speaker, but not in a language learner. When language learners are faced with a problem during the course of interaction, they have two options: either they tailor their message (ends) to their linguistic resources (means) by using message adjustment strategies or risk avoidance strategies that could be topic avoidance, message abandonment or semantic avoidance, or they increase their linguistic resources to achieve their communicative goals by resource expansion strategies. See Figure (6).

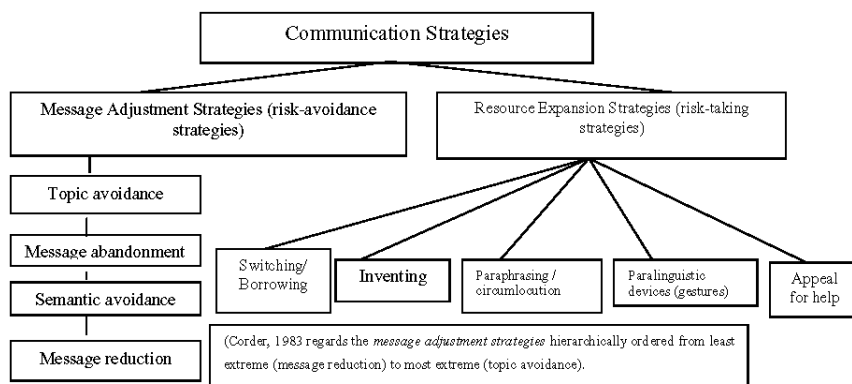


Figure (6) Corder’s taxonomy of communication strategies

(Adapted from Corder, 1983:17-18):

The Nijmegen Group Taxonomy: The most comprehensive project on communication strategies was that conducted at the University of Nijmegen (Netherlands) by Kellerman, Bongaerts, and Poullisse in the

1980s. They argued that “the study of communication strategies should reach beyond description to prediction and explanation” (Kellerman et al., 1990:164). They criticised the early taxonomies for concentrating on the linguistic form that results from a strategy, rather than on the process that leads to the use of such strategies.

The Nijmegen group’s aim was to produce a process-based taxonomy of CSs that was characterised by being parsimonious (fewer categories), generalisable (independent of variations across speakers, tasks, languages and levels of proficiency) and psychologically plausible (the most important) that would replace existing taxonomies (Kellerman and Bialystok, 1997).

The Nijmegen group also argued that CSs are mental procedures. They believed that CS research should investigate the cognitive processes that underlie strategic language use. They claimed that concentrating only on the surface structures of strategic language behaviour would lead to taxonomies of doubtful validity. Therefore, Bialystok and the Nijmegen group maintained that CS research should adopt an analytic perspective by focusing on the cognitive deep structure of strategic language.

Their alternative approach followed a process-oriented classification of CSs which divided them into conceptual strategies and linguistic strategies. This classification was based on Bongaerts and Poulisse’s (1989) study of 45 Dutch learners of English (30 secondary school pupils and 15 university students), who were tested at three proficiency levels according to the number of years they had studied English: advanced (university level), intermediate (high secondary school), and low (low secondary). Four tasks were used in their project: describing photographs of unusual objects like a fly-swatter; describing abstract geometrical drawings in L1 and L2; retelling four one-minute long scripted stories; and a fifteen-minute interview. Compensatory strategies were classified into conceptual (analytic and holistic) and linguistic (morphological and transfer). See Figure (7) below. The results showed that the more advanced the learner, the fewer compensatory strategies he/she employed. The results also showed that L1 and L2 speakers handle their referential problems in a similar way.

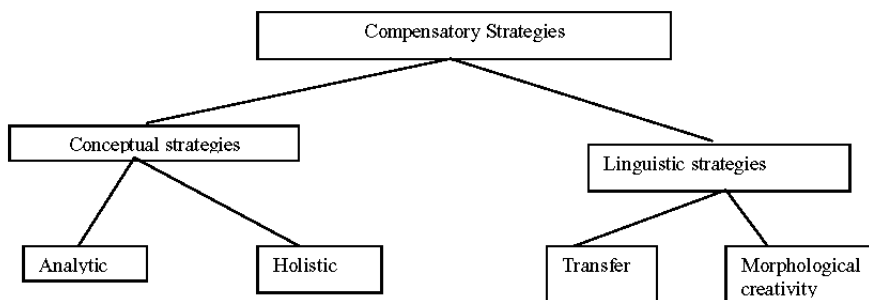


Figure (7) Nijmegen Taxonomy of CSs based on Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989, p. 255)

According to Bongaerts and Poulisse (1989), when a language user wants to communicate a referent whose name is not available, he adopts one of the two main strategies: conceptual and linguistic. See Figure (8) above.

Conceptual strategies refer to the learner's use of his conceptual knowledge to compensate for a missing word. In a conceptual strategy "the speaker analyses the concept semantically, by decomposing it into its defining and characteristic features" (Poulisse, 1990:80). Kellerman and Bialystok (1997), in referring to the conceptual strategy, state:

In the original Nijmegen scheme, we distinguished two polar variants of this strategy - analytic and holistic. The first exploits features of the target concept itself, typically part-whole relationships, attributes and functions (it has leaves, its green, Popeye eats it...for spinach . while the latter resorts to concepts in hierarchical relation, such as hypernym of (e.g., bird for sparrow, hyponym of (e.g., oranges and apples for fruit) and co-hyponym of (e.g., peas for beans) (Kellerman and Bialystok 1997:38-39).

This strategy includes two sub-types: holistic and analytic. When a language user adopts a holistic strategy, he uses a referent which is similar to the target referent, for example chair for stool, rose for flower. In traditional taxonomies, these are referred to as approximation. The use of bird for sparrow and vegetables for peas are examples of a holistic conceptual strategy. The use of such a strategy is preceded by expressions like "It looks like a..", "It's a sort of..".

An analytic strategy involves "a conceptual analysis of the origin-

ally intended concept”, such as “a talk uh bird” for “parrot”, or “he lives in the mountain” for “hermit” (Poulisse, 1990:61). Bongaerts and Poulisse (1989:255) also claim that holistic and analytic strategies are sometimes combined, as in “a bird which is small and has a red breast”, for robin.

A linguistic strategy is used when the language user “exploits his or her knowledge of the rule systems of the native language, the target language, or any other language he or she happens to know. He or she uses his or her insights into the correspondences between these rule systems” (Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989:255).

Bongaerts and Poulisse (*ibid.*) distinguish between two sub-types of linguistic strategy. Morphological creativity refers to the use of the target language’s morphological rules to create new words (e.g., appliances for letters of application, representator for representative and shamefully for shameful). The second sub-type is the strategy of transfer, which includes transferring things from L1 or L3. It can be referred to as literal translation, ‘foreignizing’ and borrowing.

Kellerman (1991) presented a two-strategy taxonomy which was based on the Nijmegen project (e.g., Poulisse, 1987). It includes conceptual and code strategies. Conceptual strategies involve talking about the properties of the concept, including part-whole relationships, attributes and functions. Code strategy refers to the use of a word form via languages other than L2 or via the derivation of rules within L2.

In Kellermans taxonomy (*ibid.*), non-verbal strategies such as mime are considered to be manifestations of a conceptual strategy when depicting semantic properties, whereas in previous taxonomies they are classified as a separate category.

Poulisse (1997) tried to conceptualise CSs within a coherent model of speech production which allowed for a detailed psycholinguistic analysis of strategic behaviour. When L2 learners find it difficult to communicate their intended message, they adopt a certain strategy. Following Levelt’s (1989) model of language production, Poulisse (1997) summarises what happens in the course of communication:

At Step 1, speakers conceptualise a message adhering to general principles of communication and taking into account the situation, the preceding discourse, the knowledge they share with their interlocutor(s) and so on. At Step 2, they start the

encoding of this message, but run into problems... They then have the choice between giving up (i.e. using an avoidance strategy), or encoding their message in an alternative way (i.e. using a compensatory strategy). The latter solution will presumably involve replanning the original message at the level of conceptualisation: it will either require a complete organization of the original plan in the case of analytic conceptual strategy, or the substitution of some meaning or language elements to allow for the selection of an alternative lexical item in the case of holistic conceptual strategy or transfer strategies. It seems likely, then, that while planning the use of a CpS, the speaker will again follow general principles of communication and will take the situation, the preceding discourse and shared knowledge into account. In other words, CpS use is probably subject to the same principles and constraints that affect the production of any other utterance (Poulisse, 1997: 50).

Despite the fact that the Nijmegen group taxonomy seems applicable and convergent with other taxonomies, it is difficult to apply geometrical, partitive and linear analysis to data other than the abstract geometrical shapes which formed the central task in their research (cf. Bongaerts, Kellerman and Bentalage, 1987; Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989; Poulisse, 1990).

Dornyei and Scotts Taxonomy: Dornyei and Scotts (1997) review article on CSs cited their taxonomy of CSs (Dornyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b). Their taxonomy is considered to be a summary of all the taxonomies available in CS research, but some new strategies such as use of similar - sounding words, use of all - purpose words, mumbling, as a part of their main category direct strategies are added to their taxonomy. Feigning understanding is another added strategy. See table (2) below.

Dornyei (1995) suggested an extension to the definition of communication strategies to include stalling or time-gaining strategies (e.g. the use of pause fillers and hesitation gambits). These strategies are not used as a result of language deficiency, but rather to help speakers gain time to keep the communication channel open when they encounter a problem. In his suggestion, he agrees with several other researchers (e.g., Canale, 1983; Savignon, 1983; Rubin, 1987; Rost, 1994).

Table (2)
Dornyei and Scott's taxonomy of CSs (1995a, 1995b)
(Adapted from Dornyei and Scott, 1997:189-193)

<p>I. Direct Strategies</p> <p>A. Resource deficit - related strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Message abandonment * Message reduction * Message replacement * Circumlocution * Approximation * Use of all-purpose words * Word coinage * Restructuring * Literal translation * Foreignizing * Code switching * Use of similar-sounding words * Mumbling * Omission * Retrieval * Mime <p>B. Own-performance problem-related strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Self-rephrasing * Self-repair <p>C. Other - performance - related strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Other-repair <p>II Interactional Strategies</p> <p>A. Resource deficit-related strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Appeal for help <p>B. Own-performance problem-related strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Comprehension check * Own-accuracy check <p>C. Other-performance problem-related strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Asking for repetition * Asking for clarification * Asking for confirmation * Guessing * Expressing non understanding * Interpretive summary * Responses <p>III Indirect Strategies</p> <p>A. Processing time pressure-related strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Use of fillers * Repetitions <p>B. Own-performance problem-related strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Verbal strategy markers <p>C. Other-performance problem-related strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Feigning understanding

In discussing comprehensible input, Kasper and Kellerman (1997) suggest that interactional modifications, or adjustments such as confirmation checks, comprehension checks and clarification requests,

operate on input which is too far ahead of the learners current interlanguage competence and size it down to what the learner can manage. Since 'negotiation of meaning' is a joint enterprise between the learner and her interlocutor(s), the learner exerts a fair amount of control over just how much modification of the original input is needed to comprehend the interlocutors contribution (Kasper and Kellerman, 1997: 5-6).

This suggestion supports Dornyei and Scotts (1995a, 1995b) taxonomy which regards confirmation checks, comprehension checks and clarification requests as communication strategies. They labelled these strategies "interactional strategies".

Rababah's (2001) Taxonomy: Our Taxonomy is different from all the existing taxonomies because it was based on the pilot study, which was conducted to assess the suitability of tasks for eliciting the strategic behaviour and the quality of the data collection procedures. New sub-categories were added to the taxonomy, which were classified under language switch strategy. They were classified according to the factors causing this switch. These sub-categories are L1 appeal for help, L1 optimal meaning, L1 ignorance acknowledgement strategy and L1 retrieval strategies. They are "language switch" strategies and each one was used for a particular reason. Another L2-based strategy is added which is called ignorance acknowledgement. This strategy is used when the learner admits his ignorance and does not try any other strategy to describe the language item needed. For examples, see the taxonomy below.

The basis of the taxonomy is a consideration of the source of the information on which the strategy is used. This information may derive from the learners native language which is referred to as an L1-based strategy, or the information may originate from the target language, and in this case it is referred to as an L2-based strategy. When we say here L1- based strategies, we mean Arabic-based strategies. The reason for this is that there is no language used by Jordanians other than their

native language, Arabic, in both formal and informal communication. The examples given in the adopted taxonomy below are taken from the data of the author's study (Rababah, 2001: 213-217).

A. L1-Based Strategies

1. Literal translation: translating literally a lexical item.
e.g. "It is electrical stairs" for "Escalator".
2. Language Switch: This refers to the use of a word or a phrase from L1 to represent the target language item. This category may be divided into sub-categories according to the reasons for switching.
 - a. L1 slips and immediate insertion: Learners insert a word unintentionally - a slip of the tongue. Learners also insert words to complete the intended meaning.
e.g. Nasi (tr: I forgot),,,, skin scan e:r qiyas (tr: measure) e:r ((unintelligible)) em temperature degree?
 - b. L1 appeal for help: This refers to when learners use Arabic to appeal for help. The following example is taken from the story-telling task.
e.g. e:r yesterday e:m , the guy? ghalat? (tr: wrong?) drive er,,,, er drive the [baisklet]
The subject here uses the Arabic word ghalat? (tr: wrong?) with a rising intonation looking for confirmation from the researcher.
 - c. L1-optimal meaning strategy. Learners use L1- intended meaning (exact Arabic word) to refer to the object as in the following example: the use of the word ascenseur which was originally French, but has become part of everyday language, is also used by the learners.
ascenseur (tr: lift) ((the researcher asked "In English?")) the subject insisted hia ascenseur (tr: Its a lift)
The use of the Arabic word masaad is another example of L1-optimal meaning.
hatha masaad (tr: This is a lift.)
 - d. L1- retrieval strategies: Learners may realise at a certain time that the item they want to use is there, but they have to retrieve it in

some way, so they wait for the term to appear, in the meantime, they use Arabic all the while trying to recall what items they have. The following is a clear example of L1-retrieval strategy.

e.g. Hathi bisamouha (tr: this is called),,, to light the room,,,
e:r to light the room.

- e. L1 ignorance acknowledgement strategy: This is used when learners express their ignorance of the target language item required.

e.g. er mush aaref hai (tr: I dont know this).

B. L2 - Based Strategies

1. Avoidance Strategies:

- a. Message abandonment: This refers to leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.

e.g. The driver didnt do anything to em to prevent er em or to he didnt do anything.

- b. Topic Avoidance: This refers to reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic language-wise, or by leaving out some intended elements as a result of lacking the necessary linguistic resources. In this study, this was assessed in terms of whether the key events in the story-telling task, or the speech acts in the role-play task were attempted or not. For the picture identification/naming task, avoidance was not possible because of the nature of the task. The subjects were asked to identify the object shown to them by the researcher. All the pictures were attempted.

2. Word Coinage: This refers to the creation of a non-existent L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule.

e.g. “unmove” in the following utterance.

he found this the man who dr who hit them er find him his car is er is,, , its unmove

3. Circumlocution: This refers to exemplifying, illustrating, or describing the properties of the target object or action.

e.g. “We use it to make the baby walking in the house easily” to refer to baby walker

4. Self -correction/Restructuring: This refers to attempts to correct oneself by trying to restructure the utterance to reach the optimal meaning.
e.g. the car was broke broken.
5. Approximation: Using an alternative lexical item that shares certain semantic features with the target item, or using a generalised target language item.
The use of 'quicker' in the following example to mean 'faster'
The boys em be becau:se they because he is er,,, very,,, er quicker,,, in spee er very speed in driving.
"damaged" for "broken down" in the following utterance:
er he saw the man fixing his car his own car, the car was damaged and didnt work.
6. Mumbling: Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about.
e.g. he go er or er ((muttering)) on his bicycle
7. L2 appeal for help: This refers to asking for help directly or indirectly. Though the author did not intend to give any help, some subjects appealed for help.
e.g. e:r,,,,, I dont know. Electric e:r (13 sec) electric,,, ladder? Electric ladder? Electric steps? Step? I dont know.
8. Self-repetition: The learner repeats a word or a string of words immediately after they have been said.
e.g. he was very happy because he didnt ca(re) he didnt care for him when he fell.
9. Use of similar-sounding words: This strategy is used to replace a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with an existing or non-existent word which sounds like the target item.
e.g. "this is {ekstenture}" for "fire extinguisher"
10. Use of all-purpose words: This refers to the use of words like "stuff", "thing", "things" "do" or "make".
e.g. the man was trying to fix it (the car). he looked at it and he did the same thing

11. Ignorance Acknowledgement: This refers to the learners admission of his lack of the required knowledge or vocabulary when he says that he does not know.

e.g. e:r em I dont know, tell me.

So far no consensus has been reached on a definitive taxonomy of communication strategies. In the following section, I will discuss the problems related to these taxonomies and the problems encountered in classifying utterances into different CS categories.

Problems with taxonomies of CSs

The taxonomies provided by researchers are organised according to certain criteria: the choice of the learner as to whether to reduce or achieve his goal, to consult different sources of information - L1 or L2 - or to use his conceptual or linguistic knowledge. Though researchers have produced apparently different taxonomies with different structures, the underlying structure of these taxonomies is often the same. What is referred to as circumlocution by one taxonomy is classified as description or exemplification in other taxonomies. For example, Bongaerts and Poulisse (1989) distinguish between two sub-types of linguistic strategy: morphological creativity and strategy of transfer. Strategy of transfer consists of transferring items from L1 or L3. It may be referred to as literal translation, 'foreignizing' and borrowing. In Tarones taxonomy (1977), these strategies are referred of as strategies of conscious transfer and later (Tarone,1983) as borrowing.

Poulisse (1993) reconsidered some aspects of her work with the Nijmegen group and came up with a modified cognitive taxonomy made up of three categories: substitution, reconceptualization and substitution plus. Substituting one lexical item for another is substitution, whereas feature listing is reconceptualization. Substitution plus refers to the adaptation to the target language via morphological and phonological accommodation.

Kellerman and Bialystok argue that Poulisses new classification has its own problems. For example, "stuff to kill flies" (for fly spray), according to Poulisse is an example of "reconceptualization", or "substitution and reconceptualization" (1997:42). Another problem concerns lists of category members (e.g., tables, beds and chairs for furniture). Should these be treated as substitution or as reconceptualiza-

tion? One lexical item may be treated as substitution, but all these category members are considered to be “reconceptualization on the grounds of requiring more processing effort” (ibid:42-43). What about when the learner produces apples and things for fruit, or tables, etc. for furniture. How are these classified? Poulisses (1993) distinction between substitution and reconceptualization seems to be based on whether it is a single lexical item representing another. Kellerman and Bialystok (1997:43) claim that, “Since exemplification is a fairly common compensatory lexical device, its ambiguous status is a challenge to Poulisses typology”.

In the original Nijmegen taxonomy, exemplification would always be classified as an example of conceptual strategy, whether by mentioning one or more category members (e.g., tables, beds and cupboards), or whether it is followed by etc. or and things.

According to Bialystok, “To return to zoological taxonomies, classifying animals according to their ability to fly or their possession of feathers will lead to essentially the same classification of events, even though the criteria for classifying the events appear to be different” (1990:47).

The taxonomies of Tarone (1977), Faerch and Kasper (1983), Bialystok (1983) and Paribakht (1985), show many similarities. Thus, Bialystok (1990) remarked:

the variety of taxonomies proposed in the literature differ primarily in terminology and overall categorizing principle rather than in the substance of the specific strategies. If we ignore, then, differences in the structure of the taxonomies by abolishing the various overall categories, then a core group of specific strategies that appear consistently across the taxonomies clearly emerges. Differences in the definitions and illustrations for these core strategies across the various studies are trivial. (Bialystok, 1990, p. 61).

However, Yule and Tarone (1997:17) summarise the approaches taken by CS researchers. The “Pros” whose purpose has been to “propose additional categories, maintaining and expanding existing taxonomies (e.g., Tarone and Yule, 1987)”, and the “Cons” who denied the value of existing taxonomies and to propose a substantial reduction

in the number of categories (e.g. Bongaerts et al., 1987)”. Yule and Tarone (ibid.) summarise the differences between the Pros and Cons as follows:

The Pros focus on describing the language produced by L2 learners, or description of L2 forms in using L2. The Pros divided the communication strategies into reduction strategies and achievement strategies. Reduction strategies include topic avoidance, and message abandonment when the language users face a difficulty during the course of communication. Achievement strategies (compensatory strategies) are used when language users expand their resources to arrive at their communicative goals, e.g., approximation, circumlocution, language transfer, word coinage (Faerch and Kasper, 1983a; Paribakht, 1985 and Tarone, 1977). The alternative approach of the Cons focuses on describing the psychological processes used by L2 learners in L2 performance. The Cons are only focused on CpS, which are divided into two main categories, conceptual or linguistic. A conceptual strategy is either holistic (using a substitute concept as in approximation and semantic contiguity), or analytic (describing the object’s properties via circumlocution, restructuring, repetition and exemplification). A linguistic strategy involves using linguistic devices (borrowing, foreignising, literal translation and word coinage) (e.g., Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989; Kellerman, 1991; Kellerman et al., 1990). In addition, the Pros attempt to work from performance to competence while the Cons work from competence in order to account for performance data.

In terms of methodology, the Pros and Cons are different. The Pros use a comparison between L1 and L2 performance. According to Yule and Tarone (1997), the Cons failed to elicit L1 performance so they compare the learners L2 performance with that of native speakers of the target language. The Cons focus on the cognitive processes involved in communicating a message, whereas the Pros are interested in describing the forms used by language learners. With abstract shapes, learners resort to conceptual strategies by using analogies and by describing the parts of the shape, but with real word objects, learners start by naming and describing their function and use. (In this study when the subjects do not know the target language item or a substitute for it, they describe its use and function). The presence or the absence of the listener is another difference between the Pros and the Cons. For

the Cons, the presence of a listener seems to be unnecessary in a shape identification task. Tarone and Yule (1989) are of the opinion that the interlocutor/listener has an important and powerful influence on the speakers performance, and may have a great effect on the cognitive processes underlying that performance.

Another difference is that the Cons draw their subjects from only one background (Dutch L1 learners). This might have affected the type of strategies revealed in the data. For example, Chen (1990) found that there were no L1-based (code) strategies used by her Chinese subjects. The Pros, on the other hand, included learners from a variety of L1 backgrounds.

To conclude, there is no consensus among researchers over a taxonomy of communication strategies. It is very clear in the literature that a single utterance may be labelled under two different categories. Cook argues that “ if the lists were standardised, at least, there would be an agreement about such categories” (1993:133). Researchers develop and propose new taxonomies of communication strategies from time to time. In the end, research into communication strategies will probably include a standardised taxonomy.

Problems with the classification of CSs

CS research has suffered from problems related to the classification of communication strategies. According to Bialystok “each utterance betrays the presence of several strategies. This combination of approaches used by speakers in a single utterance leads to problems of classification” (1990:69).

Duff (1997:195) claims that overlap exists across the communication strategies: “the same utterances may manifest or have embedded within them more than one strategy”. For example, Rababah (2001), the author of the present article, found out that some utterances included two or more communication strategies. To identify an escalator, one subject uttered “these machine used to carry people from one floor to another floor, floor er like in,, airport or in any (unintelligible word)”.

In Rababahs study (2001), repetition strategy in the above example was used when the subject repeated the word floor. Circumlocution

strategy was also manifested when the subject described the use or the function of the object “used to carry people like in airport”. Mumbling was a third strategy used.

Another example of the students’ oral production, which manifests more than one strategy in an utterance is given by Rababah (ibid.).

e:r,....., you can count er the e:r , the distance of e:r found it in the car e:m this o'clock can e:r e:r put in shu? (tr: what?) er in the car to: er to: limit the: the speed (This full description is just to identify a speedometer).

In the above utterance more than one strategy was used. An example of approximation strategy is the use of the word count to mean measure. The learner extends the meaning of count to mean measure. This could be as a result of literal translation from the native language/ Arabic. The word clock is used as an approximation of the target word speedometer, which could be due to the influence of the native language as people in Jordan use the word clock translated literally to refer to the speedometer. Appeal for help was clearly manifested when the learner asked shu? (tr: what?). But the most apparent strategy is circumlocution: “found it in the car e:m . er in the car to: er to: limit the: the speed”

Many researchers have disagreed with each other over the classification of a certain type of strategic behaviour in terms of which category it belongs to, but they almost always refer to the same thing. In Tarone (1977) one learner referred to a hairdresser as a person who cuts hair, while another person called it a haircutter. For Bongaerts and Poulisse (1989), using Tarone's taxonomy (1977), the first utterance should be classified as a “circumlocution” and the second as a word coinage. This classification focuses on the differences in the linguistic form between the two utterances. But Bongaerts and Poulisse claim that “the two utterances are similar in terms of their semantic content. Thus, it ignores the fact that the underlying referential processes are similar. In both cases the learners communicate the intended concept by mentioning some of its most distinctive attributes” (1989:254). For the Nijmegen group, when the expressions refer to the characteristics of the item, they are all categorised as “circumlocution”.

Traditional taxonomies (e.g., Tarone, 1977, Faerch and Kasper, 1983a) would categorise “something to kill flies with” for a fly-swat as

a description of function, “an animal in the form of a star” for a starfish as a description of shape, and the “small orange ones” to distinguish large fish from small ones, as a description of size followed by colour. Bongaerts and Poulisse (1989) claim that the problem with such a classification is that:

these distinctions merely reflect differences in referents and differences in the contexts in which the referents are presented. Consequently, taxonomies that contain such distinctions fail to capture an important generalization with respect to referential behaviour: the strategy learners adopt is to mention those attributes of a referent which uniquely identify it in a given context (Bongaerts and Poulisse 1989:254).

Kellerman (1991:146), in criticising the taxonomies proposed so far, points out that referring to an art gallery as a picture place or as a place where you look at pictures obviously reflects the same underlying cognitive process. Thus to code them as word coinage and circumlocution, according to Tarone's taxonomy, is misleading.

Bialystok (1990) summarises the main problems that CS research suffers from:

the criteria for assigning an utterance to a specific strategy are sometimes vague, sometimes arbitrary, and sometimes irrelevant. If concepts such as sharing semantic features or single words are interpreted differently, the same utterance would be assigned to a different category. These vagaries of classification directly challenge the reliability of the taxonomies and limit their potential for forming the basis for explanation of communication strategies (Bialystok, 1990, p.75).

For example, in the data from collected by Rababah (2001), one learner produced “hand e:r,,,,, cleaning hand Mukinseh, Nasi Esimha Bilingilizi (tr: broom, I forgot its name in English)”

Cleaning hand can be classified both as word coinage and as literal translation. Such examples were considered to be literal translation from Arabic because in daily life we refer to 'broom' as something close to the words produced by the learner.

Another example is "telephone public" produced by another

learner. The wrong word order is an indication of literal translation, because in Arabic word order is different from English the noun coming before the adjective.

In the following example, electrical lamps could be classified as either word coinage or literal translation, but in our opinion it is word coinage strategy, which again resulted from literal translation: er electrical lamps or e:r or er electrical lamps I guess.

The subject in the utterance quoted below used travelling cheques for travellers cheque. Such utterances have been classified in this study as word coinage. It is probable that the learner applied a number of morphological and syntactical rules in order to arrive at this form, intending to create a new word.

e:r I have some travelling cheques and em I wonder where I can find a bank or what time the banks open or close?

"Electricity machine" was produced by another learner to refer to a vacuum cleaner. It could be classified by another researcher as literal translation, but in our opinion is word coinage. The subject tried to express the optimal meaning, but due to his limited linguistic resources, he was forced to join two words together to pass on his message.

It has become obvious that it is sometimes difficult to assign a particular utterance to a particular strategy since the same utterance may include more than one strategy, and also be classified differently by researchers. However, in order to standardised the classification process, the CS cases should be identified as to strategic behaviour, then highlighted and classified within their context. The independent judges could check the reliability of the classification plus of the coding system.

Teachability of Communication Strategies

A major issue that has been investigated by many researchers is whether L2 learners need to be taught communication strategies or not. Some researchers have been enthusiastic about the idea of teaching CSs and claim that it is both possible and desirable (e.g., Oxford, 1990; Tarone and Yule, 1989; Rost, 1994). Others have opposed teaching CSs (e.g., Terrell, 1977; Bialystok, 1990; Labarca and Khanji, 1986; Cook, 1991; and Kellerman, 1991).

Canale and Swain (1980) believe that communication strategies are

most likely to be acquired in real-life situations and not in the classroom. Bialystok (1990) also argues that communication strategies are reflections of underlying psychological processes, so focusing on the surface structure will not enhance communication strategy use. She proposes that we should seek to develop learners CSs by “training aimed at mastering of analysis and control over the target language” (ibid.:145). She also adds that “What one must teach students of a language is not strategy, but language”, because the more the learners know, the better they will be at meeting their demands (ibid.:147). Kellerman also holds the same point of view. He proposes that “there is no justification for training in compensatory strategies in the classroom. Teach the learners more language and let strategies look after themselves” (1991:158).

These researchers conclusions are not based on any experimental research that has proved that teaching CSs does have a beneficial effect on learners performances in the target language. As a result, empirical studies have been conducted to investigate the effect of teaching CSs on the learners performance (For details see section 5.6).

On the other hand, many other researchers maintain that strategy training is possible and desirable (e.g., Faerch and Kasper, 1983a; Chen, 1990; Haastrup and Phillipson, 1983; Rost, 1994; Savignon, 1972, 1983; Tarone and Yule 1989, Dornyei and Thurrell, 1991).

Faerch and Kasper, for example, argue that “if by teaching we mean passing on new information only, there is probably no need to teach communication strategies” because language users have that knowledge and make use of it in their L1. They suggest that if teaching means making learners conscious of their behaviour, then “it is obvious that we should teach them about strategies” (1983a:55).

Oxford (1990) and OMalley and Chamot (1990) also argue that conscious raising of the use of CSs is important. They suggest that training students in the use of communication strategies and learning strategies helps them become better language users.

Tarone and Yule (1989:114) support Faerch and Kaspers (1983) view of teaching communication strategies when they admit, “We differ in our approach from other researchers, who argue that communication strategies cannot be explicitly taught”.

Controversies among researchers might be due to the different interpretations of the notion of teaching communication strategies, which may be summarised thus:

1. Raising the learners awareness of the nature of CSs. Faerch and Kasper emphasized the importance of increasing metacommunicative awareness (1986:187).
2. Encouraging learners to be risk takers and use CSs. Learners should not be afraid of making errors (Faerch and Kasper, 1986).
3. Providing L2 models of the use of certain CSs through demonstrations, listening materials and videos and getting learners to categorise and evaluate strategies used by native speakers or other L2 speakers. Faerch and Kasper (1986) procedure when they videotaped the learners performance was for them to view their own recordings, and the students analysed their own use of strategy.
4. Teaching CSs directly by providing learners with linguistic devices. For example, Tarone and Yule (1989) point out that circumlocution requires certain basic core vocabulary and sentence structure in order to be able to use terms such as bowl-shaped, triangular, on the rim circular. Dornyei and Thurrell (ibid.) consider basic structures to be given to the learners like a kind of, the thing you use for, it is something you do/say when..
5. Providing opportunities for practice in strategy use rather than direct teaching. Kellerman acknowledges the possible usefulness of situational classroom practice of strategies in order to help learners overcome difficulties: "such exercises would be designed to help learners perform their competence rather than build it up"(1991:160).

By teaching communication strategies, we mean all of the above: raising the learners awareness of CSs, encouraging them to take risks and use CSs, providing L2 models of the use of certain CSs, teaching CSs directly by providing learners with linguistic devices and finally providing opportunities for practice in use of strategies. The effective use of CSs will probably help enormously in achieving the speakers communicative goals.

Conclusion and Implications

Research into communication strategies has made an important contribution to L2 acquisition. This research has made much progress during the last three decades since Selinker (1972) introduced the term Strategies of Second Language Communication. CS researchers began their research by defining, identifying and classifying communication strategies. Empirical research into CSs, which was conducted subsequently, has given way to the analysis of the mental processes underlying CS use. The Nijmegen Group and Poulisse (1993) attempted to relate strategy use to models of language processing and language production, but this was limited to lexical compensatory strategies. Another important direction for CS research was that of Kellerman and Bialystok (1997), which was concerned with the psycholinguistic approach to cover other types of strategies, such as reduction strategies and appeal for help.

As foreign/second language teachers and learners, our main concern is accuracy and fluency. Once learners concentrate on form or accuracy, they will encounter problems, because a non-native speaker does not master all the language forms and rules. Therefore, when L2 learners recognise that there is a mismatch between their linguistic resources and their communicative intentions, they try to solve these problems by using communication strategies, such as appeal for help, literal translation, circumlocution, approximation, coinage, etc., to make their ideas comprehensible and to achieve their communicative goals. Of course, clarification requests and self-repetitions are communication strategies as well.

The place of CSs in language teaching has been a source of considerable controversy in the past twenty years, ranging from strong support for training learners in the classroom to opposition to strategy training based on the claim that strategic competence develops in one's native language and is transferable to the target language. Ellis (1984), Tarone and Yule (1987) and Yule and Tarone (1990) found that native speakers use communication strategies in their native language, but less than they do in their target language. This is due to the language competence acquired.

I am in support of the idea of raising the learners' awareness of the nature and communicative potential of CSs by making them conscious

of the CSs existing in their repertoire, and sensitising them to the appropriate situations. The teachers role is then to orient the learners and focus their attention on these strategies. This can be done by explaining the nature and types of CS to the learners and illustrating them with examples. They might be asked to record their voice in performing a certain task, then to play it back in order to assess their use of CSs.

Students should also be encouraged to take risks and to use CSs. This means that learners should use all their available resources to communicate language resources without being afraid of making errors (Yule and Tarone, 1990). Not all CSs should be encouraged, however. For example, topic avoidance, mumbling, language switch, repetition, and message abandonment should not be encouraged. Other strategies, such as circumlocution, appeal for help, self-correction, word coinage, literal translation, approximation and all-purpose words, e.g. stuff, things, etc. may be encouraged.

This consciousness-raising of some strategies is important for the following reasons. First, communication strategies can lead to learning by eliciting unknown language items from the interlocutor, especially in the appeal for help strategy. Second, communication strategies are part of language use. Even native speakers use communication strategies in their speech and use time-gaining devices in order to keep the conversation going, such as "you know", "what do you call it?", and other strategies. Finally, the use of a communication strategy is not an indication of communication failure; on the contrary, it can be very successful in compensating for the lack of linguistic knowledge. The results of Rababah's study (2001), which showed that more than 90 per cent of the learners attempts in describing objects, telling a story and role playing were comprehensible and successful because they used communication strategies, support this claim. The subjects' use of CSs helped them to solve their communication problems and achieve their communicative goals.

It is also possible to provide learners with L2 models of the use of certain CSs by means of listening materials and videos which contain communication strategy use, and then to ask learners to identify, categorise and evaluate CS use by native speakers or other L2 speakers. Another approach suggested by Faerch and Kasper (1986) is to record

conversations between native and non-native speakers on video, and then let the students view their own recording and analyse their own strategy use. To be good speakers, it is necessary for learners to be good listeners. Careful listening also helps improve pronunciation and reveals how conversational language expresses meaning. Listening to real-life situations is an excellent way to expose students to the different ways in which things can be said, which will help them in their attempts to express themselves. The more the student is exposed to the target language, the faster and easier it will be to assimilate the language.

Another approach could be asking learners to perform tasks, such as story telling, object description and role-plays. These are easy to integrate into the CLT classroom. It might also be a good idea to provide learners with certain basic vocabulary and sentence structures to describe the properties and functions of objects like: top-side, triangular, square (Tarone and Yule, 1989). Dornyei and Thurrell (1992) suggested using structures such as: “its a kind of /sort of, the thing you use for, its what /when you.., its something you do/say when”. They also provided a set of fillers and hesitation devices which come in handy when learners feel that they are encountering a communication problem (e.g., well, actually, you know, as a matter of fact, how shall I put it. etc.), as well as a set of ways to appeal for help (e.g., What do you call it? What is the word for?).

The results of our study (Rababah, 2001) showed that even weak learners were good at transmitting comprehensible and successful messages. This is probably a result of the use of communication strategies. University students and school learners should, therefore, be aware of these strategies and understand their value. Weak learners will like the idea as it makes things easier for them and helps them to solve their communication problems.

إستراتيجيات المحادثة في اللغة الإنجليزية، تعريفاتها وتصنيفاتها، طرق جمع البيانات و طرق تحليلها، مشاكل التصنيفات المقترحة، تدريس استراتيجيات المحادثة، وتطبيقاتها التربوية للغة الإنجليزية كلفة ثانية: مراجعة تاريخية

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الملخص

يعرض هذه البحث المجالات المختلفة لإستراتيجيات المحادثة المستخدمة في اللغة الإنجليزية كلفة ثانية حتى حينه، ويهدف إلى تقديم مراجعة تاريخية للبحوث المتعلقة باستراتيجيات المحادثة، التعريفات التي قدمها الباحثون، والتصنيفات المختلفة المقترحة حتى تاريخه في أدب الدراسة. و يناقش البحث أيضا طرق جمع البيانات وطرق تحليلها. إضافة إلى ذلك تم توضيح المشاكل الأساسية في التصنيفات المقترحة حتى الآن. كما ويعرض هذا البحث تصنيف المؤلف الذي اعتمد فيه على التصنيفات السابقة والدراسة الميدانية التي أجراها الباحث واختلافه عن التصنيفات السابقة. ويطرح موضوع إمكانية تدريس استراتيجيات المحادثة أم لا وهي مسألة خلافية، أخيرا يختم البحث ببيان التطبيقات التربوية لاستراتيجيات المحادثة وأهمية ذلك للمتعلمين للغة الإنجليزية كلفة ثانية.

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